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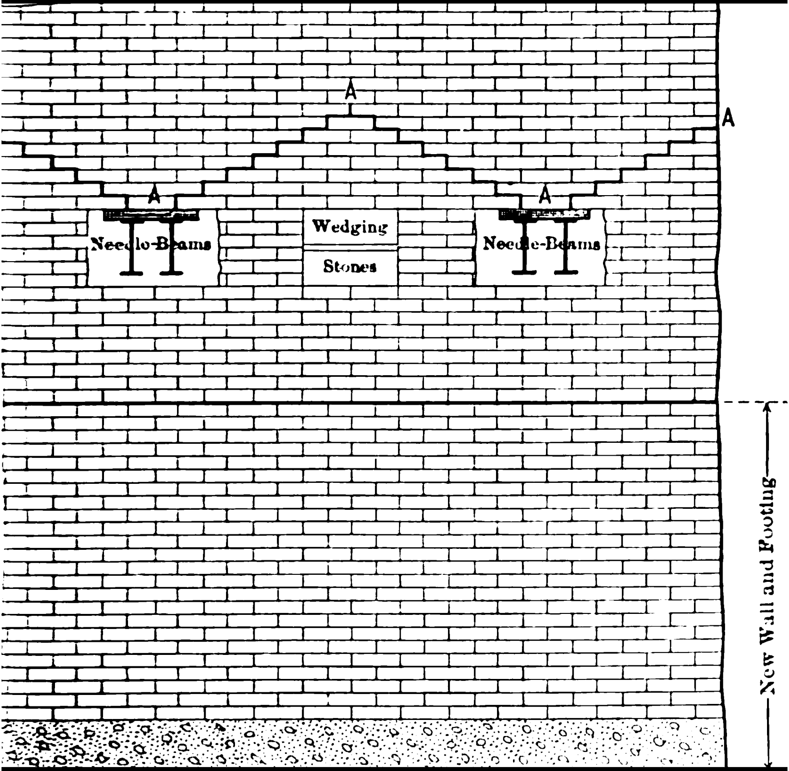

The architects' and builders' pocket-book

Frank Eugene Kidder, Thomas Nolan

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THE
ARCHITECTS' AND BUILDERS' POCKET-BOOK

A HANDBOOK FOR ARCHITECTS, STRUCTURAL ENGINEERS, BUILDERS AND DRAUGHTSMEN

BY

THE LATE **FRANK E. KIDDER**, C. E., PH. D.

AUTHOR OF "BUILDING CONSTRUCTION AND SUPERINTENDENCE"

COMPILED BY A STAFF OF SPECIALISTS

THOMAS NOLAN, EDITOR-IN-CHIEF

FELLOW OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS; PROFESSOR OF ARCHITECTURAL CONSTRUCTION, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

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The Publishers and the Editor-in-Chief will be grateful to readers of this volume who will call attention to any errors of omission or commission therein. It is intended to make our publications standard works of study and reference, and, to that end, the greatest accuracy is sought. It rarely happens that the early editions of books are free from errors; but it is the endeavor of the Publishers to have them removed, and it is therefore desired that the Editor-in-Chief may be aided in his task of revision, from time to time, by the kindly criticism of readers.

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This Book

IS RESPECTFULLY DEDICATED TO THOSE WHOSE KINDNESS
HAS ENABLED ME TO PRODUCE IT

TO MY PARENTS

WHO GAVE ME THE EDUCATION UPON WHICH IT IS BASED

TO MY WIFE

FOR HER LOVING SYMPATHY, ENCOURAGEMENT
AND ASSISTANCE

TO ORLANDO W. NORCROSS

OF WORCESTER, MASS.

WHOSE SUPERIOR PRACTICAL KNOWLEDGE OF ALL THAT
PERTAINS TO BUILDING HAS GIVEN ME A MORE
INTELLIGENT AND PRACTICAL VIEW OF THE
SCIENCE OF CONSTRUCTION THAN I
SHOULD OTHERWISE HAVE
OBTAINED *

* Dedication to First Edition.

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PREFACE TO SIXTEENTH EDITION

The changes in the fifteenth edition, published in 1908, consisted principally of the rewriting of the two chapters on Fireproofing of Buildings and Reinforced Concrete.

In 1912 the undersigned was asked to undertake the revision of the entire book with the cooperation of a corps of Associate Editors, each highly qualified to render the necessary assistance in matters pertaining to his own work. On account of the comprehensive nature of the contents of the Pocket-Book, the many recent changes and rapid developments in different fields of architectural construction, and the consequent effect of such changes on the interrelated subjects treated, the Editor-in-Chief decided to rewrite and reset the entire book. After more than three years of arduous labor, in which the Associate Editors and many other contributors have most ably and generously assisted, the New Kidder is about to be published.

It was decided to retain Mr. Kidder's original arrangement of the subject-matter which is divided into three Parts, Part I dealing with practical applications of Arithmetic, Geometry and Trigonometry, Part II with the Materials of Construction and the Strength and Stability of Structures, and Part III with miscellaneous useful information for architects and builders. Each of the twenty-nine chapters of Part II, however, has the name of the Associate Editor who revised or rewrote it printed with the chapter-caption. Part I has been carefully checked and much of the matter rearranged. The twenty-eight chapters of Part II have been rewritten and one new chapter has been added on Reinforced-Concrete Mill and Factory-Construction. Part III has been largely rewritten and all subjects retained have been thoroughly revised. To this part, also, much new matter has been added, such as extended tables of Specific Gravities and Weights of Substances, Architectural Acoustics, Waterproofing for Foundations, the Quantity System of Estimating, the Standard Documents of the American Institute of Architects, Educational Societies of the World and extended lists of Architectural Schools, Books and Periodicals.

The Editor-in-Chief has, with very few exceptions, personally checked on every page of manuscript, galley-proof and page-proof the equations, formulas, computations and problems, and has read or examined carefully every word, figure and illustration, every detail of syntax, paragraphing, punctuation and typography, and every arrangement of tables, captions, classifications, notation, Table of Contents and Index.

He is responsible for many changes in the form of presentation of data which it is hoped will add to the Pocket-Book still more of that efficiency and practical helpfulness for which it has been so long noted. Some of these changes may be briefly mentioned. The text has been entirely reset; the type, while slightly smaller, is clearer and has the lines and paragraphs separated by wide leads; a special type is used for the tables; the paragraphing is revised throughout and every paragraph has a black-face type caption descriptive of the subject-matter; words in italics or with quotation-marks are seldom used, words in small caps taking their place; every chapter is divided into numbered chapter-subdivisions which are briefly descriptive of the classified matter; the number of cross-references is largely increased and the page-numbers of such references are almost always added; many tables and diagrams which in the former editions read lengthwise of the page have been reset or reengraved to read across the page for greater convenience; the number of illustrations has been largely increased, many old cuts reused have been reengraved, and some diagrams printed with lines of different colors to make the demonstrations clearer; a descriptive caption has been added to every illustration; the abbreviations Chap. I, Chap. II, etc., have been printed with each page-caption of the left-hand pages, thus avoiding the necessity of referring to the Table of Contents to locate any particular chapter.

The Editor-in-Chief decided to change some of the unit stresses, especially those for the different woods, and in some cases to recommend more conservative values, and he believes that results based upon such stresses conform to the best engineering practice. This change necessitated the revision of many tables and problems throughout the book which had to be entirely recalculated. Numerous practical problems with complete solutions have been added. The derivation of many of the formulas used has been explained, either in the body of the text or in extended foot-notes, for those who wish to understand as well as to use such formulas, and numerous cross-references accompanying them enable the reader to use the Pocket-Book as a textbook for certain parts of the mechanics of materials as well as a handbook for office work. The tables of the properties of structural shapes, of safe loads for columns, beams and girders, etc., have been revised and numerous new tables added. The Editor has found that it is the consensus of opinion among architects that the insertion of these tables is a great convenience and for their ordinary office work condenses into one handy volume much of the essential data of several manufacturers' handbooks.

The difficulty of securing a unity of treatment and of avoiding repetitions and contradictions in a book of reference the data of which covers so many subjects and is written by so many contributors has been fully realized; but it is believed that in these respects the New Kidder is reasonably successful and will meet with the approval of all who use it.

Acknowledgments and thanks are due the Associate Editors for their hearty cooperation and generous contributions of the time and labor taken from their professional work. Acknowledgment is made, also, of the valuable assistance of all others who have furnished new or revised old data, and of many helpful suggestions from Mrs. F. E. Kidder and from the publishers.

The Editor-in-Chief expresses the hope that for the architects and builders of this country the new Pocket-Book will continue to be, as Mr. Kidder expressed it in his preface to the first edition in 1884, "a compendium of practical facts, rules and tables presented in a form as convenient for application as possible, and as reliable as our present knowledge will permit;" and also, in its present extension and fuller development, a work which will lead to a still clearer understanding of the essential principles of sound architectural construction.

THOMAS NOLAN.

PHILADELPHIA, September, 1915.

PREFACE TO FOURTEENTH EDITION

It is now nearly twenty years since the author, then quite a young man, completed the first edition of this work, which, although containing but 586 pages, had required about three years for its preparation. At that time the author thought he had covered all of those practical details relating to the planning and construction of buildings, with which the architect was concerned, tolerably well, and it would appear as though the purchasers of the book thought so too, but as the years have come and gone, so many and such great improvements have taken place in the building world, so many articles invented, new methods of construction developed, higher standards established, that the present edition, although containing nearly three times as many pages, is perhaps not more complete, for the times, than was the first edition.

When preparing the first edition, it was the aim of the author to give to architects and builders a handbook which should be, in its field, as useful and reliable as Trautwine's had been to civil engineers; and with that object constantly in view, the book has been revised from time to time to meet the changed conditions in building construction and equipment.

About three years ago it was thought, by the publishers and the author, that a thorough and complete revision of the book should be undertaken, and although the re-writing of a work of this character, even with the thirteenth edition to work from, involved many months of close and constant application, the utilization of those hours which one ordinarily takes for recreation, and at the best more or less interruption to his regular business, and consequent reduction in income, the writer undertook to prepare a work of a still wider scope, and which should be thoroughly up-to-date in every particular, or at least as far as is practicable, in a work requiring a period of three years in its preparation, and from that time to this he has spared no labor or expense to make the book as useful and complete as he possibly could, without making it too bulky.

In this revision the author has had in view:

1st. A reference-book which should contain some information on every subject (except design) likely to come before an architect, structural engineer, draughtsman, or master-builder, including data for estimating the approximate cost.

2d. To as thoroughly cover the subject of architectural engineering as is practicable in a handbook.

3d. To present all information in as simple and convenient a form for immediate application as is consistent with accuracy. To this end a great many new tables, arranged and computed by the author, have been inserted.

At the time the first edition was written, the term "Architectural Engineering" had not been used in its present application, and the term "Structural Engineering," when used, referred almost exclusively to bridge work.

To-day, structural and architectural engineers are concerned almost exclusively with building construction, and their work is more closely allied to that of the architect than to that of the civil engineer; hence the author has had in mind the needs of the structural engineer and draughtsman as well as those of the architect and builder, and the book should be of nearly equal value to both.

Where it was impossible, for lack of space, to go extensively into any subject, references to other books or sources of information have been given, so that in this way the book may serve as a general index to the many lines of work, materials, and manufactured products entering into the planning, construction, and equipment of buildings.

To attain the objects in view, it has been necessary to add considerably to the number of pages, but as experience has shown that the book is used principally at the desk or draughting-table, and is seldom carried in the pocket, it is believed that the convenience of having everything in one book will more than offset any disadvantage resulting from increase in bulk.

Nearly the entire book has been re-written, and great pains have been taken to furnish reliable data. A large number of experts in various lines have assisted the author, as is manifest by the foot-notes and references. To all of such, and to the many authors of technical works, and to the publishers of technical journals, who have kindly consented to the use of cuts and data, the author takes pleasure in acknowledging his indebtedness. Also to Mr. E. S. Hand, of New York, who, for many years, has rendered material assistance in collecting data along the line of manufactured products.

The names and addresses of manufacturers have been given solely for the convenience of the users of the book, and not for any pecuniary considerations; in fact, if money considerations had solely appealed to the writer, this book would never have been re-written, because a technical work of this character can never adequately compensate, in money, for the time, labor, and thought required in its preparation. The many words of appreciation which have come to the author from hundreds of those who have found the book useful have been a great stimulus to further increase its usefulness.

As in the former prefaces, the author requests that any one discovering errors in the work or who may have any suggestions looking to the further improvement of the book, will communicate the same to him, that the book may be made as complete and reliable as possible.

Finally, the author desires to acknowledge his indebtedness to the publishers, who have heartily seconded his efforts in every particular, and who have spared no pains or expense to make a perfect handbook.

F. E. KIDDER.

DENVER, COLO., July 18th, 1904.

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PART I

PRACTICAL ARITHMETIC, GEOMETRY AND TRIGONOMETRY

RULES, TABLES AND PROBLEMS

1. PRACTICAL ARITHMETIC

Mathematical Signs and Characters*

The following signs and characters are generally used to denote and abbreviate the several mathematical operations:

The sign = means equal to, or equality;
− means minus or less, or subtraction;
+ means plus, or addition;
× means multiplied by, or multiplication;
÷ or / means divided by, or division;
^{2} } are indexes or powers, meaning that the number to which they
^{3} } are added is to be squared (^{2}) or cubed (^{3});
: is to }
: : so is } are signs of proportion;
: to }
√ is the RADICAL SIGN and means that the square root of the number before which it is placed is to be extracted;
∛ means that the cube root of the number before which it is placed is to be extracted;
—— the BAR indicates that all the numbers under it are to be taken together;
( ) the PARENTHESIS means that all the numbers between are to be taken as one quantity;
. means decimal parts; thus, 2.5 means $2\frac{5}{10}$, 0.46 means $\frac{46}{100}$.
° means degrees, ′ minutes and ″ seconds;
∴ means hence;
′ means feet;
″ means inches.

Involution

To Square a Number, multiply the number by itself, and the product will be the square; thus, the square of $18 = 18^2 = 18 \times 18 = 324$.

The Cube of a Number is the product obtained by multiplying the number by itself, and that product by the number again; thus, the cube of $14 = 14^3 = 14 \times 14 \times 14 = 2\,744$.

The Fourth Power of a Number is the product obtained by multiplying the number by itself four times; thus, the fourth power of $10 = 10^4 = 10 \times 10 \times 10 \times 10 = 10\,000$.

Evolution

Square Root. Rule for extracting the square root of a number:

(1) Divide the given number into periods of two figures each, commencing at the right if it is a whole number, and at the decimal point if there are decimals; thus, $\dot{1}0\dot{2}3\dot{6}.8\dot{1}2\dot{6}$.

(2) Find the largest square in the left-hand period, and place its root in the quotient; subtract the said square from the left-hand period, and to the remainder bring down the next period for a new dividend.

(3) Double the root already found, and annex one cipher for a trial-divisor; see how many times it will go in the dividend, and put the number in the quotient

---

* See, also, pages 122 and 123, Part II.

and also in place of the cipher in the divisor. Multiply this final divisor by th number in the quotient just found, subtract the product from the dividend and to the remainder bring down the next period for a new dividend and procee as before. If it should be found that the trial divisor cannot be contained in th dividend, bring down the next period for a new dividend, annex another ciphe to the trial divisor, put a cipher in the quotient and proceed as before.

Example. $\dot{1}0\dot{2}3\dot{6}.\dot{8}1\dot{2}6$ (101.17, the square root

$$\begin{array}{r}
1\\ \hline
201)0236\\
201\\ \hline
2021)3581\\
2021\\ \hline
20227)156026\\
141589\\ \hline
14437
\end{array}$$

Cube Root. To extract the cube root of a number, point off the number from right to left into periods of three figures each, and, if there is a decimal, commence at the decimal point and point off into periods, going both ways.

Ascertain the highest root of the first period, and place it to the right of the number, as in long division; cube the root thus found and subtract from the first period; to the remainder annex the next period; square the root already found, multiply by three and annex two ciphers for the trial divisor. Find how many times this trial divisor is contained in the dividend and write the result in the root.

Add together the trial divisor, three times the product of the first figure of the root by the second with one cipher annexed, and the square of the second figure in the root; multiply the sum by the last figure in the root, and subtract from the dividend; to the remainder annex the next period and proceed as before.

When the trial divisor is greater than the dividend, write a cipher in the root, annex the next period to the dividend and proceed as before.

Example. Required, the cube root of 493039 or $\sqrt[3]{493039}$

$$\begin{array}{rr|l}
 & & 49\dot{3}03\dot{9}(79,\text{ the cube root}\\
 & 7\times7\times7 = & 343\\ \cline{3-3}
7\times7\times3 = & 14700 & 150039\\
7\times9\times3 = & 1890 & \\
9\times9 = & 81 & \\ \cline{2-2}
 & 16671 & 150039\\ \cline{3-3}
\end{array}$$

Example. Required, the cube root of 403583.419 or $\sqrt[3]{403583.419}$

$$\begin{array}{rr|l}
 & & \dot{4}03\dot{5}8\dot{3}.41\dot{9}(73.9,\text{ the cube root}\\
 & 7\times7\times7 = & 343\\ \cline{3-3}
7\times7\times3 = & 14700 & 60583\\
7\times3\times3 = & 630 & \\
3\times3 = & 9 & \\ \cline{2-2}
 & 15339 & 46017\\ \cline{3-3}
73\times73\times3 = & 1598700 & 14566419\\
73\times\ 9\times3 = & 19710 & \\
9\times9 = & 81 & \\ \cline{2-2}
 & 1618491 & 14566419\\ \cline{3-3}
\end{array}$$

Example. Required, the cube root of 158252.632929 or $\sqrt[3]{158252.632929}$

158252.632929(54.09, the cube root

5 × 5 × 5 =	125
5 × 5 × 3 = 7500	33252
5 × 4 × 3 = 600	
4 × 4 = 16	
8116	32464
540 × 540 × 3 = 87480000	788632929
540 × 9 × 3 = 145800	
9 × 9 = 81	
87625881	788632929

TABLES

OF

SQUARES, CUBES, SQUARE ROOTS, CUBE ROOTS AND RECIPROCALS

From 1 to 1054

The following table, taken from Searle's Field Engineering, will be found of great convenience in finding the square, cube, square root, cube root and reciprocal of any number from 1 to 1054. The reciprocal of a number is the quotient obtained by dividing 1 by the number. Thus, the reciprocal of 8 is 1 ÷ 8 = 0.125.

No.	Squares	Cubes	Square roots	Cube roots	Reciprocals
1	1	1	1.0000000	1.0000000	1.000000000
2	4	8	1.4142136	1.2599210	.500000000
3	9	27	1.7320508	1.4422496	.333333333
4	16	64	2.0000000	1.5874011	.250000000
5	25	125	2.2360680	1.7099759	.200000000
6	36	216	2.4494897	1.8171206	.166666667
7	49	343	2.6457513	1.9129312	.142857143
8	64	512	2.8284271	2.0000000	.125000000
9	81	729	3.0000000	2.0800837	.111111111
10	100	1000	3.1622777	2.1544347	.100000000
11	121	1331	3.3166248	2.2239801	.090909091
12	144	1728	3.4641016	2.2894286	.083333333
13	169	2197	3.6055513	2.3513347	.076923077
14	196	2744	3.7416574	2.4101422	.071428571
15	225	3375	3.8729833	2.4662121	.066666667
16	256	4096	4.0000000	2.5198421	.062500000
17	289	4913	4.1231056	2.5712816	.058823529
18	324	5832	4.2426407	2.6207414	.055555556
19	361	6859	4.3588989	2.6684016	.052631579
20	400	8000	4.4721360	2.7144177	.050000000
21	441	9261	4.5825757	2.7589243	.047619048
22	484	10648	4.6904158	2.8020393	.045454545
23	529	12167	4.7958315	2.8438670	.043478261
24	576	13824	4.8989795	2.8844991	.041666667
25	625	15625	5.0000000	2.9240177	.040000000
26	676	17576	5.0990195	2.9624960	.038461538
27	729	19683	5.1961524	3.0000000	.037037037
28	784	21952	5.2915026	3.0365889	.035714286
29	841	24389	5.3851648	3.0723168	.034482759
30	900	27000	5.4772256	3.1072325	.033333333
31	961	29791	5.5677644	3.1413806	.032258065
32	1024	32768	5.6568542	3.1748021	.031250000
33	1089	35937	5.7445626	3.2075343	.030303030
34	1156	39304	5.8309519	3.2396118	.029411765
35	1225	42875	5.9160798	3.2710663	.028571429
36	1296	46656	6.0000000	3.3019272	.027777778
37	1369	50653	6.0827625	3.3322218	.027027027
38	1444	54872	6.1644140	3.3619754	.026315789
39	1521	59319	6.2449980	3.3912114	.025641026
40	1600	64000	6.3245553	3.4199519	.025000000
41	1681	68921	6.4031242	3.4482172	.024390244
42	1764	74088	6.4807407	3.4760266	.023809524
43	1849	79507	6.5574385	3.5033981	.023255814
44	1936	85184	6.6332496	3.5303483	.022727273
45	2025	91125	6.7082039	3.5568933	.022222222
46	2116	97336	6.7823300	3.5830479	.021739130
47	2209	103823	6.8556546	3.6088261	.021276600
48	2304	110592	6.9282032	3.6342411	.020833333
49	2401	117649	7.0000000	3.6593057	.020408163
50	2500	125000	7.0710678	3.6840314	.020000000
51	2601	132651	7.1414284	3.7084298	.019607843
52	2704	140608	7.2111026	3.7325111	.019230769
53	2809	148877	7.2801099	3.7562858	.018867925
54	2916	157464	7.3484692	3.7797631	.018518519
55	3025	166375	7.4161985	3.8029525	.018181818
56	3136	175616	7.4833148	3.8258624	.017857143
57	3249	185193	7.5498344	3.8485011	.017543860
58	3364	195112	7.6157731	3.8708766	.017241379
59	3481	205379	7.6811457	3.8929965	.016949153
60	3600	216000	7.7459667	3.9148676	.016666667
61	3721	226981	7.8102497	3.9364972	.016393443
62	3844	238328	7.8740079	3.9578915	.016129032

No.	Squares	Cubes	Square roots	Cube roots	Reciprocals
63	3969	250047	7.9372539	3.9790571	.015873016
64	4096	262144	8.0000000	4.0000000	.015625000
65	4225	274625	8.0622577	4.0207256	.015384615
66	4356	287496	8.1240384	4.0412401	.015151515
67	4489	300763	8.1853528	4.0615480	.014925373
68	4624	314432	8.2462113	4.0816551	.014705882
69	4761	328509	8.3066239	4.1015661	.014492754
70	4900	343000	8.3666003	4.1212853	.014285714
71	5041	357911	8.4261498	4.1408178	.014084507
72	5184	373248	8.4852814	4.1601676	.013888889
73	5329	389017	8.5440037	4.1793390	.013698630
74	5476	405224	8.6023253	4.1983364	.013513514
75	5625	421875	8.6602540	4.2171633	.013333333
76	5776	438976	8.7177979	4.2358236	.013157895
77	5929	456533	8.7749644	4.2543210	.012987013
78	6084	474552	8.8317609	4.2726586	.012820513
79	6241	493039	8.8881944	4.2908404	.012658228
80	6400	512000	8.9442719	4.3088695	.012500000
81	6561	531441	9.0000000	4.3267487	.012345679
82	6724	551368	9.0553851	4.3444815	.012195122
83	6889	571787	9.1104336	4.3620707	.012048193
84	7056	592704	9.1651514	4.3795191	.011904762
85	7225	614125	9.2195445	4.3968296	.011764706
86	7396	636056	9.2736185	4.4140049	.011627907
87	7569	658503	9.3273791	4.4310476	.011494253
88	7744	681472	9.3808315	4.4479602	.011363636
89	7921	704969	9.4339811	4.4647451	.011235955
90	8100	729000	9.4868330	4.4814047	.011111111
91	8281	753571	9.5393920	4.4979414	.010989011
92	8464	778688	9.5916630	4.5143574	.010869565
93	8649	804357	9.6436508	4.5306549	.010752688
94	8836	830584	9.6953597	4.5468359	.010638298
95	9025	857375	9.7467943	4.5629026	.010526316
96	9216	884736	9.7979590	4.5788570	.010416667
97	9409	912673	9.8488578	4.5947009	.010309278
98	9604	941192	9.8994949	4.6104363	.010204082
99	9801	970299	9.9498744	4.6260650	.010101010
100	10000	1000000	10.0000000	4.6415888	.010000000
101	10201	1030301	10.0498756	4.6570095	.009900990
102	10404	1061208	10.0995049	4.6723287	.009803922
103	10609	1092727	10.1488916	4.6875482	.009708738
104	10816	1124864	10.1980390	4.7026694	.009615385
105	11025	1157625	10.2469508	4.7176940	.009523810
106	11236	1191016	10.2956301	4.7326235	.009433962
107	11449	1225043	10.3440804	4.7474594	.009345794
108	11664	1259712	10.3923048	4.7622032	.009259259
109	11881	1295029	10.4403065	4.7768562	.009174312
110	12100	1331000	10.4880885	4.7914199	.009090909
111	12321	1367631	10.5356538	4.8058955	.009009009
112	12544	1404928	10.5830052	4.8202845	.008928571
113	12769	1442897	10.6301458	4.8345881	.008849558
114	12996	1481544	10.6770783	4.8488076	.008771930
115	13225	1520875	10.7238053	4.8629442	.008695652
116	13456	1560896	10.7703296	4.8769990	.008620690
117	13689	1601613	10.8166538	4.8909732	.008547009
118	13924	1643032	10.8627805	4.9048681	.008474576
119	14161	1685159	10.9087121	4.9186847	.008403361
120	14400	1728000	10.9544512	4.9324242	.008333333
121	14641	1771561	11.0000000	4.9460874	.008264463
122	14884	1815848	11.0453610	4.9596757	.008196721
123	15129	1860867	11.0905365	4.9731898	.008130081
124	15376	1906624	11.1355287	4.9866310	.008064516

No.	Squares	Cubes	Square roots	Cube roots	Reciprocals
125	15625	1953125	11.1803399	5.0000000	.008000000
126	15876	2000376	11.2249722	5.0132979	.007936508
127	16129	2048383	11.2694277	5.0265257	.007874016
128	16384	2097152	11.3137085	5.0396842	.007812500
129	16641	2146689	11.3578167	5.0527743	.007751938
130	16900	2197000	11.4017543	5.0657970	.007692308
131	17161	2248091	11.4455231	5.0787531	.007633588
132	17424	2299968	11.4891253	5.0916434	.007575758
133	17689	2352637	11.5325626	5.1044687	.007518797
134	17956	2406104	11.5758369	5.1172299	.007462687
135	18225	2460375	11.6189500	5.1299278	.007407407
136	18496	2515456	11.6619038	5.1425632	.007352941
137	18769	2571353	11.7046999	5.1551367	.007299270
138	19044	2628072	11.7473401	5.1676493	.007246377
139	19321	2685619	11.7898261	5.1801015	.007194245
140	19600	2744000	11.8321596	5.1924941	.007142857
141	19881	2803221	11.8743421	5.2048279	.007092199
142	20164	2863288	11.9163753	5.2171034	.007042254
143	20449	2924207	11.9582607	5.2293215	.006993007
144	20736	2985984	12.0000000	5.2414828	.006944444
145	21025	3048625	12.0415946	5.2535879	.006896552
146	21316	3112136	12.0830460	5.2656374	.006849315
147	21609	3176523	12.1243557	5.2776321	.006802721
148	21904	3241792	12.1655251	5.2895725	.006756757
149	22201	3307949	12.2065556	5.3014592	.006711409
150	22500	3375000	12.2474487	5.3132928	.006666667
151	22801	3442951	12.2882057	5.3250740	.006622517
152	23104	3511808	12.3288280	5.3368033	.006578947
153	23409	3581577	12.3693169	5.3484812	.006535948
154	23716	3652264	12.4096736	5.3601084	.006493506
155	24025	3723875	12.4498996	5.3716854	.006451613
156	24336	3796416	12.4899960	5.3832126	.006410256
157	24649	3869893	12.5299641	5.3946907	.006369427
158	24964	3944312	12.5698051	5.4061202	.006329114
159	25281	4019679	12.6095202	5.4175015	.006289308
160	25600	4096000	12.6491106	5.4288352	.006250000
161	25921	4173281	12.6885775	5.4401218	.006211180
162	26244	4251528	12.7279221	5.4513618	.006172840
163	26569	4330747	12.7671453	5.4625556	.006134969
164	26896	4410944	12.8062485	5.4737037	.006097561
165	27225	4492125	12.8452326	5.4848066	.006060606
166	27556	4574296	12.8840987	5.4958647	.006024096
167	27889	4657463	12.9228480	5.5068784	.005988024
168	28224	4741632	12.9614814	5.5178484	.005952381
169	28561	4826809	13.0000000	5.5287748	.005917160
170	28900	4913000	13.0384048	5.5396583	.005882353
171	29241	5000211	13.0766968	5.5504991	.005847953
172	29584	5088448	13.1148770	5.5612978	.005813953
173	29929	5177717	13.1529464	5.5720546	.005780347
174	30276	5268024	13.1909060	5.5827702	.005747126
175	30625	5359375	13.2287566	5.5934447	.005714286
176	30976	5451776	13.2664992	5.6040787	.005681818
177	31329	5545233	13.3041347	5.6146724	.005649718
178	31684	5639752	13.3416641	5.6252263	.005617978
179	32041	5735339	13.3790882	5.6357408	.005586592
180	32400	5832000	13.4164079	5.6462162	.005555556
181	32761	5929741	13.4536240	5.6566528	.005524862
182	33124	6028568	13.4907376	5.6670511	.005494505
183	33489	6128487	13.5277493	5.6774114	.005464481
184	33856	6229504	13.5646600	5.6877340	.005434783
185	34225	6331625	13.6014705	5.6980192	.005405405
186	34596	6434856	13.6381817	5.7082675	.005376344

Squares, Cubes, Square Roots, Cube Roots and Reciprocals

No.	Squares	Cubes	Square roots	Cube roots	Reciprocal
187	34969	6539203	13.6747943	5.7184791	.00534759
188	35344	6644672	13.7113092	5.7286543	.00531914
189	35721	6751269	13.7477271	5.7387936	.00529100
190	36100	6859000	13.7840488	5.7488971	.00526315
191	36481	6967871	13.8202750	5.7589652	.00523560
192	36864	7077888	13.8564065	5.7689982	.00520833
193	37249	7189057	13.8924440	5.7789966	.005181347
194	37636	7301384	13.9283883	5.7889604	.005154639
195	38025	7414875	13.9642400	5.7988900	.005128205
196	38416	7529536	14.0000000	5.8087857	.005102041
197	38809	7645373	14.0356688	5.8186479	.005076142
198	39204	7762392	14.0712473	5.8284767	.005050505
199	39601	7880599	14.1067360	5.8382725	.005025126
200	40000	8000000	14.1421356	5.8480355	.005000000
201	40401	8120601	14.1774469	5.8577660	.004975124
202	40804	8242408	14.2126704	5.8674643	.004950495
203	41209	8365427	14.2478068	5.8771307	.004926108
204	41616	8489664	14.2828569	5.8867653	.004901961
205	42025	8615125	14.3178211	5.8963685	.004878049
206	42436	8741816	14.3527001	5.9059406	.004854369
207	42849	8869743	14.3874946	5.9154817	.004830918
208	43264	8998912	14.4222051	5.9249921	.004807692
209	43681	9129329	14.4568323	5.9344721	.004784689
210	44100	9261000	14.4913767	5.9439220	.004761905
211	44521	9393931	14.5258390	5.9533418	.004739336
212	44944	9528128	14.5602198	5.9627320	.004716981
213	45369	9663597	14.5945195	5.9720926	.004694836
214	45796	9800344	14.6287388	5.9814240	.004672897
215	46225	9938375	14.6628783	5.9907264	.004651163
216	46656	10077696	14.6969385	6.0000000	.004629630
217	47089	10218313	14.7309199	6.0092450	.004608295
218	47524	10360232	14.7648231	6.0184617	.004587156
219	47961	10503459	14.7986486	6.0276502	.004566210
220	48400	10648000	14.8323970	6.0368107	.004545455
221	48841	10793861	14.8660687	6.0459435	.004524887
222	49284	10941048	14.8996644	6.0550489	.004504505
223	49729	11089567	14.9331845	6.0641270	.004484305
224	50176	11239424	14.9666295	6.0731779	.004464286
225	50625	11390625	15.0000000	6.0822020	.004444444
226	51076	11543176	15.0332964	6.0911994	.004424779
227	51529	11697083	15.0665192	6.1001702	.004405286
228	51984	11852352	15.0996689	6.1091147	.004385965
229	52441	12008989	15.1327460	6.1180332	.004366812
230	52900	12167000	15.1657509	6.1269257	.004347826
231	53361	12326391	15.1986842	6.1357924	.004329004
232	53824	12487168	15.2315462	6.1446337	.00431034
233	54289	12649337	15.2643375	6.1534495	.00429184
234	54756	12812904	15.2970585	6.1622401	.00427350
235	55225	12977875	15.3297097	6.1710058	.00425531
236	55696	13144256	15.3622915	6.1797466	.00423728
237	56169	13312053	15.3948043	6.1884628	.00421940
238	56644	13481272	15.4272486	6.1971544	.00420168
239	57121	13651919	15.4596248	6.2058218	.00418410
240	57600	13824000	15.4919334	6.2144650	.00416666
241	58081	13997521	15.5241747	6.2230843	.00414937
242	58564	14172488	15.5563492	6.2316797	.00413223
243	59049	14348907	15.5884573	6.2402515	.00411522
244	59536	14526784	15.6204994	6.2487998	.0040983
245	60025	14706125	15.6524758	6.2573248	.0040816
246	60516	14886936	15.6843871	6.2658266	.0040650
247	61009	15069223	15.7162336	6.2743054	.0040485
248	61504	15252992	15.7480157	6.2827613	.0040322

No.	Squares	Cubes	Square roots	Cube roots	Re
249	62001	15438249	15.7797338	6.2911946	.0
250	62500	15625000	15.8113883	6.2996053	.0
251	63001	15813251	15.8429795	6.3079935	.0
252	63504	16003008	15.8745079	6.3163596	.0
253	64009	16194277	15.9059737	6.3247035	.0
254	64516	16387064	15.9373775	6.3330256	.0
255	65025	16581375	15.9687194	6.3413257	.0
256	65536	16777216	16.0000000	6.3496042	.0
257	66049	16974593	16.0312195	6.3578611	.0
258	66564	17173512	16.0623784	6.3660968	.0
259	67081	17373979	16.0934769	6.3743111	.0
260	67600	17576000	16.1245155	6.3825043	.0
261	68121	17779581	16.1554944	6.3906765	.0
262	68644	17984728	16.1864141	6.3988279	.0
263	69169	18191447	16.2172747	6.4069585	.0
264	69696	18399744	16.2480768	6.4150687	.0
265	70225	18609625	16.2788206	6.4231583	.0
266	70756	18821096	16.3095064	6.4312276	.0
267	71289	19034163	16.3401346	6.4392767	.0
268	71824	19248832	16.3707055	6.4473057	.0
269	72361	19465109	16.4012195	6.4553148	.0
270	72900	19683000	16.4316767	6.4633041	.0
271	73441	19902511	16.4620776	6.4712736	.0
272	73984	20123648	16.4924225	6.4792236	.0
273	74529	20346417	16.5227116	6.4871541	.0
274	75076	20570824	16.5529454	6.4950653	.0
275	75625	20796875	16.5831240	6.5029572	.0
276	76176	21024576	16.6132477	6.5108300	.0
277	76729	21253933	16.6433170	6.5186839	.0
278	77284	21484952	16.6733320	6.5265189	.0
279	77841	21717639	16.7032931	6.5343351	.0
280	78400	21952000	16.7332005	6.5421326	.0
281	78961	22188041	16.7630546	6.5499116	.0
282	79524	22425768	16.7928556	6.5576722	.0
283	80089	22665187	16.8226038	6.5654144	.0
284	80656	22906304	16.8522995	6.5731385	.0
285	81225	23149125	16.8819430	6.5808443	.0
286	81796	23393656	16.9115345	6.5885323	.0
287	82369	23639903	16.9410743	6.5962023	.0
288	82944	23887872	16.9705627	6.6038545	.0
289	83521	24137569	17.0000000	6.6114890	.0
290	84100	24389000	17.0293864	6.6191060	.0
291	84681	24642171	17.0587221	6.6267054	.0
292	85264	24897088	17.0880075	6.6342874	.0
293	85849	25153757	17.1172428	6.6418522	.0
294	86436	25412184	17.1464282	6.6493998	.0
295	87025	25672375	17.1755640	6.6569302	.0
296	87616	25934336	17.2046505	6.6644437	.0
297	88209	26198073	17.2336879	6.6719403	.0
298	88804	26463592	17.2626765	6.6794200	.0
299	89401	26730899	17.2916165	6.6868831	.0
300	90000	27000000	17.3205081	6.6943295	.0
301	90601	27270901	17.3493516	6.7017593	.0
302	91204	27543608	17.3781472	6.7091729	.0
303	91809	27818127	17.4068952	6.7165700	.0
304	92416	28094464	17.4355958	6.7239508	.0
305	93025	28372625	17.4642492	6.7313155	.0
306	93636	28652616	17.4928557	6.7386641	.0
307	94249	28934443	17.5214155	6.7459967	.0
308	94864	29218112	17.5499288	6.7533134	.0
309	95481	29503629	17.5783958	6.7606143	.0
310	96100	29791000	17.6068169	6.7678995	.0

No.	Squares	Cubes	Square roots	Cube roots	Reciprocals
311	96721	30080231	17.6351921	6.7751690	.003215434
312	97344	30371328	17.6635217	6.7824229	.003205128
313	97969	30664297	17.6918060	6.7896613	.003194888
314	98596	30959144	17.7200451	6.7968844	.003184713
315	99225	31255875	17.7482393	6.8040921	.003174603
316	99856	31554496	17.7763888	6.8112847	.003164557
317	100489	31855013	17.8044938	6.8184620	.003154574
318	101124	32157432	17.8325545	6.8256242	.003144654
319	101761	32461759	17.8605711	6.8327714	.003134796
320	102400	32768000	17.8885438	6.8399037	.003125000
321	103041	33076161	17.9164729	6.8470213	.003115265
322	103684	33386248	17.9443584	6.8541240	.003105590
323	104329	33698267	17.9722008	6.8612120	.003095975
324	104976	34012224	18.0000000	6.8682855	.003086420
325	105625	34328125	18.0277564	6.8753443	.003076923
326	106276	34645976	18.0554701	6.8823888	.003067485
327	106929	34965783	18.0831413	6.8894188	.003058104
328	107584	35287552	18.1107703	6.8964345	.003048780
329	108241	35611289	18.1383571	6.9034359	.003039514
330	108900	35937000	18.1659021	6.9104232	.003030303
331	109561	36264691	18.1934054	6.9173964	.003021148
332	110224	36594368	18.2208672	6.9243556	.003012048
333	110889	36926037	18.2482876	6.9313008	.003003003
334	111556	37259704	18.2756669	6.9382321	.002994012
335	112225	37595375	18.3030052	6.9451496	.002985075
336	112896	37933056	18.3303028	6.9520533	.002976190
337	113569	38272753	18.3575598	6.9589434	.002967359
338	114244	38614472	18.3847763	6.9658198	.002958580
339	114921	38958219	18.4119526	6.9726826	.002949853
340	115600	39304000	18.4390889	6.9795321	.002941176
341	116281	39651821	18.4661853	6.9863681	.002932551
342	116964	40001688	18.4932420	6.9931906	.002923977
343	117649	40353607	18.5202592	7.0000000	.002915452
344	118336	40707584	18.5472370	7.0067962	.002906977
345	119025	41063625	18.5741756	7.0135791	.002898551
346	119716	41421736	18.6010752	7.0203490	.002890173
347	120409	41781923	18.6279360	7.0271058	.002881844
348	121104	42144192	18.6547581	7.0338497	.002873563
349	121801	42508549	18.6815417	7.0405806	.002865330
350	122500	42875000	18.7082869	7.0472987	.002857143
351	123201	43243551	18.7349940	7.0540041	.002849003
352	123904	43614208	18.7616630	7.0606967	.002840909
353	124609	43986977	18.7882942	7.0673767	.002832861
354	125316	44361864	18.8148877	7.0740440	.002824859
355	126025	44738875	18.8414437	7.0806988	.002816901
356	126736	45118016	18.8679623	7.0873411	.002808989
357	127449	45499293	18.8944436	7.0939709	.002801120
358	128164	45882712	18.9208879	7.1005885	.002793216
359	128881	46268279	18.9472953	7.1071937	.002785595
360	129600	46656000	18.9736660	7.1137866	.002777778
361	130321	47045881	19.0000000	7.1203674	.002770083
632	131044	47437928	19.0262976	7.1269360	.002762431
363	131769	47832147	19.0525589	7.1334925	.002754821
364	132496	48228544	19.0787840	7.1400370	.002747253
365	133225	48627125	19.1049732	7.1465695	.002739726
366	133956	49027896	19.1311265	7.1530901	.002732240
367	134689	49430863	19.1572441	7.1595988	.002724796
368	135424	49836032	19.1833261	7.1660957	.002717391
369	136161	50243409	19.2093727	7.1725809	.002710027
370	136900	50653000	19.2353841	7.1790544	.002702703
371	137641	51064811	19.2613603	7.1855162	.002695418
372	138384	51478848	19.2873015	7.1919663	.002688172

No.	Squares	Cubes	Square roots	Cube roots	Re
373	139129	51895117	19.3132079	7.1984050	.00
374	139876	52313624	19.3390796	7.2048322	.00
375	140625	52734375	19.3649167	7.2112479	.00
376	141376	53157376	19.3907194	7.2176522	.00
377	142129	53582633	19.4164878	7.2240450	00
378	142884	54010152	19.4422221	7.2304268	.00
379	143641	54439939	19.4679223	7.2367972	.00
380	144400	54872000	19.4935887	7.2431565	.00
381	145161	55306341	19.5192213	7.2495045	.00
382	145924	55742968	19.5448203	7.2558415	.00
383	146689	56181887	19.5703858	7.2621675	.00
384	147456	56623104	19.5959179	7.2684824	.00
385	148225	57066625	19.6214169	7.2747864	.00
386	148996	57512456	19.6468827	7.2810794	.00
387	149769	57960603	19.6723156	7.2873617	.00
388	150544	58411072	19.6977156	7.2936330	.00
389	151321	58863869	19.7230829	7.2998936	.00
390	152100	59319000	19.7484177	7.3061436	.00
391	152881	59776471	19.7737199	7.3123828	.00
392	153664	60236288	19.7989899	7.3186114	.00
393	154449	60698457	19.8242276	7.3248295	.00
394	155236	61162984	19.8494332	7.3310369	.00
395	156025	61629875	19.8746069	7.3372339	.00
396	156816	62099136	19.8997487	7.3434205	.00
397	157609	62570773	19.9248588	7.3495966	.00
398	158404	63044792	19.9499373	7.3557624	.00
399	159201	63521199	19.9749844	7.3619178	.00
400	160000	64000000	20.0000000	7.3680630	.002
401	160801	64481201	20.0249844	7.3741979	.002
402	161604	64964808	20.0499377	7.3803227	.002
403	162409	65450827	20.0748599	7.3864373	.002
404	163216	65939264	20.0997512	7.3925418	.002
405	164025	66430125	20.1246118	7.3986363	.002
406	164836	66923416	20.1494417	7.4047206	.002
407	165649	67419143	20.1742410	7.4107950	.002
408	166464	67917312	20.1990099	7.4168595	.002
409	167281	68417929	20.2237484	7.4229142	.002
410	168100	68921000	20.2484567	7.4289589	.002
411	168921	69426531	20.2731349	7.4349938	.002
412	169744	69934528	20.2977831	7.4410189	.002
413	170569	70444997	20.3224014	7.4470342	.002
414	171396	70957944	20.3469899	7.4530399	.002
415	172225	71473375	20.3715488	7.4590359	.002
416	173056	71991296	20.3960781	7.4650223	.002
417	173889	72511713	20.4205779	7.4709991	.002
418	174724	73034632	20.4450483	7.4769664	.002
419	175561	73560059	20.4694895	7.4829242	.002
420	176400	74088000	20.4939015	7.4888724	.002
421	177241	74618461	20.5182845	7.4948113	.002
422	178084	75151448	20.5426386	7.5007406	.002
423	178929	75686967	20.5669638	7.5066607	.002
424	179776	76225024	20.5912603	7.5125715	.002
425	180625	76765625	20.6155281	7.5184730	.002
426	181476	77308776	20.6397674	7.5243652	.002
427	182329	77854483	20.6639783	7.5302482	.002
428	183184	78402752	20.6881609	7.5361221	.002
429	184041	78953589	20.7123152	7.5419867	.002
430	184900	79507000	20.7364414	7.5478423	.002
431	185761	80062991	20.7605395	7.5536888	.002
432	186624	80621568	20.7846097	7.5595263	.002
433	187489	81182737	20.8086520	7.5653548	.002
434	188356	81746504	20.8326667	7.5711743	.002

No.	Squares	Cubes	Square roots	Cube roots	Reciprocals
435	189225	82312875	20.8566536	7.5769849	.002298851
436	190096	82881856	20.8806130	7.5827865	.002293578
437	190969	83453453	20.9045450	7.5885793	.002288330
438	191844	84027672	20.9284495	7.5943633	.002283105
439	192721	84604519	20.9523268	7.6001385	.002277904
440	193600	85184000	20.9761770	7.6059049	.002272727
441	194481	85766121	21.0000000	7.6116626	.002267574
442	195364	86350888	21.0237960	7.6174116	.002262443
443	196249	86938307	21.0475652	7.6231519	.002257336
444	197136	87528384	21.0713075	7.6288837	.002252252
445	198025	88121125	21.0950231	7.6346067	.002247191
446	198916	88716536	21.1187121	7.6403213	.002242152
447	199809	89314623	21.1423745	7.6460272	.002237136
448	200704	89915392	21.1660105	7.6517247	.002232143
449	201601	90518849	21.1896201	7.6574138	.002227171
450	202500	91125000	21.2132034	7.6630943	.002222222
451	203401	91733851	21.2367606	7.6687665	.002217295
452	204304	92345408	21.2602916	7.6744303	.002212389
453	205209	92959677	21.2837967	7.6800857	.002207506
454	206116	93576664	21.3072758	7.6857328	.002202643
455	207025	94196375	21.3307290	7.6913717	.002197802
456	207936	94818816	21.3541565	7.6970023	.002192982
457	208849	95443993	21.3775583	7.7026246	.002188184
458	209764	96071912	21.4009346	7.7082388	.002183406
459	210681	96702579	21.4242853	7.7138448	.002178649
460	211600	97336000	21.4476106	7.7194426	.002173913
461	212521	97972181	21.4709106	7.7250325	.002169197
462	213444	98611128	21.4941853	7.7306141	.002164502
463	214369	99252847	21.5174348	7.7361877	.002159827
464	215296	99897344	21.5406592	7.7417532	.002155172
465	216225	100544625	21.5638587	7.7473109	.002150538
466	217156	101194696	21.5870331	7.7528606	.002145923
467	218089	101847563	21.6101828	7.7584023	.002141328
468	219024	102503232	21.6333077	7.7639361	.002136752
469	219961	103161709	21.6564078	7.7694620	.002132196
470	220900	103823000	21.6794834	7.7749801	.002127660
471	221841	104487111	21.7025344	7.7804904	.002123142
472	222784	105154048	21.7255610	7.7859928	.002118644
473	223729	105823817	21.7485632	7.7914875	.002114165
474	224676	106496424	21.7715411	7.7969745	.002109705
475	225625	107171875	21.7944947	7.8024538	.002105263
476	226576	107850176	21.8174242	7.8079254	.002100840
477	227529	108531333	21.8403297	7.8133892	.002096436
478	228484	109215352	21.8632111	7.8188456	.002092050
479	229441	109902239	21.8860686	7.8242942	.002087683
480	230400	110592000	21.9089023	7.8297353	.002083333
481	231361	111284641	21.9317122	7.8351688	.002079002
482	232324	111980168	21.9544984	7.8405949	.002074689
483	233289	112678587	21.9772610	7.8460134	.002070393
484	234256	113379904	22.0000000	5.8514244	.002066116
485	235225	114084125	22.0227155	7.8568281	.002061856
486	236196	114791256	22.0454077	7.8622242	.002057613
487	237169	115501303	22.0680765	7.8676130	.002053388
488	238144	116214272	22.0907220	7.8729944	.002049180
489	239121	116930169	22.1133444	7.8783684	.002044990
490	240100	117649000	22.1359436	7.8837352	.002040816
491	241081	118370771	22.1585198	7.8890946	.002036660
492	242064	119095488	22.1810730	7.8944468	.002032520
493	243049	119823157	22.2036033	7.8997917	.002028398
494	244036	120553784	22.2261108	7.9051294	.002024291
495	245025	121287375	22.2485955	7.9104599	.002020202
496	246016	122023936	22.2710575	7.9157832	.002016129

No.	Squares	Cubes	Square roots	Cube roots	R
497	247009	122763473	22.2934968	7.9210994	.0
498	248004	123505992	22.3159136	7.9264085	.0
499	249001	124251499	22.3383079	7.9317104	.0
500	250000	125000000	22.3606798	7.9370053	.0
501	251001	125751501	22.3830293	7.9422931	.0
502	252004	126506008	22.4053565	7.9475739	.0
503	253009	127263527	22.4276615	7.9528477	.0
504	254016	128024064	22.4499443	7.9581144	.0
505	255025	128787625	22.4722051	7.9633743	.0
506	256036	129554216	22.4944438	7.9686271	.0
507	257049	130323843	22.5166605	7.9738731	.0
508	258064	131096512	22.5388553	7.9791122	.0
509	259081	131872229	22.5610283	7.9843444	.0
510	260100	132651000	22.5831796	7.9895697	.0
511	261121	133432831	22.6053091	7.9947883	.0
512	262144	134217728	22.6274170	8.0000000	.0
513	263169	135005697	22.6495033	8.0052049	.0
514	264196	135796744	22.6715681	8.0104032	.0
515	265225	136590875	22.6936114	8.0155946	.0
516	266256	137388096	22.7156334	8.0207794	.0
517	267289	138188413	22.7376340	8.0259574	.0
518	268324	138991832	22.7596134	8.0311287	.0
519	269361	139798359	22.7815715	8.0362935	.0
520	270400	140608000	22.8035085	8.0414515	.0
521	271441	141420761	22.8254244	8.0466030	.0
522	272484	142236648	22.8473193	8.0517479	.0
523	273529	143055667	22.8691933	8.0568862	.0
524	274576	143877824	22.8910463	8.0620180	.0
525	275625	144703125	22.9128785	8.0671432	.0
526	276676	145531576	22.9346899	8.0722620	.0
527	277729	146363183	22.9564806	8.0773743	.0
528	278784	147197952	22.9782506	8.0824800	.0
529	279841	148035889	23.0000000	8.0875794	.0
530	280900	148877000	23.0217289	8.0926723	.0
531	281961	149721291	23.0434372	8.0977589	.0
532	283024	150568768	23.0651252	8.1028390	.0
533	284089	151419437	23.0867928	8.1079128	.0
534	285156	152273304	23.1084400	8.1129803	.0
535	286225	153130375	23.1300670	8.1180414	.0
536	287296	153990656	23.1516738	8.1230962	.0
537	288369	154854153	23.1732605	8.1281447	.0
538	289444	155720872	23.1948270	8.1331870	.0
539	290521	156590819	23.2163735	8.1382230	.0
540	291600	157464000	23.2379001	8.1432529	.0
541	292681	158340421	23.2594067	8.1482765	.0
542	293764	159220088	23.2808935	8.1532939	.0
543	294849	160103007	23.3023604	8.1583051	.0
544	295936	160989184	23.3238076	8.1633102	.0
545	297025	161878625	23.3452351	8.1683092	.0
546	298116	162771336	23.3666429	8.1733020	.0
547	299209	163667323	23.3880311	8.1782888	.0
548	300304	164566592	23.4093998	8.1832695	.0
549	301401	165469149	23.4307490	8.1882441	.0
550	302500	166375000	23.4520788	8.1932127	.0
551	303601	167284151	23.4733892	8.1981753	.0
552	304704	168196608	23.4946802	8.2031319	.0
553	305809	169112377	23.5159520	8.2080825	.0
554	306916	170031464	23.5372046	8.2130271	.0
555	308025	170953875	23.5584380	8.2179657	.0
556	309136	171879616	23.5796522	8.2228985	.0
557	310249	172808693	23.6008474	8.2278254	.0
558	311364	173741112	23.6220236	8.2327463	.0

Squares, Cubes, Square Roots, Cube Roots and Reciprocals

No.	Squares	Cubes	Square roots	Cube roots	Reciprocals
559	312481	174676879	23.6431808	8.2376614	.001788909
560	313600	175616000	23.6643191	8.2425706	.001785714
561	314721	176558481	23.6854386	8.2474740	.001782531
562	315844	177504328	23.7065392	8.2523715	.001779359
563	316969	178453547	23.7276210	8.2572633	.001776199
564	318096	179406144	23.7486842	8.2621492	.001773050
565	319225	180362125	23.7697286	8.2670294	.001769912
566	320356	181321496	23.7907545	8.2719039	.001766784
567	321489	182284263	23.8117618	8.2767726	.001763668
568	322624	183250432	23.8327506	8.2816355	.001760563
569	323761	184220000	23.8537209	8.2864928	.001757469
570	324900	185193000	23.8746728	8.2913444	.001754386
571	326041	186169411	23.8956063	8.2961903	.001751313
572	327184	187149248	23.9165215	8.3010304	.001748252
573	328329	188132517	23.9374184	8.3058651	.001745201
574	329476	189119224	23.9582971	8.3106941	.001742160
575	330625	190109375	23.9791576	8.3155175	.001739130
576	331776	191102976	24.0000000	8.3203353	.001736111
577	332929	192100033	24.0208243	8.3251475	.001733102
578	334084	193100552	24.0416306	8.3299542	.001730104
579	335241	194104539	24.0624188	8.3347553	.001727110
580	336400	195112000	24.0831891	8.3395509	.001724138
581	337561	196122941	24.1039416	8.3443410	.001721170
582	338724	197137368	24.1246762	8.3491256	.001718213
583	339889	198155287	24.1453929	8.3539047	.001715266
584	341056	199176704	24.1660919	8.3586784	.001712329
585	342225	200201625	24.1867732	8.3634466	.001709402
586	343396	201230056	24.2074369	8.3682095	.00170648
587	344569	202262003	24.2280829	8.3729668	.00170357
588	345744	203297472	24.2487113	8.3777188	.00170068
589	346921	204336469	24.2693222	8.3824653	.00169779
590	348100	205379000	24.2899156	8.3872065	.00169491
591	349281	206425071	24.3104916	8.3919423	.00169204
592	350464	207474688	24.3310501	8.3966729	.00168918
593	351649	208527857	24.3515913	8.4013981	.00168634
594	352836	209584584	24.3721152	8.4061180	.00168350
595	354025	210644875	24.3926218	8.4108326	.00168067
596	355216	211708736	24.4131112	8.4155419	.00167785
597	356409	212776173	24.4335834	8.4202460	.00167504
598	357604	213847192	24.4540385	8.4249448	.00167224
599	358801	214921799	24.4744765	8.4296383	.00166944
600	360000	216000000	24.4948974	8.4343267	.00166666
601	361201	217081801	24.5153013	8.4390098	.00166389
602	362404	218167208	24.5356883	8.4436877	.00166113
603	363609	219256227	24.5560583	8.4483605	.00165837
604	364816	220348864	24.5764115	8.4530281	.00165562
605	366025	221445125	24.5967478	8.4576906	.00165289
606	367236	222545016	24.6170673	8.4623479	.00165016
607	368449	223648543	24.6373700	8.4670001	.00164744
608	369664	224755712	24.6576560	8.4716471	.00164473
609	370881	225866529	24.6779254	8.4762892	.00164203
610	372100	226981000	24.6981781	8.4809261	.00163934
611	373321	228099131	24.7184142	8.4855579	.00163666
612	374544	229220928	24.7386338	8.4901848	.00163398
613	375769	230346397	24.7588368	8.4948065	.00163132
614	376996	231475544	24.7790234	8.4994233	.00162866
615	378225	232608375	24.7991935	8.5040350	.00162601
616	379456	233744896	24.8193473	8.5086417	.00162337
617	380689	234885113	24.8394847	8.5132435	.00162074
618	381924	236029032	24.8596058	8.5178403	.00161812
619	383161	237176659	24.8797106	8.5224321	.00161550
620	384400	238328000	24.8997992	8.5270189	.00161290

No.	Squares	Cubes	Square roots	Cube roots	Recip
621	385641	239483061	24.9198716	8.5316009	.0016
622	386884	240641848	24.9399278	8.5361780	.0016
623	388129	241804367	24.9599679	8.5407501	.0016
624	389376	242970624	24.9799920	8.5453173	.0016
625	390625	244140625	25.0000000	8.5498797	.0016
626	391876	245314376	25.0199920	8.5544372	.0015
627	393129	246491883	25.0399681	8.5589899	.0015
628	394384	247673152	25.0599282	8.5635377	.0015
629	395641	248858189	25.0798724	8.5680807	.0015
630	396900	250047000	25.0998008	8.5726189	.0015
631	398161	251239591	25.1197134	8.5771523	.0015
632	399424	252435968	25.1396102	8.5816809	.0015
633	400689	253636137	25.1594913	8.5862047	.0015
634	401956	254840104	25.1793566	8.5907238	.0015
635	403225	256047875	25.1992063	8.5952380	.0015
636	404496	257259456	25.2190404	8.5997476	.0015
637	405769	258474853	25.2388589	8.6042525	.0015
638	407044	259694072	25.2586619	8.6087526	.0015
639	408321	260917119	25.2784493	8.6132480	.0015
640	409600	262144000	25.2982213	8.6177388	.0015
641	410881	263374721	25.3179778	8.6222248	.0015
642	412164	264609288	25.3377189	8.6267063	.0015
643	413449	265847707	25.3574447	8.6311830	.0015
644	414736	267089984	25.3771551	8.6356551	.0015
645	416025	268336125	25.3968502	8.6401226	.0015
646	417316	269586136	25.4165301	8.6445855	.0015
647	418609	270840023	25.4361947	8.6490437	.0015
648	419904	272097792	25.4558441	8.6534974	.0015
649	421201	273359449	25.4754784	8.6579465	.0015
650	422500	274625000	25.4950976	8.6623911	.0015
651	423801	275894451	25.5147016	8.6668310	.0015
652	425104	277167808	25.5342907	8.6712665	.0015
653	426409	278445077	25.5538647	8.6756974	.0015
654	427716	279726264	25.5734237	8.6801237	.0015
655	429025	281011375	25.5929678	8.6845456	.0015
656	430336	282300416	25.6124969	8.6889630	.0015
657	431649	283593393	25.6320112	8.6933759	.0015
658	432964	284890312	25.6515107	8.6977843	.0015
659	434281	286191179	25.6709953	8.7021882	.0015
660	435600	287496000	25.6904652	8.7065877	.0015
661	436921	288804781	25.7099203	8.7109827	.0015
662	438244	290117528	25.7293607	8.7153734	.0015
663	439569	291434247	25.7487864	8.7197596	.0015
664	440896	292754944	25.7681975	8.7241414	.0015
665	442225	294079625	25.7875939	8.7285187	.0015
666	443556	295408296	25.8069758	8.7328918	.0015
667	444889	296740963	25.8263431	8.7372604	.0014
668	446224	298077632	25.8456960	8.7416246	.0014
669	447561	299418309	25.8650343	8.7459846	.0014
670	448900	300763000	25.8843582	8.7503401	.0014
671	450241	302111711	25.9036677	8.7546913	.0014
672	451584	303464448	25.9229628	8.7590383	.0014
673	452929	304821217	25.9422435	8.7633809	.0014
674	454276	306182024	25.9615100	8.7677192	.0014
675	455625	307546875	25.9807621	8.7720532	.0014
676	456976	308915776	26.0000000	8.7763830	.0014
677	458329	310288733	26.0192237	8.7807084	.0014
678	459684	311665752	26.0384331	8.7850296	.0014
679	461041	313046839	26.0576284	8.7893466	.0044
680	462400	314432000	26.0768096	8.7936593	.0014
681	463761	315821241	26.0959767	8.7979679	.0014
682	465124	317214568	26.1151297	8.8022721	.0014

Squares, Cubes, Square Roots, Cube Roots and Recip

No.	Squares	Cubes	Square roots	Cube roots	Re
683	466489	318611987	26.1342687	8.8065722	.0
684	467856	320013504	26.1533937	8.8108681	.0
685	469225	321419125	26.1725047	8.8151598	.0
686	470596	322828856	26.1916017	8.8194474	.0
687	471969	324242703	26.2106848	8.8237307	.0
688	473344	325660672	26.2297541	8.8280099	.0
689	474721	327082769	26.2488095	8.8322850	.0
690	476100	328509000	26.2678511	8.8365559	.0
691	477481	329939371	26.2868789	8.8408227	.0
692	478864	331373888	26.3058929	8.8450854	.0
693	480249	332812557	26.3248932	8.8493440	.0
694	481636	334255384	26.3438797	8.8535985	.0
695	483025	335702375	26.3628527	8.8578489	.0
696	484416	337153536	26.3818119	8.8620952	.0
697	485809	338608873	26.4007576	8.8663375	.0
698	487204	340068392	26.4196896	8.8705757	.0
699	488601	341532099	26.4386081	8.8748099	.0
700	490000	343000000	26.4575131	8.8790400	.0
701	491401	344472101	26.4764046	8.8832661	.0
702	492804	345948408	26.4952826	8.8874882	.0
703	494209	347428927	26.5141472	8.8917063	.0
704	495616	348913664	26.5329983	8.8959204	.0
705	497025	350402625	26.5518361	8.9001304	.0
706	498436	351895816	26.5706605	8.9043366	.0
707	499849	353393243	26.5894716	8.9085387	.0
708	501264	354894912	26.6082694	8.9127369	.0
709	502681	356400829	26.6270539	8.9169311	.0
710	504100	357911000	26.6458252	8.9211214	.0
711	505521	359425431	26.6645833	8.9253078	.0
712	506944	360944128	26.6833281	8.9294902	.0
713	508369	362467097	26.7020598	8.9336687	.0
714	509796	363994344	26.7207784	8.9378433	.0
715	511225	365525875	26.7394839	8.9420140	.0
716	512656	367061696	26.7581763	8.9461809	.0
717	514089	368601813	26.7768557	8.9503438	.0
718	515524	370146232	26.7955220	8.9545029	.0
719	516961	371694959	26.8141754	8.9586581	.0
720	518400	373248000	26.8328157	8.9628095	.0
721	519841	374805361	26.8514432	8.9669570	.0
722	521284	376367048	26.8700577	8.9711007	.0
723	522729	377933067	26.8886593	8.9752406	.0
724	524176	379503424	26.9072481	8.9793766	.0
725	525625	381078125	26.9258240	8.9835089	.0
726	527076	382657176	26.9443872	8.9876373	.0
727	528529	384240583	26.9629375	8.9917620	.0
728	529984	385828352	26.9814751	8.9958829	.0
729	531441	387420489	27.0000000	9.0000000	.0
730	532900	389017000	27.0185122	9.0041134	.0
731	534361	390617891	27.0370117	9.0082229	.0
732	535824	392223168	27.0554985	9.0123288	.0
733	537289	393832837	27.0739727	9.0164309	.0
734	538756	395446904	27.0924344	9.0205293	.0
735	540225	397065375	27.1108834	9.0246239	.0
736	541696	398688256	27.1293199	9.0287149	.0
737	543169	400315553	27.1477439	9.0328021	.0
738	544644	401947272	27.1661554	9.0368857	.0
739	546121	403583419	27.1845544	9.0409655	.0
740	547600	405224000	27.2029410	9.0450419	.0
741	549081	406869021	27.2213152	9.0491142	.0
742	550564	408518488	27.2396769	9.0531831	.0
743	552049	410172407	27.2580263	9.0572482	.0
744	553536	411830784	27.2763634	9.0613098	0

No.	Squares	Cubes	Square roots	Cube roots	Rec
745	555025	413493625	27.2946881	9.0653677	.00
746	556516	415160936	27.3130006	9.0694220	.00
747	558009	416832723	27.3313007	9.0734726	.00
748	559504	418508992	27.3495887	9.0775197	.00
749	561001	420189749	27.3678644	9.0815631	.00
750	562500	421875000	27.3861279	9.0856030	.00
751	564001	423564751	27.4043792	9.0896392	.00
752	565504	425259008	27.4226184	9.0936719	.00
753	567009	426957777	27.4408455	9.0977010	.00
754	568516	428661064	27.4590604	9.1017265	.00
755	570025	430368875	27.4772633	9.1057485	.00
756	571536	432081216	27.4954542	9.1097669	.00
757	573049	433798093	27.5136330	9.1137818	.00
758	574564	435519512	27.5317998	9.1177931	.00
759	576081	437245479	27.5499546	9.1218010	.00
760	577600	438976000	27.5680975	9.1258053	.00
761	579121	440711081	27.5862284	9.1298061	.00
762	580644	442450728	27.6043475	9.1338034	.00
763	582169	444194947	27.6224546	9.1377971	.00
764	583696	445943744	27.6405499	9.1417874	.00
765	585225	447697125	27.6586334	9.1457742	.00
766	586756	449455096	27.6767050	9.1497576	.00
767	588289	451217663	27.6947648	9.1537375	.00
768	589824	452984832	27.7128129	9.1577139	.00
769	591361	454756609	27.7308492	9.1616869	.00
770	592900	456533000	27.7488739	9.1656565	.00
771	594441	458314011	27.7668808	9.1696225	.00
772	595984	460099648	27.7848880	9.1735852	.00
773	597529	461889917	27.8028775	9.1775445	.00
774	599076	463684824	27.8208555	9.1815003	.00
775	600625	465484375	27.8388218	9.1854527	.00
776	602176	467288576	27.8567766	9.1894018	.00
777	603729	469097433	27.8747197	9.1933474	.00
778	605284	470910952	27.8926514	9.1972897	.00
779	606841	472729139	27.9105715	9.2012286	.00
780	608400	474552000	27.9284801	9.2051641	.00
781	609961	476379541	27.9463772	9.2090962	.00
782	611524	478211768	27.9642629	9.2130250	.00
783	613089	480048687	27.9821372	9.2169505	.00
784	614656	481890304	28.0000000	9.2208726	.00
785	616225	483736625	28.0178515	9.2247914	.00
786	617796	485587656	28.0356915	9.2287068	.00
787	619369	487443403	28.0535203	9.2326189	.00
788	620944	489303872	28.0713377	9.2365277	.00
789	622521	491169069	28.0891438	9.2404333	.00
790	624100	493039000	28.1069386	9.2443355	.00
791	625681	494913671	28.1247222	9.2482344	.00
792	627264	496793088	28.1424946	9.2521300	.00
793	628849	498677257	28.1602557	9.2560224	.00
794	630436	500566184	28.1780056	9.2599114	.00
795	632025	502459875	28.1957444	9.2637973	.00
796	633616	504358336	28.2134720	9.2676798	.00
797	635209	506261573	28.2311884	9.2715592	.00
798	636804	508169592	28.2488938	9.2754352	.00
799	638401	510082399	28.2665881	9.2793081	.00
800	640000	512000000	28.2842712	9.2831777	.00
801	641601	513922401	28.3019434	9.2870440	.00
802	643204	515849608	28.3196045	9.2909072	.00
803	644809	517781627	28.3372546	9.2947671	.00
804	646416	519718464	28.3548938	9.2986239	.00
805	648025	521660125	28.3725219	9.3024775	.001
806	649636	523606616	28.3901391	9.3063278	.001

No.	Squares	Cubes	Square roots	Cube roots	Reciprocals
807	651249	525557943	28.4077454	9.3101750	.001239157
808	652864	527514112	28.4253408	9.3140190	.001237624
809	654481	529475129	28.4429253	9.3178599	.001236094
810	656100	531441000	28.4604989	9.3216975	.001234568
811	657721	533411731	28.4780617	9.3255320	.001233046
812	659344	535387328	28.4956137	9.3293634	.001231527
813	660969	537367797	28.5131549	9.3331916	.001230012
814	662596	539353144	28.5306852	9.3370167	.001228501
815	664225	541343375	28.5482048	9.3408386	.001226994
816	665856	543338496	28.5657137	9.3446575	.001225490
817	667489	545338513	28.5832119	9.3484731	.001223990
818	669124	547343432	28.6006993	9.3522857	.001222494
819	670761	549353259	28.6181760	9.3560952	.001221001
820	672400	551368000	28.6356421	9.3599016	.001219512
821	674041	553387661	28.6530976	9.3637049	.001218027
822	675684	555412248	28.6705424	9.3675051	.001216545
823	677329	557441767	28.6879766	9.3713022	.001215067
824	678976	559476224	28.7054002	9.3750963	.001213592
825	680625	561515625	28.7228132	9.3788873	.001212121
826	682276	563559976	28.7402157	9.3826752	.001210654
827	683929	565609283	28.7576077	9.3864600	.001209190
828	685584	567663552	28.7749891	9.3902419	.001207729
829	687241	569722789	28.7923601	9.3940206	.001206273
830	688900	571787000	28.8097206	9.3977964	.001204819
831	690561	573856191	28.8270706	9.4015691	.001203369
832	692224	575930368	28.8444102	9.4053387	.001201923
833	693889	578009537	28.8617394	9.4091054	.001200480
834	695556	580093704	28.8790582	9.4128690	.001199041
835	697225	582182875	28.8963666	9.4166297	.001197605
836	698896	584277056	28.9136646	9.4203873	.001196172
837	700569	586376253	28.9309523	9.4241420	.001194743
838	702244	588480472	28.9482297	9.4278936	.001193317
839	703921	590589719	28.9654967	9.4316423	.001191895
840	705600	592704000	28.9827535	9.4353880	.001190476
841	707281	594823321	29.0000000	9.4391307	.001189061
842	708964	596947688	29.0172363	9.4428704	.001187648
843	710649	599077107	29.0344623	9.4466072	.001186240
844	712336	601211584	29.0516781	9.4503410	.001184834
845	714025	603351125	29.0688837	9.4540719	.001183432
846	715716	605495736	29.0860791	9.4577999	.001182033
847	717409	607645423	29.1032644	9.4615249	.001180638
848	719104	609800192	29.1204396	9.4652470	.001179245
849	720801	611960049	29.1376046	9.4689661	.001177856
850	722500	614125000	29.1547595	9.4726824	.001176471
851	724201	616295051	29.1719043	9.4763957	.001175088
852	725904	618470208	29.1890390	9.4801061	.001173709
853	727609	620650477	29.2061637	9.4838136	.001172333
854	729316	622835864	29.2232784	9.4875182	.001170960
855	731025	625026375	29.2403830	9.4912200	.001169591
856	732736	627222016	29.2574777	9.4949188	.001168224
857	734449	629422793	29.2745623	9.4986147	.001166861
858	736164	631628712	29.2916370	9.5023078	.001165501
859	737881	633839779	29.3087018	9.5059980	.001164144
860	739600	636056000	29.3257566	9.5096854	.001162791
861	741321	638277381	29.3428015	9.5133699	.001161440
862	743044	640503928	29.3598365	9.5170515	.001160093
863	744769	642735647	29.3768616	9.5207303	.001158749
864	746496	644972544	29.3938769	9.5244063	.001157407
865	748225	647214625	29.4108823	9.5280794	.001156069
866	749956	649461896	29.4278779	9.5317497	.001154734
867	751689	651714363	29.4448637	9.5354172	.001153403
868	753424	653972032	29.4618397	9.5390818	.001152074

No.	Squares	Cubes	Square roots	Cube roots	Reci
869	755161	656234909	29.4788059	9.5427437	.001
870	756900	658503000	29.4957624	9.5464027	.001
871	758641	660776311	29.5127091	9.5500589	.001
872	760384	663054848	29.5296461	9.5537123	.001
873	762129	665338617	29.5465734	9.5573630	.001
874	763876	667627624	29.5634910	9.5610108	.001
875	765625	669921875	29.5803989	9.5646559	.001
876	767376	672221376	29.5972972	9.5682982	.001
877	769129	674526133	29.6141858	9.5719377	.001
878	770884	676836152	29.6310648	9.5755745	.001
879	772641	679151439	29.6479342	9.5792085	.001
880	774400	681472000	29.6647939	9.5828397	.001
881	776161	683797841	29.6816442	9.5864682	.001
882	777924	686128968	29.6984848	9.5900939	.001
883	779689	688465387	29.7153159	9.5937169	.001
884	781456	690807104	29.7321375	9.5973373	.001
885	783225	693154125	29.7489496	9.6009548	.001
886	784996	695506456	29.7657521	9.6045696	.001
887	786769	697864103	29.7825452	9.6081817	.001
888	788544	700227072	29.7993289	9.6117911	.001
889	790321	702595369	29.8161030	9.6153977	.001
890	792100	704969000	29.8328678	9.6190017	.001
891	793881	707347971	29.8496231	9.6226030	.001
892	795664	709732288	29.8663690	9.6262016	.001
893	797449	712121957	29.8831056	9.6297975	.001
894	799236	714516984	29.8998328	9.6333907	.001
895	801025	716917375	29.9165506	9.6369812	.001
896	802816	719323136	29.9332591	9.6405690	.001
897	804609	721734273	29.9499583	9.6441542	.001
898	806404	724150792	29.9666481	9.6477367	.001
899	808201	726572699	29.9833287	9.6513166	.001
900	810000	729000000	30.0000000	9.6548938	.001
901	811801	731432701	30.0166620	9.6584684	.001
902	813604	733870808	30.0333148	9.6620403	.001
903	815409	736314327	30.0499584	9.6656096	.001
904	817216	738763264	30.0665928	9.6691762	.001
905	819025	741217625	30.0832179	9.6727403	.001
906	820836	743677416	30.0998339	9.6763017	.001
907	822649	746142643	30.1164407	9.6798604	.001
908	824464	748613312	30.1330383	9.6834166	.001
909	826281	751089429	30.1496269	9.6869701	.001
910	828100	753571000	30.1662063	9.6905211	.001
911	829921	756058031	30.1827765	9.6940694	.001
912	831744	758550528	30.1993377	9.6976151	.001
913	833569	761048497	30.2158899	9.7011583	.001
914	835396	763551944	30.2324329	9.7046989	.001
915	837225	766060875	30.2489669	9.7082369	.001
916	839056	768575296	30.2654919	9.7117723	.001
917	840889	771095213	30.2820079	9.7153051	.001
918	842724	773620632	30.2985148	9.7188354	.001
919	844561	776151559	30.3150128	9.7223631	.001
920	846400	778688000	30.3315018	9.7258883	.001
921	848241	781229961	30.3479818	9.7294109	.001
922	850084	783777448	30.3644529	9.7329309	.001
923	851929	786330467	30.3809151	9.7364484	.001
924	853776	788889024	30.3973683	9.7399634	.001
925	855625	791453125	30.4138127	9.7434758	.001
926	857476	794022776	30.4302481	9.7469857	.001
927	859329	796597983	30.4466747	9.7504930	.001
928	861184	799178752	30.4630924	9.7539979	.001
929	863041	801765089	30.4795013	9.7575002	.001
930	864900	804357000	30.4959014	9.7610001	.001

No.	Squares	Cubes	Square roots	Cube roots	Reciprocals
931	866761	806954491	30.5122926	9.7644974	.001074114
932	868624	809557568	30.5286750	9.7679922	.001072961
933	870489	812166237	30.5450487	9.7714845	.001071811
934	872356	814780504	30.5614136	9.7749743	.001070664
935	874225	817400375	30.5777697	9.7784616	.001069519
936	876096	820025856	30.5941171	9.7819466	.001068376
937	877969	822656953	30.6104557	9.7854288	.001067236
938	879844	825293672	30.6267857	9.7889087	.001066098
939	881721	827936019	30.6431069	9.7923861	.001064963
940	883600	830584000	30.6594194	9.7958611	.001063830
941	885481	833237621	30.6757233	9.7993336	.001062699
942	887364	835896888	30.6920185	9.8028036	.001061571
943	889249	838561807	30.7083051	9.8062711	.001060445
944	891136	841232384	30.7245830	9.8097362	.001059322
945	893025	843908625	30.7408523	9.8131989	.001058201
946	894916	846590536	30.7571130	9.8166591	.001057082
947	896809	849278123	30.7733651	9.8201169	.001055966
948	898704	851971392	30.7896086	9.8235723	.001054852
949	900601	854670349	30.8058436	9.8270252	.001053741
950	902500	857375000	30.8220700	9.8304757	.001052632
951	904401	860085351	30.8382879	9.8339238	.001051525
952	906304	862801408	30.8544972	9.8373695	.001050420
953	908209	865523177	30.8706981	9.8408127	.001049318
954	910116	868250664	30.8868904	9.8442536	.001048218
955	912025	870983875	30.9030743	9.8476920	.001047120
956	913936	873722816	30.9192497	9.8511280	.001046025
957	915849	876467493	30.9354166	9.8545617	.001044932
958	917764	879217912	30.9515751	9.8579929	.001043841
959	919681	881974079	30.9677251	9.8614218	.001042753
960	921600	884736000	30.9838668	9.8648483	.001041667
961	923521	887503681	31.0000000	9.8682724	.001040583
962	925444	890277128	31.0161248	9.8716941	.001039501
963	927369	893056347	31.0322413	9.8751135	.001038422
964	929296	895841344	31.0483494	9.8785305	.001037344
965	931225	898632125	31.0644491	9.8819451	.001036269
966	933156	901428696	31.0805405	9.8853574	.001035197
967	935089	904231063	31.0966236	9.8887673	.001034126
968	937024	907039232	31.1126984	9.8921749	.001033058
969	938961	909853209	31.1287648	9.8955801	.001031992
970	940900	912673000	31.1448230	9.8989830	.001030928
971	942841	915498611	31.1608729	9.9023835	.001029866
972	944784	918330048	31.1769145	9.9057817	.001028807
973	946729	921167317	31.1929479	9.9091776	.001027749
974	948676	924010424	31.2089731	9.9125712	.001026694
975	950625	926859375	31.2249900	9.9159624	.001025641
976	952576	929714176	31.2409987	9.9193513	.001024590
977	954529	932574833	31.2569992	9.9227379	.001023541
978	956484	935441352	31.2729915	9.9261222	.001022495
979	958441	938313739	31.2889757	9.9295042	.001021450
980	960400	941192000	31.3049517	9.9328839	.001020408
981	962361	944076141	31.3209195	9.9362613	.001019368
982	964324	946966168	31.3368792	9.9396363	.001018330
983	966289	949862087	31.3528308	9.9430092	.001017294
984	968256	952763904	31.3687743	9.9463797	.001016260
985	970225	955671625	31.3847097	9.9497479	.001015228
986	972196	958585256	31.4006369	9.9531138	.001014199
987	974169	961504803	31.4165561	9.9564775	.001013171
988	976144	964430272	31.4324673	9.9598389	.001012146
989	978121	967361669	31.4483704	9.9631981	.001011122
990	980100	970299000	31.4642654	9.9665549	.001010101
991	982081	973242271	31.4801525	9.9699095	.001009082
992	984064	976191488	31.4960315	9.9732619	.001008065

No.	Squares	Cubes	Square roots	Cube roots	Reciprocals
993	986049	979146657	31.5119025	9.9766120	.001007049
994	988036	982107784	31.5277655	9.9799599	.001006036
995	990025	985074875	31.5436206	9.9833055	.001005025
996	992016	988047936	31.5594677	9.9866488	.001004016
997	994009	991026973	31.5753068	9.9899900	.001003009
998	996004	994011992	31.5911380	9.9933289	.001002004
999	998001	997002999	31.6069613	9.9966656	.001001001
1000	1000000	1000000000	31.6227766	10.0000000	.001000000
1001	1002001	1003003001	31.6385840	10.0033322	.0009990010
1002	1004004	1006012008	31.6543836	10.0066622	.0009980040
1003	1006009	1009027027	31.6701752	10.0099899	.0009970090
1004	1008016	1012048064	31.6859590	10.0133155	.0009960159
1005	1010025	1015075125	31.7017349	10.0166389	.0009950249
1006	1012036	1018108216	31.7175030	10.0199601	.0009940358
1007	1014049	1021147343	31.7332633	10.0232791	.0009930487
1008	1016064	1024192512	31.7490157	10.0265958	.0009920635
1009	1018081	1027243729	31.7647603	10.0299104	.0009910803
1010	1020100	1030301000	31.7804972	10.0332228	.0009900990
1011	1022121	1033364331	31.7962262	10.0365330	.0009891197
1012	1024144	1036433728	31.8119474	10.0398410	.0009881423
1013	1026169	1039509197	31.8276609	10.0431469	.0009871668
1014	1028196	1042590744	31.8433666	10.0464506	.0009861933
1015	1030225	1045678375	31.8590646	10.0497521	.0009852217
1016	1032256	1048772096	31.8747549	10.0530514	.0009842520
1017	1034289	1051871913	31.8904374	10.0563485	.0009832842
1018	1036324	1054977832	31.9061123	10.0596435	.0009823183
1019	1038361	1058089859	31.9217794	10.0629364	.0009813543
1020	1040400	1061208000	31.9374388	10.0662271	.0009803922
1021	1042441	1064332261	31.9530906	10.0695156	.0009794319
1022	1044484	1067462648	31.9687347	10.0728020	.0009784736
1023	1046529	1070599167	31.9843712	10.0760863	.0009775171
1024	1048576	1073741824	32.0000000	10.0793684	.0009765625
1025	1050625	1076890625	32.0156212	10.0826484	.0009756098
1026	1052676	1080045576	32.0312348	10.0859262	.0009746589
1027	1054729	1083206683	32.0468407	10.0892019	.0009737098
1028	1056784	1086373952	32.0624391	10.0924755	.0009727626
1029	1058841	1089547389	32.0780298	10.0957469	.0009718173
1030	1060900	1092727000	32.0936131	10.0990163	.0009708738
1031	1062961	1095912791	32.1091887	10.1022835	.0009699321
1032	1065024	1099104768	32.1247568	10.1055487	.0009689922
1033	1067089	1102302937	32.1403173	10.1088117	.0009680542
1034	1069156	1105507304	32.1558704	10.1120726	.0009671180
1035	1071225	1108717875	32.1714159	10.1153314	.0009661836
1036	1073296	1111934656	32.1869539	10.1185882	.0009652510
1037	1075369	1115157653	32.2024844	10.1218428	.0009643202
1038	1077444	1118386872	32.2180074	10.1250953	.0009633911
1039	1079521	1121622319	32.2335229	10.1283457	.0009624639
1040	1081600	1124864000	32.2490310	10.1315941	.0009615385
1041	1083681	1128111921	32.2645316	10.1348403	.0009606148
1042	1085764	1131366088	32.2800248	10.1380845	.0009596929
1043	1087849	1134626507	32.2955105	10.1413266	.0009587738
1044	1089936	1137893184	32.3109888	10.1445667	.0009578544
1045	1092025	1141166125	32.3264598	10.1478047	.0009569378
1046	1094116	1144445336	32.3419233	10.1510406	.0009560229
1047	1096209	1147730823	32.3573794	10.1542744	.0009551098
1048	1098304	1151022592	32.3728281	10.1575062	.0009541985
1049	1100401	1154320649	32.3882695	10.1607359	.0009532888
1050	1102500	1157625000	32.4037035	10.1639636	.0009523810
1051	1104601	1160935651	32.4191301	10.1671893	.0009514748
1052	1106704	1164252608	32.4345495	10.1704129	.0009505703
1053	1108809	1167575877	32.4499615	10.1736344	.0009496676
1054	1110916	1170905464	32.4653662	10.1768539	.0009487666

2. WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

Measures of Length

12 inches = 1 foot
3 feet = 1 yard = 36 inches
5½ yards = 1 rod = 198 inches = 16½ feet
40 rods = 1 furlong = 7 920 inches = 660 feet = 220 yards
8 furlongs = 1 mile = 63 360 inches = 5 280 feet = 1 760 yards = 320 rods
1 yard = 0.0005682 of a mile

GUNTER'S CHAIN

7.92 inches = 1 link
100 links = 1 chain = 4 rods = 66 feet
80 chains = 1 mile

ROPES AND CABLES

6 feet = 1 fathom   120 fathoms = 1 cable's length

Table Showing Inches Expressed in Decimals of a Foot

In	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0	Foot	.0833	.1667	.2500	.3333	.4167	.5000	.5833	.6667	.7500	.8333	.9167
1–32	.0026	.0859	.1693	.2526	.3359	.4193	.5026	.5859	.6693	.7526	.8359	.9193
1–16	.0052	.0885	.1719	.2552	.3385	.4219	.5052	.5885	.6719	.7552	.8385	.9219
3–32	.0078	.0911	.1745	.2578	.3411	.4245	.5078	.5911	.6745	.7578	.8411	.9245
1–8	.0104	.0938	.1771	.2604	.3438	.4271	.5104	.5938	.6771	.7604	.8438	.9271
5–32	.0130	.0964	.1797	.2630	.3464	.4297	.5130	.5964	.6797	.7630	.8464	.9297
3–16	.0156	.0990	.1823	.2656	.3490	.4323	.5156	.5990	.6823	.7656	.8490	.9323
7–32	.0182	.1016	.1849	.2682	.3516	.4349	.5182	.6016	.6849	.7682	.8516	.9349
1–4	.0208	.1042	.1875	.2708	.3542	.4375	.5208	.6042	.6875	.7708	.8542	.9375
9–32	.0234	.1068	.1901	.2734	.3568	.4401	.5234	.6068	.6901	.7734	.8568	.9401
5–16	.0260	.1094	.1927	.2760	.3594	.4427	.5260	.6094	.6927	.7760	.8594	.9427
11–32	.0286	.1120	.1953	.2786	.3620	.4453	.5286	.6120	.6953	.7786	.8620	.9453
3–8	.0313	.1146	.1979	.2813	.3646	.4479	.5313	.6146	.6979	.7813	.8646	.9479
13–32	.0339	.1172	.2005	.2839	.3672	.4505	.5339	.6172	.7005	.7839	.8672	.9505
7–16	.0365	.1198	.2031	.2865	.3698	.4531	.5365	.6198	.7031	.7865	.8698	.9531
15–32	.0391	.1224	.2057	.2891	.3724	.4557	.5391	.6224	.7057	.7891	.8724	.9557
1–2	.0417	.1250	.2083	.2917	.3750	.4583	.5417	.6250	.7083	.7917	.8750	.9583
17–32	.0443	.1276	.2109	.2943	.3776	.4609	.5443	.6276	.7109	.7943	.8776	.9609
9–16	.0469	.1302	.2135	.2969	.3802	.4635	.5469	.6302	.7135	.7969	.8802	.9635
19–32	.0495	.1328	.2161	.2995	.3828	.4661	.5495	.6328	.7161	.7995	.8828	.9661
5–8	.0521	.1354	.2188	.3021	.3854	.4688	.5521	.6354	.7188	.8021	.8854	.9688
21–32	.0547	.1380	.2214	.3047	.3880	.4714	.5547	.6380	.7214	.8047	.8880	.9714
11–16	.0573	.1406	.2240	.3073	.3906	.4740	.5573	.6406	.7240	.8073	.8906	.9740
23–32	.0599	.1432	.2266	.3099	.3932	.4766	.5599	.6432	.7266	.8099	.8932	.9766
3–4	.0625	.1458	.2292	.3125	.3958	.4792	.5625	.6458	.7292	.8125	.8958	.9792
25–32	.0651	.1484	.2318	.3151	.3984	.4818	.5651	.6484	.7318	.8151	.8984	.9818
13–16	.0677	.1510	.2344	.3177	.4010	.4844	.5677	.6510	.7344	.8177	.9010	.9844
27–32	.0703	.1536	.2370	.3203	.4036	.4870	.5703	.6536	.7370	.8203	.9036	.9870
7–8	.0729	.1563	.2396	.3229	.4063	.4896	.5729	.6563	.7396	.8229	.9063	.9896
29–32	.0755	.1589	.2422	.3255	.4089	.4922	.5755	.6589	.7422	.8255	.9089	.9922
15–16	.0781	.1615	.2448	.3281	.4115	.4948	.5781	.6615	.7448	.8281	.9115	.9948
31–32	.0807	.1641	.2474	.3307	.4141	.4974	.5807	.6641	.7474	.8307	.9141	.9974
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11

Decimal Equivalents for Fractions of an Inch

1/32	1/64	Decimals	Fractions	1/32	1/64	Decimals	Fractions
......	1	0.015625	....	......	33	0.515625	....
1	2	0.03125	....	17	34	0.53125	....
......	3	0.046875	....	......	35	0.546875	....
2	4	0.0625	1/16	18	36	0.5625	9/16
......	5	0.078125	....	......	37	0.578125	....
3	6	0.09375	....	19	38	0.59375	....
......	7	0.109375	....	......	39	0.609375	....
4	8	0.125	1/8	20	40	0.625	5/8
......	9	0.140625	....	......	41	0.640625	....
5	10	0.15625	....	21	42	0.65625	....
......	11	0.171875	....	......	43	0.671875	....
6	12	0.1875	3/16	22	44	0.6875	11/16
......	13	0.203125	....	......	45	0.703125	....
7	14	0.21875	....	23	46	0.71875	....
......	15	0.234375	....	......	47	0.734375	....
8	16	0.25	1/4	24	48	0.75	3/4
......	17	0.265625	....	......	49	0.765625	....
9	18	0.28125	....	25	50	0.78125	....
......	19	0.296875	....	......	51	0.796875	....
10	20	0.3125	5/16	26	52	0.8125	13/16
......	21	0.328125	....	......	53	0.828125	....
11	22	0.34375	....	27	54	0.84375	....
......	23	0.359375	....	......	55	0.859375	....
12	24	0.375	3/8	28	56	0.875	7/8
......	25	0.390625	....	......	57	0.890625	....
13	26	0.40625	....	29	58	0.90625	....
......	27	0.421875	....	......	59	0.921875	....
14	28	0.4375	7/16	30	60	0.9375	15/16
......	29	0.453125	....	......	61	0.953125	....
15	30	0.46875	....	31	62	0.96875	....
......	31	0.484375	....	......	63	0.984375	....
16	32	0.5	1/2	32	64	1.	1

Nautical Measures

A nautical or sea-mile is the length of a minute of longitude of the earth at the equator at the level of the sea. It is assumed that 6086.07 ft = 1.152664 statute or land-miles by the United States Coast Survey.

3 nautical miles = 1 league

Miscellaneous Measures

1 palm	= 3 inches	1 span	= 9 inches
1 hand	= 4 inches	1 meter	= 3.2809 feet

Measures of Surface

144 square inches = 1 square foot
9 square feet = 1 square yard = 1 296 square inches
100 square feet = 1 square (architects' measure)

Land Measure

30¼ square yards = 1 square rod
40 square rods = 1 square rood = 1 210 square yards
4 square roods } = 1 acre = 4 840 square yards
10 square chains } = 160 square rods
{640 acres = 1 square mile = 3 097 600 square yards = }
{102 400 square rods = 2 560 square roods }
208.71 feet square = 1 acre

A SECTION of land is a square mile, and a QUARTER-SECTION is 160 acres

Measures of Volume

1 gallon, liquid measure = 231 cubic inches, and contains 8.339 avoirdupois pounds of distilled water at 39.8° F., or 58 333 grains

1 cubic foot contains 7.48 liquid gallons, or 6.428 dry gallons

1 gallon, dry measure = 268.8 cubic inches

1 bushel (Winchester) contains 2150.42 cubic inches, or 77.627 pounds distilled water at 39.8° F.

A heaped bushel contains 2747.715 cubic inches

Dry Measure

2 pints = 1 quart = 67.2 cubic inches
4 quarts = 1 gallon = 8 pints = 268.8 cubic inches
2 gallons = 1 peck = 16 pints = 8 quarts = 537.6 cubic inches
4 pecks = 1 bushel = 64 pints = 32 quarts = 8 gallons
= 2150.42 cubic inches
1 cord of wood = 128 cubic feet

Liquid Measure

4 gills = 1 pint = 16 fluid ounces
2 pints = 1 quart = 8 gills = 32 fluid ounces
4 quarts = 1 gallon = 32 gills = 8 pints = 128 fluid ounces

In the United States and Great Britain 1 barrel of wine or brandy = 31½ gallons, and contains 4.211 cubic feet.

A hogshead is 63 gallons, but this term is often applied to casks of various capacities.

Cubic Measure

1728 cubic inches = 1 cubic foot
27 cubic feet = 1 cubic yard

In MEASURING WOOD, a pile of wood cut 4 feet long, piled 4 feet high, and 8 feet on the ground, making 128 cubic feet, is called a CORD.

16 cubic feet make one cord-foot.

A PERCH OF STONE is nominally 16½ feet long, 1 foot high and 1½ feet thick, and contains 23¾ cubic feet.

A perch of stone is, however, often computed differently in different localities; thus, in most if not all of the States and Territories west of the Mississippi, stone-masons figure rubble by the perch of 16½ cubic feet. In Philadelphia, 22 cubic feet are called a perch. In Chicago, stone is measured by the cord of 100 cubic feet.

A TON of shipping is 42 cubic feet in Great Britain and 40 cubic feet in the United States.

Fluid Measure

60 minims = 1 fluid drachm
8 fluid drachms = 1 ounce
16 ounces = 1 pint
8 pints = 1 gallon

Miscellaneous Measures

Butt of Sherry = 108 gallons
Pipe of Port = 115 gallons
Butt of Malaga = 105 gallons
Puncheon of Scotch Whiskey, = 110 to 130 gallons
Puncheon of Brandy = 110 to 120 gallons
Puncheon of Rum = 100 to 110 gallons
Hogshead of Brandy = 55 to 60 gallons
Hogshead of Claret = 46 gallons

Measures of Weight

The standard AVOIRDUPOIS POUND is the weight of 27.7015 cubic inches of distilled water weighed in air at 39.83° F., with the barometer at 30 inches. It contains 7 000 grains. One pound avoirdupois = 1.2153 pounds troy.

Avoirdupois, or Ordinary Commercial Weight

1 drachm = 27.343 grains
16 drachms = 1 ounce (oz)
16 ounces = 1 pound (lb)
100 pounds = 1 hundredweight (cwt)
20 hundredweight = 1 ton

In collecting duties upon foreign goods at the United States custom-houses, and also in freighting coal and selling it by wholesale,

28 pounds = 1 quarter
4 quarters, or 112 pounds = 1 hundredweight
20 hundredweight = 1 long ton = 2 240 pounds
A stone = 14 pounds
A quintal = 100 pounds

The following measures are sanctioned by custom or law: 1 bushel = 1.244 cubic feet or 1¼ cubic feet, nearly.

32 pounds of oats = 1 bushel
45 pounds of Timothy-seed = 1 bushel
48 pounds of barley = 1 bushel
56 pounds of rye = 1 bushel
56 pounds of Indian corn = 1 bushel
50 pounds of Indian meal = 1 bushel
60 pounds of wheat = 1 bushel
60 pounds of clover-seed = 1 bushel
60 pounds of potatoes = 1 bushel

56 pounds of butter = 1 firkin
100 pounds of meal or flour = 1 sack
100 pounds of grain or flour = 1 cental
100 pounds of dry fish = 1 quintal
100 pounds of nails = 1 cask
196 pounds of flour = 1 barrel
200 pounds of beef or pork = 1 barrel
80 pounds of lime = 1 bushel

Troy Weight

USED IN WEIGHING GOLD OR SILVER

24 grains = 1 pennyweight (pwt)
20 pennyweights = 1 ounce (oz)
12 ounces = 1 pound (lb)

A CARAT of the jewelers, for precious stones, is, in the United States, 3.2 grains, but it varies according to different authorities. In London, 3.17 grains, in Paris, 3.18 grains are divided into 4 jewelers' grains. The international carat is 3.168 grains or 205 milligrams. In troy, apothecaries' and avoirdupois weights, the grain is the same, 1 pound troy being equal to 0.82286 pound avoirdupois.

Apothecaries' Weight

USED IN COMPOUNDING MEDICINES AND IN PUTTING UP MEDICAL PRESCRIPTIONS

20 grains (gr) = 1 scruple (℈)
3 scruples = 1 drachm (ʒ)
8 drachms = 1 ounce (oz)
12 ounces = 1 pound (lb)

Measures of Value

UNITED STATES STANDARD

10 mills = 1 cent
10 cents = 1 dime
10 dimes = 1 dollar
10 dollars = 1 eagle

The STANDARD of gold and silver is 900 parts of pure metal and 100 of alloy in 1 000 parts of coin.

The FINENESS expresses the quantity of pure metal in 1 000 parts.

The REMEDY OF THE MINT is the allowance for deviation from the exact standard fineness and weight of coins.

Weights of Coins

Double eagle = 516 troy grains
Eagle = 258 troy grains
Dollar (gold) = 25.8 troy grains
Dollar (silver) = 412.5 troy grains
Half-dollar = 192 troy grains
5-cent piece (nickel) = 77.16 troy grains
3-cent piece (nickel) = 30 troy grains
Cent (bronze) = 48 troy grains

Measures of Time

60 seconds = 1 minute
60 minutes = 1 hour
24 hours = 1 day
365 days = 1 common year
366 days = 1 leap-year

A SOLAR DAY is measured by the rotation of the earth upon its axis, with respect to the sun.

In ASTRONOMICAL COMPUTATIONS and in NAUTICAL TIME the day commences at noon, and in the former it is counted throughout the 24 hours.

In CIVIL COMPUTATIONS the day commences at midnight, and is divided into two parts of 12 hours each.

A SOLAR YEAR is the time in which the earth makes one revolution around the sun. Its average time, called the MEAN SOLAR YEAR, is 365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes and 49.7 seconds, or nearly 365¼ days.

A MEAN LUNAR MONTH, or LUNATION of the moon, is 29 days, 12 hours, 44 minutes, 2 seconds and 5.24 thirds. It is equal, on the average, to 29.53 days.

The Calendar, Old and New Style

The JULIAN Calendar was established by Julius Cæsar, 44 B.C., and by it one day was inserted in every fourth year. This was the same thing as assuming that the length of the solar year was 365 days and 6 hours, instead of the value given above, thus introducing an accumulative error of 11 minutes and 12 seconds every year. This calendar was adopted by the church in 325 A.D., at the Council of Nice. In the year 1582 the annual error of 11 minutes and 12 seconds had amounted to 10 days, which, by order of Pope Gregory XIII, was suppressed in the calendar, and the 5th of October reckoned as the 15th. To prevent the repetition of this error, it was decided to leave out three of the inserted days every 400 years, and to make this omission in the years which are not exactly divisible by 400. Thus, of the years 1700, 1800, 1900 and 2000, all of which are leap-years according to the Julian Calendar, only the last is a leap-year according to the REFORMED or GREGORIAN Calendar. This Reformed Calendar was not adopted by England until 1752, when 11 days were omitted from the calendar. The two calendars are now often called the OLD STYLE and the NEW STYLE. The latter style is now adopted in every Christian country except Russia.

Circular and Angular Measures

USED FOR MEASURING ANGLES AND ARCS, AND FOR DETERMINING LATITUDE AND LONGITUDE

60 seconds (″) = 1 minute (′)
60 minutes = 1 degree (°)
360 degrees = 1 circumference (C)

The SECOND is usually subdivided into tenths and hundredths.

A MINUTE of the circumference of the earth is a geographical mile.

The DEGREES of the earth's circumference on a meridian average 69.16 common miles.

The Metric System

The METRIC SYSTEM is a system of weights and measures based upon a unit called a METER.

The METER was intended to be one ten-millionth part of the distance from the equator to either pole, measured on the earth's surface at the level of the sea.

The NAMES of derived metric denominations are formed by prefixing to the name of the primary unit of measure:

Milli, a thousandth
Centi, a hundredth
Deci, a tenth
Deca, ten
Hecto, one hundred
Kilo, a thousand
Myria, ten thousand

This system, first adopted by France, has been extensively adopted by other countries, and is much used in the sciences and the arts. It was legalized in 1866 by Congress to be used in the United States, and is already employed by the Coast Survey, and, to some extent, by the Mint and the General Post-Office.

Linear Measures

The METER is the primary unit of lengths.

10 millimeters (mm) = 1 centimeter (cm) = 0.3937 inch
10 centimeters = 1 decimeter (dm) = 3.937 inches
10 decimeters = 1 METER (m) = 39.37 inches
10 meters = 1 decameter = 393.37 inches
10 decameters = 1 hectometer = 328 feet 1 inch
10 hectometers = 1 KILOMETER (km) = 0.62137 mile
10 kilometers = 1 myriameter = 6.2137 miles

The METER is used in ordinary measurements; the CENTIMETER, or MILLIMETER, in reckoning very small distances; and the KILOMETER, for roads or great distances.

A CENTIMETER is about ⅜ of an inch; a METER is about 3 feet 3⅜ inches; a KILOMETER is about 200 rods, or ⅝ of a mile. (See page 33.)

Measures of Surface

The SQUARE METER is the primary unit of ordinary surfaces.

The ARE, a square, each of whose sides is ten METERS, is the unit of land measures.

100 square millimeters (mm^2) = 1 square centimeter (cm^2) = 0.155 square inch
100 square centimeters = 1 square decimeter = 15.5 square inches
100 square decimeters = 1 square METER (m^2) = 1 550 square inches, or 1.196 square yards
100 centiares, or square meters = 1 ARE (a) = 119.6 square yards
100 ares = 1 hectare (ha) = 2.471 acres

A SQUARE METER, or one CENTIARE, is about 10¾ square feet, or 1⅕ square yards, and a HECTARE is about 2½ acres.

Cubic Measure

The CUBIC METER, or STERE, is the primary unit of a volume.

1 000 cubic millimeters (mm^3) = 1 cubic centimeter (cm^3) = 0.061 cubic inch
1 000 cubic centimeters = 1 cubic decimeter (dm^3) = 61.022 cubic inches
1 000 cubic decimeters = 1 cubic METER (m^3) = 35.314 cubic feet

The STERE is the name given to the cubic meter in measuring wood and timber. A tenth of a stere is a DECISTERE, and ten steres are a DECASTERE.

A CUBIC METER, or STERE, is about 1⅓ cubic yards, or about 2⅕ cord feet.

Liquid and Dry Measures

The LITER is the primary unit of measures of capacity, and is a cube, each of whose edges is a tenth of a meter in length.

The HECTOLITER is the unit in measuring large quantities of grain, fruits, roots and liquids.

10 milliliters (ml)	= 1 centiliter (cl)	= 0.338 fluid ounce
10 centiliters	= 1 deciliter	= 0.845 liquid gill
10 deciliters	= 1 LITER (l)	= 1.0567 liquid quarts
10 liters	= 1 decaliter	= 2.6417 gallons
10 decaliters	= 1 HECTOLITER (hl)	= 2 bushels, 3.35 pecks
10 hectoliters	= 1 kiloliter	= 28 bushels, 1½ pecks

A CENTILITER is about ⅓ of a fluid ounce; a LITER is about 1 1/18 liquid quarts, or 9/10 of a dry quart; a HECTOLITER is about 2⅚ bushels; and a KILOLITER is one cubic meter, or stere.

Weights

The GRAM is the primary unit of weights, and is the weight in a vacuum of a cubic centimeter of distilled water at the temperature of 39.2° F.

10 milligrams (mg)	= 1 centigram (cg)	=	0.1543 troy grain
10 centigrams	= 1 decigram (dg)	=	1.543 troy grains
10 decigrams	= 1 GRAM (g)	=	15.432 troy grains
10 grams	= 1 decagram	=	0.3527 avoirdupois ounce
10 decagrams	= 1 hectogram	=	3.5274 avoirdupois ounces
10 hectograms	= 1 KILOGRAM (kg)	=	2.2046 avoirdupois pounds
10 kilograms	= 1 myriagram	=	22.046 avoirdupois pounds
10 myriagrams	= 1 quintal (q)	=	220.46 avoirdupois pounds
10 quintals	= 1 TONNEAU (t)	=	2204.6 avoirdupois pounds

1 kilogram per kilometer = 0.67195 pound per 1 000 feet
1 pound per thousand feet = 1.4882 kilograms per kilometer
1 kilogram per square millimeter = 1 423 pounds per square inch
1 pound per square inch = 0.000743 kilogram per square millimeter

The GRAM is used in weighing gold, jewels, letters and small quantities of things. The KILOGRAM, or, for brevity, KILO, is used by grocers; and the TONNEAU, or METRIC TON, is used in finding the weight of very heavy articles.

A GRAM is about 15½ grains troy; the KILO about 2⅕ pounds avoirdupois; and the METRIC TON, about 2 205 pounds.

A KILO is the weight of a liter of water at its greatest density; and the METRIC TON, of a cubic meter of water.

Metric numbers are written with the decimal point (.) at the right of the figures denoting the unit; thus the expression, 15 meters 3 centimeters, is written, 15.03 m.

When metric numbers are expressed by figures, the part of the expression at the left of the decimal point is read as the number of the unit, and the part at the right, if any, as a number of the lowest denomination indicated, or as a decimal part of the unit; thus, 46.525 m is read 46 meters and 525 millimeters, or 46 and 525 thousandths meters.

In writing and reading metric numbers, according as the scale is 10, 100 or 1 000, each denomination should be allowed one, two or three orders of figures.

Metric Conversion Table

The following metric conversion table has been compiled by C. W. Hunt, and is most convenient in dealing with metric weights and measures:

Millimeters × 0.03937 = inches
Millimeters ÷ 25.4 = inches
Centimeters × 0.3937 = inches
Centimeters ÷ 2.54 = inches
Meters × 39.37 = inches (Act of Congress)
Meters × 3.281 = feet
Meters × 1.094 = yards
Kilometers × 0.621 = miles
Kilometers ÷ 1.6093 = miles
Kilometers × 3280.7 = feet
Square millimeters × 0.0155 = square inches
Square millimeters ÷ 645.1 = square inches
Square centimeters × 0.155 = square inches
Square centimeters ÷ 6.451 = square inches
Square meters × 10.764 = square feet
Square kilometers × 247.1 = acres
Hectares × 2.471 = acres
Cubic centimeters ÷ 16.383 = cubic inches
Cubic centimeters ÷ 3.69 = fluid drachms (U.S. Pharmacopœia)
Cubic centimeters ÷ 29.57 = fluid ounce. (U.S. Pharmacopœia)
Cubic meters × 35.315 = cubic feet
Cubic meters × 1.308 = cubic yards
Cubic meters × 264.2 = gallons (231 cubic inches)
Liters × 61.022 = cubic inches. (Act of Congress)
Liters × 33.84 = fluid ounces. (U.S. Pharmacopœia)
Liters × 0.2642 = gallons (231 cubic inches)
Liters ÷ 3.78 = gallons (231 cubic inches)
Liters ÷ 28.316 = cubic feet
Hectoliters × 3.531 = cubic feet
Hectoliters × 2.84 = bushels (2 150.42 cubic inches)
Hectoliters × 0.131 = cubic yards
Hectoliters × 26.42 = gallons (231 cubic inches)
Grams × 15.432 = grains. (Act of Congress)
Grams × 981 = dynes
Grams (water) ÷ 29.57 = fluid ounces
Grams ÷ 28.35 = ounces avoirdupois
Grams per cubic centimeter ÷ 27.7 = pounds per cubic inch
Joule × 0.7373 = foot-pounds
Kilograms × 2.2046 = pounds
Kilograms × 35.3 = ounces avoirdupois
Kilograms ÷ 1102.3 = tons (2 000 pounds)
Kilograms per sq cm × 14.223 = pounds per square inch
Kilogrammeters × 7.233 = foot-pounds
Kilograms per meter × 0.672 = pounds per square foot
Kilograms per cubic meter × 0.062 = pounds per cubic foot
Kilograms per cheval-vapeur × 2.235 = pounds per horse-power
Kilowatts × 1.34 = horse-power
Watts ÷ 746 = horse-power
Watts ÷ 0.7373 = foot-pounds per second
Calorie × 3.968 = British thermal units (B.T.U.)
Cheval-vapeur × 0.9863 = horse-power
(Centigrade × 1.8) + 32 = degrees Fahrenheit
Francs × 0.193 = dollars
Gravity, Paris = 980.94 centimeter per second

Scripture and Ancient Measures and Weights

Scripture Long Measures

	Inches		Feet	Inches
Digit	= 0.912	Cubit	= 1	9.888
Palm	= 3.648	Fathom	= 7	3.552
Span	= 10.944			

Egyptian Long Measures

Nahud cubit = 1 foot 5.71 inches Royal cubit = 1 foot 8.66 inches

Grecian Long Measures

	Feet	Inches		Feet	Inches
Digit	=	0.7554	Stadium	= 604	4.5
Pous (foot)	= 1	0.0875	Mile	= 4 835	
Cubit	= 1	1.5984⅜			

Jewish Long Measures

Cubit	= 1.824 feet	Mile	= 7 296 feet
Sabbath-day's journey	= 3 648 feet	Day's journey	= 33.164 miles

Roman Long Measures

	Inches		Feet	Inches
Digit	= 0.72575	Cubit	= 1	5.406
Uncia (inch)	= 0.967	Passus	= 4	10.02
Pes (foot)	= 11.604	Mille (millarium)	= 4 842	

Roman Weight

Ancient libbra = 0.7094 pound

Miscellaneous

	Feet		Feet
Arabian foot	= 1.095	Hebrew foot	= 1.212
Babylonian foot	= 1.140	Hebrew cubit	= 1.817
Egyptian finger	= 0.06145	Hebrew sacred cubit	= 2.002

Metric Conversion Tables. This and the following table from Molesworth's Metrical Tables will be found of great convenience in figuring plans to be executed in Mexico and other countries using the metric system.

Feet Converted into Meters

Feet	0	1	2	3	4
0	....	0.304794	0.609589	0.914383	1.21918
10	3.047945	3.35274	3.65753	3.96233	4.26712
20	6.095890	6.40068	6.70548	7.01027	7.31507
30	9.143835	9.44863	9.75342	10.0582	10.3630
40	12.19178	12.4966	12.8014	13.1062	13.4110
50	15.23972	15.5445	15.8493	16.1541	16.4589
60	18.28767	18.5925	18.8973	19.2020	19.5068
70	21.33561	21.6404	21.9452	22.2500	22.5548
80	24.38356	24.6884	24.9931	25.2979	25.6027
90	27.43150	27.7363	28.0411	28.3459	28.6507

Metric Conversion Tables

Feet Converted into Meters (Continued)

Feet	5	6	7	8
0	1.52397	1.82877	2.13356	2.43836
10	4.57192	4.87671	5.18151	5.48630
20	7.61986	7.92466	8.22945	8.53425
30	10.6678	10.9726	11.2774	11.5822
40	13.7158	14.0205	14.3253	14.6301
50	16.7637	17.0685	17.3733	17.6781
60	19.8116	20.1164	20.4212	20.7260
70	22.8596	23.1644	23.4692	23.7740
80	25.9075	26.2123	26.5171	26.8219
90	28.9555	29.2603	29.5651	29.8699

Example. 44 ft = 13.411 meters = 134.11 decimeters = 1 341.1 cent

meters.

The above-mentioned work contains eighty pages of conversion table

bove.

Inches and Sixteenths Converted into Millimeters

Inches	0	1	2	3	4
......	......	25.400	50.799	76.199	101.60
1/16	1.5875	26.987	52.387	77.786	103.19
1/8	3.1749	28.574	53.974	79.374	104.77
3/16	4.7624	30.162	55.561	80.961	106.36
1/4	6.3499	31.749	57.149	82.549	107.95
5/16	7.9374	33.337	58.736	84.136	109.54
3/8	9.5248	34.924	60.324	85.723	111.12
7/16	11.112	36.512	61.911	87.311	112.71
1/2	12.700	38.099	63.499	88.898	114.30
9/16	14.287	39.687	65.086	90.486	115.89
5/8	15.875	41.274	66.674	92.073	117.47
11/16	17.462	42.862	68.261	93.661	119.06
3/4	19.050	44.449	69.849	95.248	120.65
13/16	20.637	46.037	71.436	96.836	122.24
7/8	22.225	47.624	73.024	98.423	123.82
15/16	23.812	49.212	74.611	100.01	125.41

Inches	6	7	8	9	10
......	152.40	177.80	203.20	228.60	254.0
1/16	153.98	179.38	204.78	230.18	255.5
1/8	155.57	180.97	206.37	231.77	257.1
3/16	157.16	182.56	207.96	233.36	258.7
1/4	158.75	184.15	209.55	234.95	260.3
5/16	160.33	185.73	211.13	236.53	261.9
3/8	161.92	187.32	212.72	238.12	263.5
7/16	163.51	188.91	214.31	239.71	265.1
1/2	165.10	190.50	215.90	241.30	266.7
9/16	166.68	192.08	217.48	242.88	268
5/8	168.27	193.67	219.07	244.47	269
11/16	169.86	195.26	220.66	246.06	271
3/4	171.45	196.85	222.25	247.65	273
13/16	173.03	198.43	223.83	249.23	274
7/8	174.62	200.02	225.42	250.82	276
15/16	176.21	201.61	227.01	252.41	277

For meters, move the decimal point THREE figures forward.

Example. 8 3/16 inches = 207.96 millimeters = 20.796 centimeter

meters = 0.20796 meter.

3. GEOMETRY AND MENSURATION

Definitions

A point is that which has only position.

A plane is a surface in which, any two points being taken, the straight line joining them will be wholly in the surface.

A curved line is a line of which no part is straight (Fig. 1).

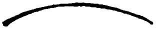

Fig. 1. Curved Line

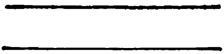

Fig. 2. Parallel Lines

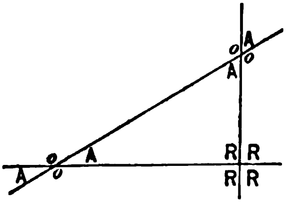

Fig. 3. Angles

Parallel lines are such as are wholly in the same plane, and have the same direction (Fig. 2).

A broken line is a line composed of a series of dashes; thus, —— —— ——.

An angle is the opening between two lines meeting at a point, and is termed a right angle when the two lines are perpendicular to each other, an acute angle when it is less or sharper than a right angle, and an obtuse angle when it is greater than a right angle. Thus, in Fig. 3,

A A A A are acute angles,

o o o o are obtuse angles and *R R R R* are right angles.

Polygons

A polygon is a portion of a plane bounded by straight lines.

A triangle is a polygon of three sides.

A scalene triangle has none of its sides equal; an isosceles triangle has two of its sides equal; an equilateral triangle has all three of its sides equal.

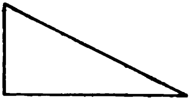

Fig. 4. Right-angled Triangle

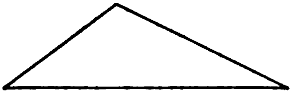

Fig. 5. Scalene Triangle

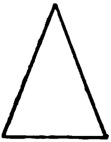

Fig. 6. Isosceles Triangle

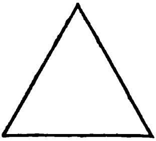

Fig. 7. Equilateral Triangle

A right-angled triangle is one which has a right angle. The side opposite the right angle is called the hypothenuse; the side on which the triangle is supposed to stand is called its base and the other side, its altitude.

A QUADRILATERAL is a polygon of four sides.

Quadrilaterals are divided into classes, as follows: the TRAPEZIUM (Fig. 8), which has no two of its sides parallel; the TRAPEZOID (Fig. 9), which has two of its sides parallel; and the PARALLELOGRAM (Fig. 10), which is bounded by two pairs of parallel sides.

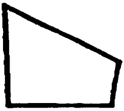
Fig. 8. Trapezium

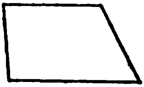
Fig. 9. Trapezoid

Fig. 10. Parallelogram

A parallelogram whose sides are not equal and whose angles are not right angles is called a RHOMBOID (Fig. 11); when the sides are all equal, but the angles are not right angles, it is called a RHOMBUS (Fig. 12), and when the angles are right angles, it is called a RECTANGLE (Fig. 13). A rectangle, all of whose sides are equal, is called a SQUARE (Fig. 14). Polygons, all of whose sides are equal, are called REGULAR POLYGONS.

Fig. 11.
Rhomboid

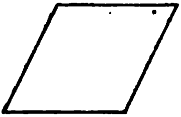
Fig. 12.
Rhombus

Fig. 13
Rectangle

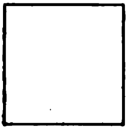
Fig. 14.
Square

Besides the square and equilateral triangles, there are: the PENTAGON (Fig. 15), which has five sides; the HEXAGON (Fig. 16), which has six sides; the HEPTAGON (Fig. 17), which has seven sides; and the OCTAGON (Fig. 18), which has eight sides.

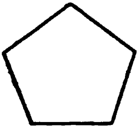
Fig. 15.
Pentagon

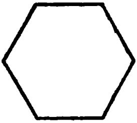
Fig. 16.
Hexagon

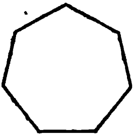
Fig. 17.
Heptagon

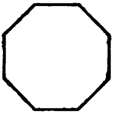
Fig. 18.
Octagon

The ENNEAGON or NONAGON has nine sides; the DECAGON has ten sides; and the DODECAGON has twelve sides.

For all polygons, the side upon which it is supposed to stand is called its BASE; the perpendicular distance from the highest side or angle to the base (prolonged, if necessary) is called the ALTITUDE; and a line joining any two angles not adjacent is called a DIAGONAL.

A PERIMETER is the bounding line of a plane figure.

A CIRCLE is a portion of a plane bounded by a curve, all the points of which are equidistant from a point within, called the CENTER (Fig. 19).

The CIRCUMFERENCE is the curve which bounds the circle.

A RADIUS is any straight line drawn from the center to the circumference.

Any straight line drawn through the center to the circumference on each side is called a DIAMETER.

An ARC of a circle is any part of its circumference.

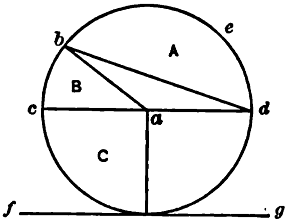

Fig. 19. Circle and Parts

A CHORD is any straight line joining two points of the circumference, as *bd*, Fig. 19.

A SEGMENT is a portion of the circle included between the arc and its chord, as *A*, Fig. 19.

A SECTOR is the space included between an arc and two radii drawn to its extremities, as *B*, Fig. 19. In the figure, *ab* is a radius, *cd* a diameter and *db* a chord SUBTENDING the arc *bed*. A TANGENT is a right line which in passing a curve touches without cutting it, as *fg*, Fig. 19.

Volumes

A PRISM is a volume whose ends are equal and parallel polygons and whose sides are parallelograms.

A prism is TRIANGULAR, RECTANGULAR, etc., according as its ends are TRIANGLES, RECTANGLES, etc.

A CUBE is a rectangular prism all of whose sides are squares.

A CYLINDER is a volume of uniform diameter, bounded by a curved surface and two equal and opposite parallel circles.

A PYRAMID is a volume whose base is a polygon and whose sides are triangles meeting in a point called the VERTEX. A pyramid is triangular, quadrangular, etc., according as its base is a triangle, quadrilateral, etc.

A CONE is a volume whose base is a circle, from which the remaining surface tapers uniformly to a point or vertex (Fig. 20).

A CONIC SECTION is the plane figure made by a plane cutting a cone.

An ELLIPSE is the section of a cone cut by a plane passing obliquely through both sides, as at *ab*, Fig. 21.

A PARABOLA is a section of a cone cut by a plane parallel to its side, as at *cd*.

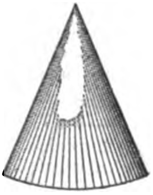

Fig. 20.
Cone

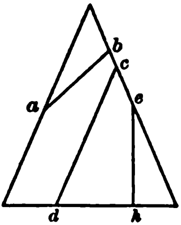

Fig. 21.
Cone with Section-lines

A HYPERBOLA is a section of a cone cut by a plane making a greater angle with the base than that made by the side of the cone, as at *eh*.

In the ellipse, the TRANSVERSE AXIS, or LONG DIAMETER, is the longest line that can be drawn in it. The CONJUGATE AXIS, or SHORT DIAMETER, is a line drawn through the center at right-angles to the long diameter.

A FRUSTUM OF A PYRAMID or CONE is that which remains after cutting off the upper part of it by a plane parallel to the base.

A SPHERE is a volume bounded by a curved surface, all points of which are equidistant from a point within, called the center.

Mensuration treats of the measurement of lines, surfaces and volumes.

Rules

To compute the area of a square, a rectangle, a rhombus or a rhomboid.

Rule. Multiply the length by the breadth or height. Thus, in Figs. 22, 23 or 24, the area = $ab \times bc$.

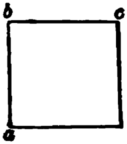

Fig. 22. Square

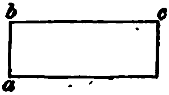

Fig. 23. Rectangle

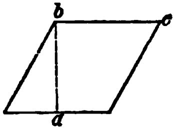

Fig. 24. Parallelogram

To compute the area of a triangle.

Rule. Multiply the base by the altitude and divide by 2. Thus, in Fig. 25, the area of $abc = \frac{ab \times cd}{2}$

To find the length of the hypothenuse of a right-angled triangle when both sides are known.

Rule. Square the length of each of the sides making the right angle, add their squares together and take the square root of their sum. Thus (Fig. 26), the length of $ac = 3$, and of $bc = 4$; then

$$ab = 3 \times 3 = 9 + (4 \times 4) = 9 + 16 = 25$$

$$\sqrt{25} = 5, \quad \text{or} \quad ab = 5$$

To find the length of the base or altitude of a right-angled triangle when the length of the hypothenuse and one side is known.

Rule. From the square of the length of the hypothenuse subtract the square of the length of the other side and take the square root of the remainder.

To find the area of a trapezium (Fig. 27).

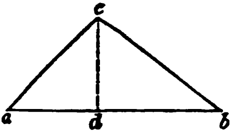

Fig. 25.
Scalene Triangle

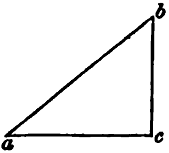

Fig. 26.
Right-angled Triangle

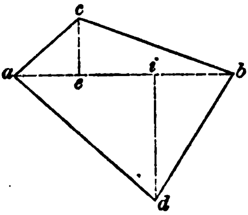

Fig. 27.
Trapezium

Rule. Multiply the diagonal by the sum of the two perpendiculars falling upon it from the opposite angles and divide the product by 2. Thus,

$$\frac{ab \times (ce + di)}{2} = \text{area}$$

To find the area of a trapezoid (Fig. 28).

Rule. Multiply the sum of the two parallel sides by the perpendicular distance between them and divide the product by 2.

To compute the area of an irregular polygon.

Rule. Divide the polygon into triangles by means of diagonal lines and then add together the areas of all the triangles, as *A*, *B* and *C* (Fig. 29).

To find the area of a regular polygon.

Rule. Multiply the length of a side by the perpendicular dis center (as *ao*, Fig. 30), multiply that product by the number of sid the result by 2.

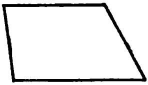

Fig. 28. Trapezoid

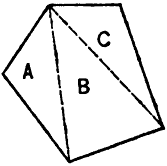

Fig. 29. Irregular Polygon

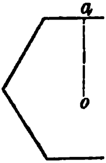

Fig. 30. Regul

To compute the area of a regular polygon when the length, on is given.

Rule. Multiply the square of the side by the multiplier opposite the polygon in column *A* of the following table:

Table of Factors for Determining the Elements of Polyg

Name of polygon	Number of sides	*A* Factor for area	*B* Factor for radius of circumscribing circle	*C* Factor for length of the sides
Triangle...........	3	0.433013	0.5773	1.732
Tetragon...........	4	1	0.7071	1.4142
Pentagon...........	5	1.720477	0.8506	1.1756
Hexagon...........	6	2.598076	1	1
Heptagon..........	7	3.633912	1.1524	0.8677
Octagon............	8	4.828427	1.3066	0.7653
Nonagon...........	9	6.181824	1.4619	0.684
Decagon...........	10	7.694209	1.618	0.618
Undecagon.........	11	9.36564	1.7747	0.5634
Dodecagon.........	12	11.196152	1.9319	0.5176

To compute the radius of a circle circumscribed about a regular the length, only, of a side is given.

Rule. Multiply the length of a side of the polygon by the numb *B* of table.

Example. What is the radius of a circle that will contain a length of one side being 5 in?

Solution. 5 × 1 = 5 in.

To compute the length of a side of a regular polygon inscribe circle, when the radius of the circle is given.

Rule. Multiply the radius of the circle by the number opposite the polygon in column *C* of table.

Example. What is the length of the side of a pentagon contain 8 ft in diameter?

Solution. 8 ft diameter ÷ 2 = 4 ft radius; 4 × 1.1756 = 4.7024

To compute the length of a side of a regular polygon, when the radius of the inscribed circle is given.

Rule. Divide the radius of the inscribed circle by the number opposite the name of the polygon in column *D* of table.

To compute the radius of a circle that can be inscribed in a given regular polygon, when the length of a side is given.

Rule. Multiply the length of a side of the polygon by the number opposite the name of the polygon in column *D*.

Example. What is the radius of the circle that can be inscribed in an octagon, the length of one side being 6 in?

Solution. $6 \times 1.2071 = 7.2426$ in.

Circles

To compute the circumference of a circle.

Rule. Multiply the diameter by 3.1416. For many purposes, the multiplier $3\frac{1}{7}$ gives sufficiently accurate results.

Example. What is the circumference of a circle 7 in in diameter?

Solution. $7 \times 3.1416 = 21.9912$ in, or $7 \times 3\frac{1}{7} = 22$ in, the error in this last result being 0.0088 in.

To find the diameter of a circle when the circumference is given.

Rule. Divide the circumference by 3.1416, or for a very close approximate result, multiply by 7 and divide by 22.

To find the radius of an arc when the chord and rise or versed sine are given.

Rule. Square ONE-HALF the CHORD and the RISE; divide the sum of these squares by twice the rise; the result will be the radius.

Example. The length of the chord *ac*, Fig. 31, is 48 in, and the rise, *bo*, is 6 in. What is the radius of the arc?

Solution. $$\text{Radius} = \frac{oc^2 + bo^2}{2\,bo} = \frac{24^2 + 6^2}{12} = 51 \text{ in}$$

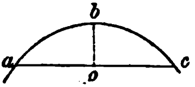

Fig. 31. Circular Arc, Chord and Rise

To find the rise or versed sine of a circular arc, when the chord and radius are given.

Rule. Square the radius; also square one-half the chord; subtract the latter from the former and take the square root of the remainder. Subtract the result from the radius and the remainder will be the rise.

Example. A given arc has a radius of 51 in and a chord of 48 in. What is the rise?

Solution. $$\text{Rise} = \text{radius} - \sqrt{\text{radius}^2 - \tfrac{1}{4}\,\text{chord}^2} = 51 - \sqrt{2\,601 - 576} = 51 - 45 = 6 \text{ in} = \text{rise}$$

To compute the area of a circle.

Rule. Multiply the square of the diameter by 0.7854, or multiply the square of the radius of 3.1416.

Example. What is the area of a circle 10 in in diameter?

Solution. $10 \times 10 \times 0.7854 = 78.54$ sq in, or $5 \times 5 \times 3.1416 = 78.54$ sq in.

Tables of Areas and Circumferences of Circles

The following tables will be found very convenient for finding the circumferences and areas of circles.

Areas and Circumferences of Circles

For diameters from 1/10 to 100, advancing by tenths

Dia.	Area	Circum.	Dia.	Area	Circum.	Dia.	Area	Circum.
0.0			5.0	19.6350	15.7080	10.0	78.5398	31.4159
.1	0.007854	0.31416	.1	20.4282	16.0221	.1	80.1185	31.7301
.2	0.031416	0.62832	.2	21.2372	16.3363	.2	81.7128	32.0442
.3	0.070686	0.94248	.3	22.0618	16.6504	.3	83.3229	32.3584
.4	0.12566	1.2566	.4	22.9022	16.9646	.4	84.9487	32.6726
.5	0.19635	1.5708	.5	23.7583	17.2788	.5	86.5901	32.9867
.6	0.28274	1.8850	.6	24.6301	17.5929	.6	88.2473	33.3009
.7	0.38485	2.1991	.7	25.5176	17.9071	.7	89.9202	33.6150
.8	0.50266	2.5133	.8	26.4208	18.2212	.8	91.6088	33.9292
.9	0.63617	2.8274	.9	27.3397	18.5354	.9	93.3132	34.2434
1.0	0.7854	3.1416	6.0	28.2743	18.8496	11.0	95.0332	34.5575
.1	0.9503	3.4558	.1	29.2247	19.1637	.1	96.7689	34.8717
.2	1.1310	3.7699	.2	30.1907	19.4779	.2	98.5203	35.1858
.3	1.3273	4.0841	.3	31.1725	19.7920	.3	100.2875	35.5000
.4	1.5394	4.3982	.4	32.1699	20.1062	.4	102.0703	35.8142
.5	1.7671	4.7124	.5	33.1831	20.4204	.5	103.8689	36.1283
.6	2.0106	5.0265	.6	34.2119	20.7345	.6	105.6832	36.4425
.7	2.2698	5.3407	.7	35.2565	21.0487	.7	107.5132	36.7566
.8	2.5447	5.6549	.8	36.3168	21.3628	.8	109.3588	37.0708
.9	2.8353	5.9690	.9	37.3928	21.6770	.9	111.2202	37.3850
2.0	3.1416	6.2832	7.0	38.4845	21.9911	12.0	113.0973	37.6991
.1	3.4636	6.5973	.1	39.5919	22.3053	.1	114.9901	38.0133
.2	3.8013	6.9115	.2	40.7150	22.6195	.2	116.8987	38.3274
.3	4.1548	7.2257	.3	41.8539	22.9336	.3	118.8229	38.6416
.4	4.5239	7.5398	.4	43.0084	23.2478	.4	120.7628	38.9557
.5	4.9087	7.8540	.5	44.1786	23.5619	.5	122.7185	39.2699
.6	5.3093	8.1681	.6	45.3646	23.8761	.6	124.6898	39.5841
.7	5.7256	8.4823	.7	46.5663	24.1903	.7	126.6769	39.8982
.8	6.1575	8.7965	.8	47.7836	24.5044	.8	128.6796	40.2124
.9	6.6052	9.1106	.9	49.0167	24.8186	.9	130.6981	40.5265
3.0	7.0686	9.4248	8.0	50.2655	25.1327	13.0	132.7323	40.8407
.1	7.5477	9.7389	.1	51.5300	25.4469	.1	134.7822	41.1549
.2	8.0425	10.0531	.2	52.8102	25.7611	.2	136.8478	41.4690
.3	8.5530	10.3673	.3	54.1061	26.0752	.3	138.9291	41.7832
.4	9.0792	10.6814	.4	55.4177	26.3894	.4	141.0261	42.0973
.5	9.6211	10.9956	.5	56.7450	26.7035	.5	143.1388	42.4115
.6	10.1788	11.3097	.6	58.0880	27.0177	.6	145.2672	42.7257
.7	10.7521	11.6239	.7	59.4468	27.3319	.7	147.4114	43.0808
.8	11.3411	11.9381	.8	60.8212	27.6460	.8	149.5712	43.3540
.9	11.9459	12.2522	.9	62.2114	27.9602	.9	151.7468	43.6681
4.0	12.5664	12.5664	9.0	63.6173	28.2743	14.0	153.9380	43.9823
.1	13.2025	12.8805	.1	65.0388	28.5885	.1	156.1450	44.2965
.2	13.8544	13.1947	.2	66.4761	28.9027	.2	158.3677	44.6106
.3	14.5220	13.5088	.3	67.9291	29.2168	.3	160.6061	44.9248
.4	15.2053	13.8230	.4	69.3978	29.5310	.4	162.8602	45.2389
.5	15.9043	14.1372	.5	70.8822	29.8451	.5	165.1300	45.5531
.6	16.6190	14.4513	.6	72.3823	30.1593	.6	167.4155	45.8673
.7	17.3494	14.7655	.7	73.8981	30.4734	.7	169.7167	46.1814
.8	18.0956	15.0796	.8	75.4296	30.7876	.8	172.0336	46.4956
.9	18.8574	15.3938	.9	76.9769	31.1018	.9	174.3662	46.8097

Areas and Circumferences of Circles (Continued)

Advancing by tenths

Dia.	Area	Circum.	Dia.	Area	Circum.	Dia.	Area	Circum.
15.0	176.7146	47.1239	20.0	314.1593	62.8319	25.0	490.8739	78.5398
.1	179.0786	47.4380	.1	317.3087	63.1460	.1	494.8087	78.8540
.2	181.4584	47.7522	.2	320.4739	63.4602	.2	498.7592	79.1681
.3	183.8539	48.0664	.3	323.6547	63.7743	.3	502.7255	79.4823
.4	186.2650	48.3805	.4	326.8513	64.0885	.4	506.7075	79.7965
.5	188.6919	48.6947	.5	330.0636	64.4026	.5	510.7052	80.1106
.6	191.1345	49.0088	.6	333.2916	64.7168	.6	514.7185	80.4248
.7	193.5928	49.3230	.7	336.5353	65.0310	.7	518.7476	80.7389
.8	196.0668	49.6372	.8	339.7947	65.3451	.8	522.7924	81.0531
.9	198.5565	49.9513	.9	343.0698	65.6593	.9	526.8529	81.3672
16.0	201.0619	50.2655	21.0	346.3606	65.9734	26.0	530.9292	81.6814
.1	203.5831	50.5796	.1	349.6671	66.2876	.1	535.0211	81.9956
.2	206.1199	50.8938	.2	352.9894	66.6018	.2	539.1287	82.3097
.3	208.6724	51.2080	.3	356.3273	66.9159	.3	543.2521	82.6239
.4	211.2407	51.5221	.4	359.6809	67.2301	.4	547.3911	82.9380
.5	213.8246	51.8363	.5	363.0503	67.5442	.5	551.5459	83.2522
.6	216.4243	52.1504	.6	366.4354	67.8584	.6	555.7163	83.5664
.7	219.0397	52.4646	.7	369.8361	68.1726	.7	559.9025	83.8805
.8	221.6708	52.7788	.8	373.2526	68.4867	.8	564.1044	84.1947
.9	224.3176	53.0929	.9	376.6848	68.8009	.9	568.3220	84.5088
17.0	226.9801	53.4071	22.0	380.1327	69.1150	27.0	572.5553	84.8230
.1	229.6583	53.7212	.1	383.5963	69.4292	.1	576.8043	85.1372
.2	232.3522	54.0354	.2	387.0756	69.7434	.2	581.0690	85.4513
.3	235.0618	54.3496	.3	390.5707	70.0575	.3	585.3494	85.7655
.4	237.7871	54.6637	.4	394.0814	70.3717	.4	589.6455	86.0796
.5	240.5282	54.9779	.5	397.6078	70.6858	.5	593.9574	86.3938
.6	243.2849	55.2920	.6	401.1500	71.0000	.6	598.2849	86.7080
.7	246.0574	55.6062	.7	404.7078	71.3142	.7	602.6282	87.0221
.8	248.8456	55.9203	.8	408.2814	71.6283	.8	606.9871	87.3363
.9	251.6494	56.2345	.9	411.8707	71.9425	.9	611.3618	87.6504
18.0	254.4690	56.5486	23.0	415.4756	72.2566	28.0	615.7522	87.9646
.1	257.3043	56.8628	.1	419.0963	72.5708	.1	620.1582	88.2788
.2	260.1553	57.1770	.2	422.7327	72.8849	.2	624.5800	88.5929
.3	263.0220	57.4911	.3	426.3848	73.1991	.3	629.0175	88.9071
.4	265.9044	57.8053	.4	430.0526	73.5133	.4	633.4707	89.2212
.5	268.8025	58.1195	.5	433.7361	73.8274	.5	637.9397	89.5354
.6	271.7164	58.4336	.6	437.4354	74.1416	.6	642.4243	89.8495
.7	274.6459	58.7478	.7	441.1503	74.4557	.7	646.9246	90.1637
.8	277.5911	59.0619	.8	444.8809	74.7699	.8	651.4407	90.4779
.9	280.5521	59.3761	.9	448.6273	75.0841	.9	655.9724	90.7920
19.0	283.5287	59.6903	24.0	452.3893	75.3982	29.0	660.5199	91.1062
.1	286.5211	60.0044	.1	456.1671	75.7124	.1	665.0830	91.4203
.2	289.5292	60.3186	.2	459.9606	76.0265	.2	669.6619	91.7345
.3	292.5530	60.6327	.3	463.7698	76.3407	.3	674.2565	92.0487
.4	295.5925	60.9469	.4	467.5947	76.6549	.4	678.8668	92.3628
.5	298.6477	61.2611	.5	471.4352	76.9690	.5	683.4928	92.6770
.6	301.7186	61.5752	.6	475.2916	77.2832	.6	688.1345	92.9911
.7	304.8052	61.8894	.7	479.1636	77.5973	.7	692.7919	93.3053
.8	307.9075	62.2035	.8	483.0513	77.9115	.8	697.4650	93.6195
.9	311.0255	62.5177	.9	486.9547	78.2257	.9	702.1538	93.9336

Areas and Circumferences of Circles (Continued)

Advancing by tenths

Dia.	Area	Circum.	Dia.	Area	Circum.	Dia.	Area	Circum.
30.0	706.8583	94.2478	35.0	962.1128	109.9557	40.0	1256.6371	125.6637
.1	711.5786	94.5619	.1	967.6184	110.2699	.1	1262.9281	125.9779
.2	716.3145	94.8761	.2	973.1397	110.5841	.2	1269.2348	126.2920
.3	721.0662	95.1903	.3	978.6768	110.8982	.3	1275.5573	126.6062
.4	725.8336	95.5044	.4	984.2296	111.2124	.4	1281.8955	126.9203
.5	730.6167	95.8186	.5	989.7980	111.5265	.5	1288.2493	127.2345
.6	735.4154	96.1327	.6	995.3822	111.8407	.6	1294.6189	127.5487
.7	740.2299	96.4469	.7	1000.9821	112.1549	.7	1301.0042	127.8628
.8	745.0601	96.7611	.8	1006.5977	112.4690	.8	1307.4052	128.1770
.9	749.9060	97.0752	.9	1012.2290	112.7832	.9	1313.8219	128.4911
31.0	754.7676	97.3894	36.0	1017.8760	113.0973	41.0	1320.2543	128.8053
.1	759.6450	97.7035	.1	1023.5387	113.4115	.1	1326.7024	129.1195
.2	764.5380	98.0177	.2	1029.2172	113.7257	.2	1333.1663	129.4336
.3	769.4467	98.3319	.3	1034.9113	114.0398	.3	1339.6458	129.7478
.4	774.3712	98.6460	.4	1040.6212	114.3540	.4	1346.1410	130.0619
.5	779.3113	98.9602	.5	1046.3467	114.6681	.5	1352.6520	130.3761
.6	784.2672	99.2743	.6	1052.0880	114.9823	.6	1359.1786	130.6903
.7	789.2368	99.5885	.7	1057.8449	115.2965	.7	1365.7210	131.0044
.8	794.2260	99.9026	.8	1063.6176	115.6106	.8	1372.2791	131.3186
.9	799.2290	100.2168	.9	1069.4060	115.9248	.9	1378.8529	131.6327
32.0	804.2477	100.5310	37.0	1075.2101	116.2389	42.0	1385.4424	131.9469
.1	809.2821	100.8451	.1	1081.0299	116.5531	.1	1392.0476	132.2611
.2	814.3322	101.1593	.2	1086.8654	116.8672	.2	1398.6685	132.5752
.3	819.3980	101.4734	.3	1092.7166	117.1814	.3	1405.3051	132.8894
.4	824.4796	101.7876	.4	1098.5835	117.4956	.4	1411.9574	133.2035
.5	829.5768	102.1018	.5	1104.4662	117.8097	.5	1418.6254	133.5177
.6	834.6898	102.4159	.6	1110.3645	118.1239	.6	1425.3092	133.8318
.7	839.8185	102.7301	.7	1116.2786	118.4380	.7	1432.0086	134.1460
.8	844.9628	103.0442	.8	1122.2083	118.7522	.8	1438.7238	134.4602
.9	850.1229	103.3584	.9	1128.1538	119.0664	.9	1445.4546	134.7743
33.0	855.2986	103.6726	38.0	1134.1149	119.3805	43.0	1452.2012	135.0885
.1	860.4902	103.9867	.1	1140.0918	119.6947	.1	1458.9635	135.4026
.2	865.6973	104.3009	.2	1146.0844	120.0088	.2	1465.7415	135.7168
.3	870.9202	104.6150	.3	1152.0927	120.3230	.3	1472.5352	136.0310
.4	876.1588	104.9292	.4	1158.1167	120.6372	.4	1479.3446	136.3451
.5	881.4131	105.2434	.5	1164.1564	120.9513	.5	1486.1697	136.6593
.6	886.6831	105.5575	.6	1170.2118	121.2655	.6	1493.0105	136.9734
.7	891.9688	105.8717	.7	1176.2830	121.5796	.7	1499.8670	137.2876
.8	897.2703	106.1858	.8	1182.3698	121.8938	.8	1506.7393	137.6018
.9	902.5874	106.5000	.9	1188.4724	122.2080	.9	1513.6272	137.9159
34.0	907.9203	106.8142	39.0	1194.5906	122.5221	44.0	1520.5308	138.2301
.1	913.2688	107.1283	.1	1200.7246	122.8363	.1	1527.4502	138.5442
.2	918.6331	107.4425	.2	1206.8742	123.1504	.2	1534.3853	138.8584
.3	924.0131	107.7566	.3	1213.0396	123.4646	.3	1541.3360	139.1726
.4	929.4088	108.0708	.4	1219.2207	123.7788	.4	1548.3025	139.4867
.5	934.8202	108.3849	.5	1225.4175	124.0929	.5	1555.247	139.8009
.6	940.2473	108.6991	.6	1231.6300	124.4071	.6	1562.2826	140.1153
.7	945.6901	109.0133	.7	1237.8582	124.7212	.7	1569.2962	140.4292
.8	951.1486	109.3274	.8	1244.1021	125.0354	.8	1576.3255	140.7434
.9	956.0228	109.6416	.9	1250.3617	125.3495	.9	1583.3706	141.0575

Areas and Circumferences of Circles (Continued)

Advancing by tenths

Dia.	Area	Circum.	Dia.	Area	Circum.	Dia.	Area	Circum.
45.0	1590.4313	141.3717	50.0	1963.4954	157.0796	55.0	2375.8294	172.7876
.1	1597.5077	141.6858	.1	1971.3572	157.3938	.1	2384.4767	173.1017
.2	1604.5999	142.0000	.2	1979.2348	157.7080	.2	2393.1396	173.4159
.3	1611.7077	142.3142	.3	1987.1280	158.0221	.3	2401.8183	173.7301
.4	1618.8313	142.6283	.4	1995.0370	158.3363	.4	2410.5126	174.0442
.5	1625.9705	142.9425	.5	2002.9617	158.6504	.5	2419.2227	174.3584
.6	1633.1255	143.2566	.6	2010.9020	158.9646	.6	2427.9485	174.6726
.7	1640.2962	143.5708	.7	2018.8581	159.2787	.7	2436.6899	174.9867
.8	1647.4826	143.8849	.8	2026.8299	159.5929	.8	2445.4471	175.3009
.9	1654.6847	144.1991	.9	2034.8174	159.9071	.9	2454.2200	175.6150
46.0	1661.9025	144.5133	51.0	2042.8206	160.2212	56.0	2463.0086	175.9292
.1	1669.1360	144.8274	.1	2050.8395	160.5354	.1	2471.8130	176.2433
.2	1676.3853	145.1416	.2	2058.8742	160.8495	.2	2480.6330	176.5575
.3	1683.6502	145.4557	.3	2066.9245	161.1637	.3	2489.4687	176.8717
.4	1690.9308	145.7699	.4	2074.9905	161.4779	.4	2498.3201	177.1858
.5	1698.2272	146.0841	.5	2083.0723	161.7920	.5	2507.1873	177.5000
.6	1705.5292	146.3982	.6	2091.1697	162.1062	.6	2516.0701	177.8141
.7	1712.8670	146.7124	.7	2099.2829	162.4203	.7	2524.9687	178.1283
.8	1720.2105	147.0265	.8	2107.4118	162.7345	.8	2533.8830	178.4425
.9	1727.5697	147.3407	.9	2115.5563	163.0487	.9	2542.8129	178.7566
47.0	1734.9445	147.6550	52.0	2123.7166	163.3628	57.0	2551.7586	179.0708
.1	1742.3351	147.9690	.1	2131.8926	163.6770	.1	2560.7200	179.3849
.2	1749.7414	148.2832	.2	2140.0843	163.9911	.2	2569.6971	179.6991
.3	1757.1635	148.5973	.3	2148.2917	164.3053	.3	2578.6899	180.0133
.4	1764.6012	148.9115	.4	2156.5149	164.6195	.4	2587.6985	180.3274
.5	1772.0546	149.2257	.5	2164.7537	164.9336	.5	2596.7227	180.6416
.6	1779.5237	149.5398	.6	2173.0082	165.2479	.6	2605.7626	180.9557
.7	1787.0086	149.8540	.7	2181.2785	165.5619	.7	2614.8183	181.2699
.8	1794.5091	150.1681	.8	2189.5644	165.8761	.8	2623.8896	181.5841
.9	1802.0254	150.4823	.9	2197.8661	166.1903	.9	2632.9767	181.8982
48.0	1809.5574	150.7964	53.0	2206.1834	166.5044	58.0	2642.0794	182.2124
.1	1817.1060	151.1106	.1	2214.5165	166.8186	.1	2651.1979	182.5265
.2	1824.6684	151.4248	.2	2222.8653	167.1327	.2	2660.3321	182.8407
.3	1832.2475	151.7389	.3	2231.2298	167.4469	.3	2669.4820	183.1549
.4	1839.8423	152.0531	.4	2239.6100	167.7610	.4	2678.6476	183.4690
.5	1847.4528	152.3672	.5	2248.0059	168.0752	.5	2687.8289	183.7832
.6	1855.0790	152.6814	.6	2256.4175	168.3894	.6	2697.0259	184.0973
.7	1862.7210	152.9956	.7	2264.8448	168.7035	.7	2706.2386	184.4115
.8	1870.3786	153.3097	.8	2273.2879	169.0177	.8	2715.4670	184.7256
.9	1878.0519	153.6239	.9	2281.7466	169.3318	.9	2724.7112	185.0398
49.0	1885.7409	153.9380	54.0	2290.2210	169.6460	59.0	2733.9710	185.3540
.1	1893.4457	154.2522	.1	2298.7112	169.9602	.1	2743.2466	185.6681
.2	1901.1662	154.5664	.2	2307.2171	170.2743	.2	2752.5378	185.9823
.3	1908.9024	154.8805	.3	2315.7386	170.5885	.3	2761.8448	186.2964
.4	1916.6543	155.1947	.4	2324.2759	170.9026	.4	2771.1675	186.6106
.5	1924.4218	155.5088	.5	2332.8289	171.2168	.5	2780.5058	186.9248
.6	1932.2051	155.8230	.6	2341.3976	171.5310	.6	2789.8599	187.2389
.7	1940.0042	156.1372	.7	2349.9820	171.8451	.7	2799.2297	187.5531
.8	1947.8189	156.4513	.8	2358.5821	172.1593	.8	2808.6152	187.8672
.9	1955.6493	156.7655	.9	2367.1979	172.4735	.9	2818.0165	188.1814

Areas and Circumferences of Circles (Continued)

Advancing by tenths

Dia.	Area	Circum.	Dia.	Area	Circum.	Dia.	Area	Circum.
60.0	2827.4334	188.4956	65.0	3318.3072	204.2035	70.0	3848.4510	219.9115
.1	2836.8660	188.8097	.1	3328.5253	204.5176	.1	3859.4544	220.2256
.2	2846.3144	189.1239	.2	3338.7590	204.8318	.2	3870.4736	220.5398
.3	2855.7784	189.4380	.3	3349.0085	205.1460	.3	3881.5084	220.8540
.4	2865.2582	189.7522	.4	3359.2736	205.4602	.4	3892.5590	221.1681
.5	2874.7536	190.0664	.5	3369.5545	205.7743	.5	3903.6252	221.4823
.6	2884.2648	190.3805	.6	3379.8510	206.0885	.6	3914.7072	221.7964
.7	2893.7917	190.6947	.7	3390.1633	206.4026	.7	3925.8049	222.1106
.8	2903.3343	191.0088	.8	3400.4913	206.7168	.8	3936.9182	222.4248
.9	2912.8926	191.3230	.9	3410.8350	207.0310	.9	3948.0473	222.7389
61.0	2922.4666	191.6372	66.0	3421.1944	207.3451	71.0	3959.1921	223.0531
.1	2932.0563	191.9513	.1	3431.5695	207.6593	.1	3970.3526	223.3672
.2	2941.6617	192.2655	.2	3441.9603	207.9734	.2	3981.5289	223.6814
.3	2951.2828	192.5796	.3	3452.3669	208.2876	.3	3992.7208	223.9956
.4	2960.9197	192.8938	.4	3462.7891	208.6017	.4	4003.9284	224.3097
.5	2970.5722	193.2079	.5	3473.2270	208.9159	.5	4015.1518	224.6239
.6	2980.2405	193.5221	.6	3483.6807	209.2301	.6	4026.3908	224.9380
.7	2989.9244	193.8363	.7	3494.1500	209.5442	.7	4037.6456	225.2522
.8	2999.6241	194.1504	.8	3504.6351	209.8584	.8	4048.9160	225.5664
.9	3009.3395	194.4646	.9	3515.1359	210.1725	.9	4060.2022	225.3805
62.0	3019.0705	194.7787	67.0	3525.6524	210.4867	72.0	4071.5041	226.1947
.1	3028.8173	195.0929	.1	3536.1845	210.8009	.1	4082.8217	226.5088
.2	3038.5798	195.4071	.2	3546.7324	211.1150	.2	4094.1550	226.8230
.3	3048.3580	195.7212	.3	3557.2960	211.4292	.3	4105.5040	227.1371
.4	3058.1520	196.0354	.4	3567.8754	211.7433	.4	4116.8687	227.4513
.5	3067.9616	196.3495	.5	3578.4704	212.0575	.5	4128.2491	227.7655
.6	3077.7869	196.6637	.6	3589.0811	212.3717	.6	4139.6452	228.0796
.7	3087.6279	196.9779	.7	3599.7075	212.6858	.7	4151.0571	228.3938
.8	3097.4847	197.2920	.8	3610.3497	213.0000	.8	4162.4846	228.7079
.9	3107.3571	197.6062	.9	3621.0075	213.3141	.9	4173.9279	229.0221
63.0	3117.2453	197.9203	68.0	3631.6811	213.6283	73.0	4185.3868	229.3363
.1	3127.1492	198.2345	.1	3642.3704	213.9425	.1	4196.8615	229.6504
.2	3137.0688	198.5487	.2	3653.0754	214.2566	.2	4208.3519	229.9646
.3	3147.0040	198.8628	.3	3663.7960	214.5708	.3	4219.8579	230.2787
.4	3156.9550	199.1770	.4	3674.5324	214.8849	.4	4231.3797	230.5929
.5	3166.9217	199.4911	.5	3685.2845	215.1991	.5	4242.9172	230.9071
.6	3176.9043	199.8053	.6	3696.0528	215.5133	.6	4254.4704	231.2212
.7	3186.9023	200.1195	.7	3706.8359	215.8274	.7	4266.0394	231.5354
.8	3196.9161	200.4336	.8	3717.6351	216.1416	.8	4277.6240	231.8495
.9	3206.9456	200.7478	.9	3728.4500	216.4556	.9	4289.2243	232.1637
64.0	3216.9909	201.0620	69.0	3739.2807	216.7699	74.0	4300.8403	232.4779
.1	3227.0518	201.3761	.1	3750.1270	217.0841	.1	4312.4721	232.7920
.2	3237.1285	201.6902	.2	3760.9891	217.3982	.2	4324.1195	233.1062
.3	3247.2222	202.0044	.3	3771.8668	217.7124	.3	4335.7827	233.4203
.4	3257.3289	202.3186	.4	3782.7603	218.0265	.4	4347.4616	233.7345
.5	3267.4527	202.6327	.5	3793.6695	218.3407	.5	4359.1562	234.0487
.6	3277.5922	202.9469	.6	3804.5944	218.6548	.6	4370.8664	234.3628
.7	3287.7474	203.2610	.7	3815.5350	218.9690	.7	4382.5924	234.6770
.8	3297.9183	203.5752	.8	3826.4913	219.2832	.8	4394.3341	234.9911
.9	3308.1049	203.8894	.9	3837.4683	219.5973	.9	4406.0916	235.3053

Areas and Circumferences of Circles (Continued)

Advancing by tenths

Dia.	Area	Circum.	Dia.	Area	Circum.	Dia.	Area	Circum.
75.0	4417.8647	235.6194	80.0	5026.5482	251.3274	85.0	5674.5017	267.0354
.1	4429.6535	235.9336	.1	5039.1225	251.6416	.1	5687.8614	267.3495
.2	4441.4580	236.2478	.2	5051.7124	251.9557	.2	5701.2367	267.6637
.3	4453.2783	236.5619	.3	5064.3180	252.2699	.3	5714.6277	267.9779
.4	4465.1142	236.8761	.4	5076.9394	252.5840	.4	5728.0345	268.2920
.5	4476.9659	237.1902	.5	5089.5764	252.8982	.5	5741.4569	268.6062
.6	4488.8332	237.5044	.6	5102.2292	253.2124	.6	5754.8951	268.9203
.7	4500.7163	237.8186	.7	5114.8977	253.5265	.7	5768.3490	269.2345
.8	4512.6151	238.1327	.8	5127.5819	253.8407	.8	5781.8185	269.5486
.9	4524.5296	238.4469	.9	5140.2818	254.1548	.9	5795.3038	269.8628
76.0	4536.4598	238.7610	81.0	5152.9973	254.4690	86.0	5808.8048	270.1770
.1	4548.4057	239.0752	.1	5165.7287	254.7832	.1	5822.3215	270.4911
.2	4560.3673	239.3894	.2	5178.4757	255.0973	.2	5835.8539	270.8053
.3	4572.3446	239.7035	.3	5191.2384	255.4115	.3	5849.4020	271.1194
.4	4584.3377	240.0177	.4	5204.0168	255.7256	.4	5862.9659	271.4336
.5	4596.3464	240.3318	.5	5216.8110	256.0398	.5	5876.5454	271.7478
.6	4608.3708	240.6460	.6	5229.6208	256.3540	.6	5890.1407	272.0619
.7	4620.4110	240.9602	.7	5242.4463	256.6681	.7	5903.7516	272.3761
.8	4632.4669	241.2743	.8	5255.2876	256.9823	.8	5917.3783	272.6902
.9	4644.5384	241.5885	.9	5208.1446	257.2966	.9	5931.0206	273.0044
77.0	4656.6257	241.9026	82.0	5281.0173	257.6106	87.0	5944.6787	273.3186
.1	4668.7287	242.2168	.1	5293.9056	257.9247	.1	5958.3525	273.6327
.2	4680.8474	242.5310	.2	5306.8097	258.2389	.2	5972.0420	273.9469
.3	4692.9818	242.8451	.3	5319.7295	258.5531	.3	5985.7472	274.2610
.4	4705.1319	243.1592	.4	5332.6650	258.8672	.4	5999.4681	274.5752
.5	4717.2977	243.4734	.5	5345.6162	259.1814	.5	6013.2047	274.8894
.6	4729.4792	243.7876	.6	5358.5832	259.4956	.6	6026.9570	275.2035
.7	4741.6765	244.1017	.7	5371.5658	259.8097	.7	6040.7250	275.5177
.8	4753.8894	244.4159	.8	5384.5641	260.1239	.8	6054.5088	275.8318
.9	4766.1181	244.7301	.9	5397.5782	260.4380	.9	6068.3082	276.1460
78.0	4778.3624	245.0442	83.0	5410.6079	260.7522	88.0	6082.1234	276.4602
.1	4790.6225	245.3584	.1	5423.6534	261.0663	.1	6095.9542	276.7743
.2	4802.8983	245.6725	.2	5436.7146	261.3805	.2	6109.8008	277.0885
.3	4815.1897	245.9867	.3	5449.7915	261.6947	.3	6123.6631	277.4026
.4	4827.4969	246.3009	.4	5462.8840	262.0088	.4	6137.5411	277.7168
.5	4839.8198	246.6150	.5	5475.9923	262.3230	.5	6151.4348	278.0309
.6	4852.1584	246.9292	.6	5489.1163	262.6371	.6	6165.3442	278.3451
.7	4864.5128	247.2433	.7	5502.2561	262.9513	.7	6179.2693	278.6593
.8	4876.8828	247.5575	.8	5515.4115	263.2655	.8	6193.2101	278.9740
.9	4889.2685	247.8717	.9	5528.5826	263.5796	.9	6207.1666	279.2876
79.0	4901.6699	248.1858	84.0	5541.7694	263.8938	89.0	6221.1389	279.6017
.1	4914.0871	248.5000	.1	5554.9720	264.2079	.1	6235.1268	279.9159
.2	4926.5199	248.8141	.2	5568.1902	264.5221	.2	6249.1304	280.2301
.3	4938.9685	249.1283	.3	5581.4242	264.8363	.3	6263.1498	280.5442
.4	4951.4328	249.4425	.4	5594.6739	265.1514	.4	6277.1849	280.8584
.5	4963.9127	249.7566	.5	5607.9392	265.4646	.5	6291.2356	281.1725
.6	4976.4084	250.0708	.6	5621.2203	265.7787	.6	6305.3021	281.4867
.7	4988.9198	250.3850	.7	5634.5171	266.0929	.7	6319.3843	281.8009
.8	5001.4469	250.6991	.8	5647.8296	266.4071	.8	6333.4822	282.1150
.9	5013.9897	251.0133	.9	5661.1578	266.7212	.9	6347.5958	282.4292

Areas and Circumferences of Circles (Continued)

Advancing by tenths

Dia.	Area	Circum.	Dia.	Area	Circum.	Dia.	Area	Circum
90.0	6361.7251	282.7433	93.5	6866.1471	293.7389	97.0	7389.8113	304.734
.1	6375.8701	283.0575	.6	6880.8419	294.0531	.1	7405.0559	305.048
.2	6390.0309	283.3717	.7	6895.5524	294.3672	.2	7420.3162	305.362
.3	6404.2073	283.6858	.8	6910.2786	294.6814	.3	7435.5922	305.677
.4	6418.3995	284.0000	.9	6925.0205	294.9956	.4	7450.8839	305.991
.5	6432.6073	284.3141	94.0	6939.7782	295.3097	.5	7466.1913	306.305
.6	6446.8309	284.6283	.1	6954.5515	295.6239	.6	7481.5144	306.619
.7	6461.0701	284.9425	.2	6969.3106	295.9380	.7	7496.8532	306.933
.8	6475.3251	285.2566	.3	6984.1453	296.2522	.8	7512.2078	307.247
.9	6489.5958	285.5708	.4	6998.9658	296.5663	.9	7527.5780	307.561
91.0	6503.8822	285.8849	.5	7013.8019	296.8805	98.0	7542.9640	307.8761
.1	6518.1843	286.1991	.6	7028.6538	297.1947	.1	7558.3656	308.190
.2	6532.5021	286.5133	.7	7043.5214	297.5088	.2	7573.7830	308.504
.3	6546.8356	286.8274	.8	7058.4047	297.8230	.3	7589.2161	308.81
.4	6561.1848	287.1416	.9	7073.3033	298.1371	.4	7604.6648	309.1327
.5	6575.5498	287.4557	95.0	7088.2184	298.4513	.5	7620.1293	309.4469
.6	6589.9304	287.7699	.1	7103.1488	298.7655	.6	7635.6095	309.7610
.7	6604.3268	288.0840	.2	7118.1950	299.0796	.7	7651.1054	310.0752
.8	6618.7388	288.3982	.3	7133.0568	299.3938	.8	7666.6170	310.3894
.9	6633.1666	288.7124	.4	7148.0343	209.7079	.9	7682.1444	310.7035
92.0	6647.6101	289.0265	.5	7163.0276	300.0221	99.0	7697.6893	311.0177
.1	6662.0692	289.3407	.6	7178.0366	300.3363	.1	7713.2461	311.3318
.2	6676.5441	289.6548	.7	7193.0612	300.6504	.2	7728.8206	311.6460
.3	6691.0347	289.9690	.8	7208.1016	300.9646	.3	7744.4107	311.9602
.4	6705.5410	290.2832	.9	7223.1577	301.2787	.4	7760.0166	312.2743
.5	6720.0630	290.5973	96.0	7238.2295	301.5929	.5	7775.6382	312.5885
.6	6734.6008	290.9115	.1	7253.3170	301.9071	.6	7791.2754	312.9026
.7	6749.1542	291.2256	.2	7268.4202	302.2212	.7	7806.9284	313.2168
.8	6763.7233	291.5398	.3	7283 5391	302.5354	.8	7822.5971	313.5309
.9	6778.3082	291.8540	.4	7298.6737	302.8405	.9	7838.2815	313.8451
93.0	6792.9087	292.1681	.5	7313.8240	303.1637	100.0	7853.9816	314.1593
.1	6807.5250	292.4823	.6	7328.9901	303.4779			
.2	6822.1569	292.7964	.7	7344.1718	303.7920			
.3	6836.8046	293.1106	.8	7359.3693	304.1062			
.4	6851.4680	293.4248	.9	7374.5824	304.4203			

Areas of Circles

Advancing by eighths

AREAS

In.	0.0	0.⅛	0.¼	0.⅜	0.½	0.⅝	0.¾	0.⅞
0	0.0	0.0122	0.0490	0.1104	0.1963	0.3068	0.4417	0.6013
1	0.7854	0.9940	1.227	1.484	1.767	2.073	2.405	2.761
2	3.1416	3.546	3.976	4.430	4.908	5.411	5.939	6.491
3	7.068	7.669	8.295	8.946	9.621	10.32	11.04	11.79
4	12.56	13.36	14.18	15.03	15.90	16.80	17.72	18.66
5	19.63	20.62	21.64	22.69	23.75	24.85	25.96	27.10
6	28.27	29.46	30.67	31.91	33.18	34.47	35.78	37.12
7	38.48	39.87	41.28	42.71	44.17	45.66	47.17	48.70
8	50.26	51.84	53.45	55.08	56.74	58.42	60.13	61.86
9	63.61	65.39	67.20	69.02	70.88	72.75	74.66	76.58
10	78.54	80.51	82.51	84.54	86.59	88.66	90.76	92.88
11	95.03	97.20	99.40	101.6	103.8	106.1	108.4	110.7
12	113.0	115.4	117.8	120.2	122.7	125.1	127.6	130.1
13	132.7	135.2	137.8	140.5	143.1	145.8	148.4	151.2
14	153.9	156.6	159.4	162.2	165.1	167.9	170.8	173.7
15	176.7	179.6	182.6	185.6	188.6	191.7	194.8	197.9
16	201.0	204.2	207.3	210.5	213.8	217.0	220.3	223.6
17	226.9	230.3	233.7	237.1	240.5	243.9	247.4	250.9
18	254.4	258.0	261.5	265.1	268.8	272.4	276.1	279.8
19	283.5	287.2	291.0	294.8	298.6	302.4	306.3	310.2
20	314.1	318.1	322.0	326.0	330.0	334.1	338.1	342.2
21	346.3	350.4	354.6	358.8	363.0	367.2	371.5	375.8
22	380.1	384.4	388.8	393.2	397.6	402.0	406.4	410.9
23	415.4	420.0	424.5	429.1	433.7	438.3	443.0	447.6
24	452.3	457.1	461.8	466.6	471.4	476.2	481.1	485.9
25	490.8	495.7	500.7	505.7	510.7	515.7	520.7	525.8
26	530.9	536.0	541.1	546.3	551.5	556.7	562.0	567.2
27	572.5	577.8	583.2	588.5	593.9	599.3	604.8	610.2
28	615.7	621.2	626.7	632.3	637.9	643.5	649.1	654.8
29	660.5	666.2	671.9	677.7	683.4	689.2	695.1	700.9
30	706.8	712.7	718.6	724.6	730.6	736.6	742.6	748.6
31	754.8	760.9	767.0	773.1	779.8	785.5	791.7	798.0
32	804.3	810.6	816.9	823.2	829.6	836.0	842.4	848.8
33	855.3	861.8	868.3	874.9	881.4	888.0	894.6	901.3
34	907.9	914.7	921.3	928.1	934.8	941.6	948.4	955.3
35	962.1	969.0	975.9	982.8	989.8	996.8	1003.8	1010.8
36	1017.9	1025.0	1032.1	1039.2	1046.3	1053.5	1060.7	1068.0
37	1075.2	1082.5	1089.8	1097.1	1104.5	1111.8	1119.2	1126.7
38	1124.1	1141.6	1149.1	1156.6	1164.2	1171.7	1179.3	1186.9
39	1194.6	1202.3	1210.0	1217.7	1225.4	1233.2	1241.0	1248.8
40	1256.6	1264.5	1272.4	1280.3	1288.2	1296.2	1304.2	1312.2
41	1320.3	1328.3	1336.4	1344.5	1352.7	1360.8	1369.0	1377.2
42	1385.4	1393.7	1402.0	1410.3	1418.6	1427.0	1436.4	1443.8
43	1452.2	1460.7	1469.1	1477.6	1486.2	1494.7	1503.3	1511.9
44	1520.5	1529.2	1537.9	1546.6	1555.3	1564.0	1572.8	1581.6
45	1590.4	1599.3	1608.2	1617.0	1626.0	1634.9	1643.9	1652.9

Circumferences of Circles

Advancing by eighths

CIRCUMFERENCES

Dia.	0.0	0.⅛	0.¼	0.⅜	0.½	0.⅝	0.¾	0.⅞
0	0.0	0.3927	0.7854	1.178	1.570	1.963	2.356	2.748
1	3.141	3.534	3.927	4.319	4.712	5.105	5.497	5.890
2	6.283	6.675	7.068	7.461	7.854	8.246	8.639	9.032
3	9.424	9.817	10.21	10.60	10.99	11.38	11.78	12.17
4	12.56	12.95	13.35	13.74	14.13	14.52	14.92	15.31
5	15.70	16.10	16.49	16.88	17.27	17.67	18.06	18.45
6	18.84	19.24	19.63	20.02	20.42	20.81	21.20	21.59
7	21.99	22.38	22.77	23.16	23.56	23.95	24.34	24.74
8	25.13	25.52	25.91	26.31	26.70	27.09	27.48	27.88
9	28.27	28.66	29.05	29.45	29.84	30.23	30.63	31.02
10	31.41	31.80	32.20	32.59	32.98	33.37	33.77	34.16
11	34.55	34.95	35.34	35.73	36.12	36.52	36.91	37.30
12	37.69	38.09	38.48	38.87	39.27	39.66	40.05	40.44
13	40.84	41.23	41.62	42.01	42.41	42.80	43.19	43.58
14	43.98	44.37	44.76	45.16	45.55	45.94	46.33	46.73
15	47.12	47.51	47.90	48.30	48.69	49.08	49.48	49.87
16	50.26	50.65	51.05	51.44	51.83	52.22	52.62	53.01
17	53.40	53.79	54.19	54.58	54.97	55.37	55.76	56.15
18	56.54	56.94	57.33	57.72	58.11	58.51	58.90	59.29
19	59.69	60.08	60.47	60.86	61.26	61.65	62.04	62.43
20	62.83	63.22	63.61	64.01	64.40	64.79	65.18	65.58
21	65.97	66.36	66.75	67.15	67.54	67.93	68.32	68.72
22	69.11	69.50	69.90	70.29	70.68	71.07	71.47	71.86
23	72.25	72.64	73.04	73.43	73.82	74.22	74.61	75.00
24	75.39	75.79	76.18	76.57	76.96	77.36	77.75	78.14
25	78.54	78.93	79.32	79.71	80.10	80.50	80.89	81.28
26	81.68	82.07	82.46	82.85	83.25	83.64	84.03	84.43
27	84.82	85.21	85.60	86.00	86.39	86.78	87.17	87.57
28	87.96	88.35	88.75	89.14	89.53	89.92	90.32	90.71
29	91.10	91.49	91.89	92.28	92.67	93.06	93.46	93.85
30	94.24	94.64	95.03	95.42	95.81	96.21	96.60	96.99
31	97.39	97.78	98.17	98.57	98.96	99.35	99.75	100.14
32	100.53	100.92	101.32	101.71	102.10	102.49	102.89	103.29
33	103.67	104.07	104.46	104.85	105.24	105.64	106.03	106.42
34	106.81	107.21	107.60	107.99	108.39	108.78	109.17	109.56
35	109.96	110.35	110.74	111.13	111.53	111.92	112.31	112.71
36	113.10	113.49	113.88	114.28	114.67	115.06	115.45	115.85
37	116.24	116.63	117.02	117.42	117.81	118.20	118.60	118.99
38	119.38	119.77	120.17	120.56	120.95	121.34	121.74	122.13
39	122.52	122.92	123.31	123.70	124.09	124.49	124.88	125.27
40	125.66	126.06	126.45	126.84	127.24	127.63	128.02	128.41
41	128.81	129.20	129.59	129.98	130.38	130.77	131.16	131.55
42	131.95	132.34	132.73	133.13	133.52	133.91	134.30	134.70
43	135.09	135.48	135.87	136.27	136.66	137.05	137.45	137.84
44	138.23	138.62	139.02	139.41	139.80	140.19	140.59	140.98
45	141.37	141.76	142.16	142.55	142.94	143.34	143.73	144.12

Areas and Circumferences of Circles

From 1 to 50 Feet

Advancing by one inch

Diam., ft in	Area, sq ft	Circum., ft in	Diam., ft in	Area, sq ft	Circum., ft in	Diam., ft in	Area, sq ft	Circum., ft in
1 0	0.7854	3 1⅝	5 0	19.635	15 8⅛	9 0	63.6174	28 3¼
1	0.9217	3 4⅝	1	20.2947	15 11⅝	1	64.8006	28 6⅜
2	1.069	3 8	2	20.9656	16 2¾	2	65.9951	28 9½
3	1.2271	3 11	3	21.6475	16 5¾	3	67.2007	29 ⅝
4	1.3962	4 2⅛	4	22.34	16 9	4	68.4166	29 3¾
5	1.5761	4 5⅜	5	23.0437	17 ⅛	5	69.644	29 7
6	1.7671	4 8½	6	23.7583	17 3¼	6	70.8823	29 10⅛
7	1.9689	4 11⅝	7	24.4835	17 6⅜	7	72.1309	30 1¼
8	2.1816	5 2¾	8	25.2199	17 9⅝	8	73.391	30 4⅜
9	2.4052	5 5⅞	9	25.9672	18 ¾	9	74.662	30 7½
10	2.6398	5 9	10	26.7251	18 3⅞	10	75.9433	30 11⅝
11	2.8852	6 ¼	11	27.4943	18 7⅛	11	77.2362	31 1¾
2 0	3.1416	6 3⅜	6 0	28.2744	18 10⅛	10 0	78.54	31 5
1	3.4087	6 6½	1	29.0649	19 1¼	1	79.854	31 8⅛
2	3.6869	6 9⅝	2	29.8668	19 4⅜	2	81.1795	31 11¼
3	3.976	7 ¾	3	30.6796	19 7½	3	82.516	32 2⅜
4	4 276	7 3⅞	4	31.5029	19 10⅝	4	83.8627	32 5½
5	4.5869	7 7	5	32.3376	20 1⅞	5	85.2211	32 8⅝
6	4.9087	7 10¼	6	33.1831	20 4⅞	6	86.5903	32 11¾
7	5.2413	8 1⅜	7	34.0391	20 8⅛	7	87.9697	33 2⅞
8	5.585	8 4½	8	34.9065	20 11½	8	89.3608	33 6⅛
9	5.9395	8 7⅝	9	35.7847	21 2⅜	9	90.7627	33 9¼
10	6.3049	8 10¾	10	36.6735	21 5½	10	92.1749	34 ⅜
11	6.6813	9 1⅞	11	37.5736	21 8¾	11	93.5986	34 3½
3 0	7.0686	9 5	7 0	38.4846	21 11⅞	11 0	95.0334	34 6⅝
1	7.4666	9 8¼	1	39.406	22 3	1	96.4783	34 9¾
2	7.8757	9 11⅜	2	40.3388	22 6⅛	2	97.9347	35 ⅞
3	8.2957	10 2½	3	41.2825	22 9¼	3	99.4021	35 4⅛
4	8.7265	10 5⅝	4	42.2367	23 ⅜	4	100.8797	35 7¼
5	9.1683	10 8¾	5	43.2022	23 2⅛	5	102.3689	35 10⅝
6	9.6211	10 11⅞	6	44.1787	23 6¾	6	103.8691	36 1½
7	10.0846	11 3	7	45.1656	23 9⅞	7	105.3794	36 4½
8	10.5591	11 6⅛	8	46.1638	24 1⅛	8	106.9013	36 7¾
9	11.0446	11 9⅜	9	47.173	24 4⅛	9	108.4342	36 10⅞
10	11.5409	12 ½	10	48.1962	24 7¼	10	109.9772	37 2¾
11	12.0481	12 3⅝	11	49.2236	24 10⅜	11	111.5319	37 5¼
4 0	12.5664	12 6¾	8 0	50.2656	25 1½	12 0	113.0976	37 8¾
1	13.0952	12 9⅞	1	51.3178	25 4⅝	1	114.6732	37 11½
2	13.6353	13 1	2	52.3816	25 7⅞	2	116.2607	38 2⅝
3	14.1862	13 4⅛	3	53.4562	25 11	3	117.859	38 5¾
4	14.7479	13 7¼	4	54.5412	26 2⅛	4	119.4674	38 8⅞
5	15.3206	13 10½	5	55.6377	26 5¼	5	121.0876	39 0
6	15.9043	14 1⅝	6	56.7451	26 8⅜	6	122.7187	39 3¼
7	16.4986	14 4¾	7	57.8628	26 11½	7	124.3598	39 6⅜
8	17.1041	14 7⅞	8	58.992	27 2¾	8	126.0127	39 9½
9	17.7205	14 11	9	60.1321	27 5¾	9	127.6765	40 ⅝
10	18.3476	15 2⅛	10	61.2826	27 9	10	129.3504	40 3¾
11	18.9658	15 5¼	11	62.4445	28 ⅛	11	131.036	40 6⅞

Areas and Circumferences of Circles (Continued

Diam., ft in	Area, sq ft	Circum., ft in	Diam., ft in	Area, sq ft	Circum., ft in	Diam., ft in	A s
13 0	132.7326	40 10	18 0	254.4696	56 6⅛	23 0	41
1	134.4391	41 1⅛	1	256.8303	56 9⅝	1	41
2	136.1574	41 4⅜	2	259.2033	57 ⅞	2	42
3	137.8867	41 7½	3	261.5872	57 4	3	42
4	139.626	41 10⅝	4	263.9807	57 7⅛	4	42
5	141.3771	42 1⅝	5	266.3864	57 10¼	5	43
6	143.1391	42 4⅞	6	268.8031	58 1⅜	6	43
7	144.9111	42 8	7	271.2293	58 4½	7	43
8	146.6949	42 11⅛	8	273.6678	58 7⅝	8	43
9	148.4896	43 2¼	9	276.1171	58 10¾	9	44
10	150.2943	43 5½	10	278.5761	59 2	10	44
11	152.1109	43 8⅝	11	281.0472	59 5⅛	11	44
14 0	153.9384	43 11¾	19 0	283.5294	59 8¼	24 0	45
1	155.7758	44 2⅞	1	286.021	59 11½	1	45
2	157.625	44 6	2	288.5249	60 2½	2	45
3	159.4852	44 9⅛	3	291.0397	60 5⅝	3	461
4	161.3553	45 ¼	4	293.5641	60 8¾	4	46
5	163.2373	45 3½	5	296.1107	60 11⅞	5	46
6	165.1303	45 6⅝	6	298.6483	61 3⅛	6	471
7	167.0331	45 9¾	7	301.2054	61 6¼	7	474
8	168.9479	46 ⅞	8	303.7747	61 9½	8	477
9	170.8735	46 4	9	306.355	62 ½	9	481
10	172.8091	46 7⅛	10	308.9448	62 3⅝	10	484
11	174.7565	46 11¼	11	311.5469	62 6¾	11	487
15 0	176.715	47 1½	20 0	314.16	62 9⅞	25 0	490
1	178.6832	47 4⅝	1	316.7824	63 1⅛	1	494
2	180.6634	47 7¾	2	319.4173	63 4¼	2	497
3	182.6545	47 10⅞	3	322.063	63 7⅜	3	500
4	184.6555	48 2½	4	324.7182	63 11½	4	504
5	186.6684	48 5⅛	5	327.3858	64 1⅝	5	507
6	188.6923	48 8¼	6	330.0643	64 4¾	6	510
7	190.726	48 11⅜	7	332.7522	64 7⅞	7	514
8	192.7716	49 2⅝	8	335.4525	64 11	8	517
9	194.8282	49 5¾	9	338.1637	65 2¼	9	520
10	196.8946	49 8⅞	10	340.8844	65 5⅜	10	524
11	198.973	50 0	11	343.6174	65 8¼	11	527
16 0	201.0624	50 3⅛	21 0	346.3614	65 11⅝	26 0	530
1	203.1615	50 6¼	1	349.1147	66 2¾	1	534
2	205.2726	50 9⅝	2	351.8804	66 5⅞	2	537
3	207.3946	51 ½	3	354.6571	66 9	3	541
4	209.5264	51 3¾	4	357.4432	67 ⅛	4	544
5	211.6703	51 6½	5	360.2417	67 3⅜	5	548
6	213.8251	51 10	6	363.0511	67 6½	6	551
7	215.9896	52 1⅛	7	365.8698	67 9⅝	7	555
8	218.1662	52 4¼	8	368.7011	68 ¾	8	558
9	220.3537	52 7⅜	9	371.5432	68 3⅞	9	562.
10	222.551	52 10½	10	374.3947	68 7	10	565.
11	224.7608	53 1⅝	11	377.2587	68 10¼	11	569.
17 0	226.9806	53 4⅞	22 0	380.1336	69 1⅜	27 0	572.
1	229.2105	53 8	1	383.0177	69 4½	1	576.
2	231.4525	53 11⅛	2	385.9144	69 7⅝	2	579.
3	233.7055	54 2⅛	3	388.822	69 10¾	3	583.
4	235.9682	54 5⅜	4	391.7389	70 1⅞	4	586.
5	238.243	54 8½	5	394.6683	70 5	5	590.
6	240.5287	54 11⅝	6	397.6087	70 8¼	6	593.
7	242.8241	55 2⅞	7	400.5583	70 11⅛	7	597.
8	245.1316	55 6	8	403.5204	71 2½	8	601.
9	247.45	55 9⅛	9	406.4935	71 5⅝	9	604.
10	249.7781	56 ¼	10	409.4759	71 8¾	10	608
11	252.1184	56 3½	11	412.4707	71 11⅞	11	612.

Areas and Circumferences of Circles (Continued)

Diam.,		Area,	Circum.,		Diam.,		Area,	Circum.,		Diam.,		Area,	Circum.,	
ft	in	sq ft	ft	in	ft	in	sq ft	ft	in	ft	in	sq ft	ft	in
28	0	615.7536	87	11½	33	0	855.301	103	8	38	0	1134.118	119	4½
	1	619.4228	88	2⅝		1	859.624	103	11⅛		1	1139.095	119	7⅝
	2	623.105	88	5¾		2	863.961	104	2¼		2	1144.087	119	10¾
	3	626.7982	88	9		3	868.309	104	5⅜		3	1149.089	120	2
	4	630.5002	89	⅛		4	872.665	104	8⅝		4	1154.110	120	5⅛
	5	634.2152	89	3¼		5	877.035	104	11¾		5	1159.124	120	8⅜
	6	637.9411	89	6⅜		6	881.415	105	2⅞		6	1164.159	120	11⅜
	7	641.6758	89	9½		7	885.804	105	6		7	1169.202	121	2½
	8	645.4235	90	⅝		8	890.206	105	9⅛		8	1174.259	121	5⅝
	9	649.1321	90	3¾		9	894.619	106	¼		9	1179.327	121	8¾
	10	652.9495	90	6⅞		10	899.041	106	3⅜		10	1184.403	121	11⅞
	11	656.73	90	11⅛		11	903.476	106	6⅝		11	1189.493	122	3⅛
29	0	660.5214	91	1¼	34	0	907.922	106	9¾	39	0	1194.593	122	6¼
	1	664.3214	91	4⅜		1	912.377	107	⅞		1	1199.719	122	9½
	2	668.1346	91	7½		2	916.844	107	4		2	1204.824	123	½
	3	671.9587	91	10⅝		3	921.323	107	7⅛		3	1209.958	123	3⅝
	4	675.7915	92	1¾		4	925.810	107	10¼		4	1215.099	123	6¾
	5	679.6373	92	4⅞		5	930.311	108	1⅜		5	1220.254	123	9⅞
	6	683.4943	92	8⅛		6	934.822	108	4⅝		6	1225.420	124	1⅛
	7	687.3596	92	11¼		7	939.342	108	7¾		7	1230.594	124	4¼
	8	691.2385	93	2⅜		8	943.875	108	10⅞		8	1235.782	124	7⅜
	9	695.1028	93	5½		9	948.419	109	2		9	1240.981	124	10½
	10	699.0263	93	8⅝		10	952.972	109	5⅛		10	1246.188	125	1⅝
	11	702.9377	93	11⅞		11	957.538	109	8¼		11	1251.408	125	4¾
30	0	706.86	94	2⅞	35	0	962.115	109	11⅜	40	0	1256.64	125	7⅞
	1	710.791	94	6		1	966.770	110	2⅝		1	1261.879	125	11
	2	714.735	94	9¼		2	971.299	110	5¾		2	1267.133	126	2¼
	3	718.69	95	⅜		3	975.908	110	8⅞		3	1272.397	126	5⅜
	4	722.654	95	3½		4	980.526	111	0		4	1277.669	126	8½
	5	726.631	95	6⅝		5	985.158	111	3⅛		5	1282.955	126	11⅝
	6	730.618	95	9¾		6	989.803	111	6¼		6	1288.252	127	2¾
	7	734.615	96	⅞		7	994.451	111	9⅜		7	1293.557	127	5⅞
	8	738.624	96	4		8	999.115	112	½		8	1298.876	127	9
	9	742.645	96	7¼		9	1003.79	112	3¾		9	1304.206	128	¼
	10	746.674	96	10⅜		10	1008.473	112	6⅞		10	1309.543	128	3⅜
	11	750.716	97	1½		11	1013.170	112	10		11	1314.895	128	6½
31	0	754.769	97	4⅝	36	0	1017.878	113	1⅛	41	0	1320.257	128	9⅝
	1	758.831	97	7¾		1	1022.594	113	4¼		1	1325.628	129	¾
	2	762.906	97	10⅞		2	1027.324	113	7⅜		2	1331.012	129	3⅞
	3	766.992	98	2		3	1032.064	113	10⅝		3	1336.407	129	7
	4	771.086	98	5⅛		4	1036.813	114	1¾		4	1341.810	129	10⅛
	5	775.191	98	8⅜		5	1041.576	114	4⅞		5	1347.227	130	1⅜
	6	779.313	98	11½		6	1046.349	114	8		6	1352.655	130	4½
	7	783.440	99	2⅝		7	1051.130	114	11⅛		7	1358.091	130	7⅝
	8	787.581	99	5¾		8	1055.926	115	2¼		8	1363.541	130	10¾
	9	791.732	99	8⅞		9	1060.731	115	5⅜		9	1369.001	131	1⅞
	10	795.892	100	0		10	1065.546	115	9¼		10	1374.47	131	5
	11	800.065	100	3⅛		11	1070.374	115	11⅝		11	1379.952	131	8⅛
32	0	804.25	100	6⅜	37	0	1075.2126	116	2⅞	42	0	1385.446	131	11⅜
	1	808.442	100	9½		1	1080.059	116	6		1	1390.247	132	2½
	2	812.648	101	⅝		2	1084.920	116	9⅛		2	1396.462	132	5⅝
	3	816.865	101	3¾		3	1089.791	117	¼		3	1401.988	132	8¾
	4	821.090	101	6⅞		4	1094.671	117	3½		4	1407.522	132	11⅞
	5	825.329	101	10		5	1099.564	117	6½		5	1413.07	133	3
	6	829.579	102	1⅛		6	1104.469	117	9⅝		6	1418.629	133	6⅛
	7	833.837	102	4⅜		7	1109.381	118	¾		7	1424.195	133	9¼
	8	838.108	102	7½		8	1114.307	118	4		8	1429.776	134	½
	9	842.391	102	10⅝		9	1119.244	118	7⅛		9	1435.367	134	3⅜
	10	846.681	103	1¾		10	1124.189	118	10¼		10	1440.967	134	6¾
	11	850.985	103	4⅞		11	1129.148	119	1⅜		11	1446.580	134	9⅞

Areas and Circumferences of Circles (Continued)

Diam., ft in	Area, sq ft	Circum., ft in	Diam., ft in	Area, sq ft	Circum., ft in	Diam., ft in	Area, sq ft	Circum., ft in
43 0	1452.205	135 1	46 0	1661.906	144 6⅛	49 0	1885.745	153 11¼
1	1457.836	135 4⅛	1	1667.931	144 9¼	1	1892.172	154 2⅜
2	1463.483	135 7¼	2	1673.97	145 ⅜	2	1898.504	154 5½
3	1469.14	135 10½	3	1680.02	145 3½	3	1905.037	154 8⅝
4	1474.804	136 1⅝	4	1686.077	145 6⅝	4	1911.497	154 11⅞
5	1480.483	136 4¾	5	1692.148	145 9⅞	5	1917.961	155 2⅞
6	1486.173	136 7⅞	6	1698.231	146 1⅛	6	1924.426	155 6
7	1491.870	136 11	7	1704.321	146 4⅛	7	1930.919	155 9¼
8	1497.582	137 2⅛	8	1710.425	146 7¼	8	1937.316	156 ⅛
9	1503.305	137 5¼	9	1716.541	146 10⅜	9	1943.914	156 3½
10	1509.035	137 8⅜	10	1722.663	147 1½	10	1950.439	156 6⅝
11	1514.779	137 11⅝	11	1728.801	147 4⅝	11	1956.969	156 9¾
44 0	1520.534	138 2¾	47 0	1734.947	147 7¾	50 0	1963.5	157 ⅞
1	1526.297	138 5⅞	1	1741.104	147 11	.....	....	....
2	1532.074	138 9	2	1747.274	148 2⅛	.....	....	....
3	1537.862	139 ⅛	3	1753.455	148 5¼	.....	....	....
4	1543.658	139 3¼	4	1759.643	148 8⅜	.....	....	....
5	1549.478	139 6⅜	5	1765.845	148 11½	.....	....	....
6	1555.288	139 9⅝	6	1772.059	149 2⅝	.....	....	....
7	1561.116	140 ¾	7	1778.28	149 5⅞	.....	....	....
8	1566.959	140 3⅞	8	1784.515	149 8⅞	.....	....	....
9	1572.812	140 7½	9	1790.761	150 ⅛	.....	....	....
10	1578.673	140 10⅛	10	1797.015	150 3¼	.....	....	....
11	1584.549	141 1¼	11	1803 283	150 6⅜	.....	....	....
45 0	1590.435	141 4⅜	48 0	1809.562	150 9½	.....	....	....
1	1596.329	141 7½	1	1815.848	151 ⅝	.....	....	....
2	1602.237	141 10¾	2	1822.149	151 3¾	.....	....	....
3	1608.155	142 1⅞	3	1828.460	151 6⅞	.....	....	....
4	1614.082	142 5	4	1834.779	151 10⅛	.....	....	....
5	1620.023	142 8⅛	5	1841.173	152 1¼	.....	....	....
6	1625.974	142 11¼	6	1847.457	152 4⅜	.....	....	....
7	1631.933	143 2⅜	7	1853.809	152 7½	.....	....	....
8	1637.907	143 5½	8	1860.175	152 10⅝	.....	....	....
9	1643.891	143 8¾	9	1866.552	153 1¾	.....	....	....
10	1649.883	143 11⅞	10	1872.937	153 4⅞	.....	....	....
11	1655.889	144 3	11	1879.335	153 8⅛	.....	....	....

Circular Arcs

To find, by the following table, the length of a circular arc when its chord and height, or versed sine is given.

Rule. Divide the height by the chord; find in the column of heights the number equal to this quotient; take out the corresponding number from the column of lengths; and multiply this number by the given chord.

Example. The chord of an arc is 80 and its versed sine is 30. What is the length of the arc?

Solution. 30 ÷ 80 = 0.375. The length of an arc for a height of 0.375 is, from table, 1.34063. 80 × 1.34063 = 107.2504 = length of arc.

Table of Circular Arcs

Hts	Lengths	Hts	Lengths	Hts	Lengths	Hts	Lengths	Hts	Lengths
.001	1.00001	.062	1.01021	.123	1.03987	.184	1.08797	.245	1.15308
.002	1.00001	.063	1.01054	.124	1.04051	.185	1.08890	.246	1.15428
.003	1.00002	.064	1.01088	.125	1.04116	.186	1.08984	.247	1.15549
.004	1.00004	.065	1.01123	.126	1.04181	.187	1.09079	.248	1.15670
.005	1.00007	.066	1.01158	.127	1.04247	.188	1.09174	.249	1.15791
.006	1.00010	.067	1.01193	.128	1.04313	.189	1.09269	.250	1.15912
.007	1.00013	.068	1.01228	.129	1.04380	.190	1.09365	.251	1.16034
.008	1.00017	.069	1.01264	.130	1.04447	.191	1.09461	.252	1.16156
.009	1.00022	.070	1.01301	.131	1.04515	.192	1.09557	.253	1.16279
.010	1.00027	.071	1.01338	.132	1.04584	.193	1.09654	.254	1.16402
.011	1.00032	.072	1.01376	.133	1.04652	.194	1.09752	.255	1.16526
.012	1.00038	.073	1.01414	.134	1.04722	.195	1.09850	.256	1.16650
.013	1.00045	.074	1.01453	.135	1.04792	.196	1.09949	.257	1.16774
.014	1.00053	.075	1.01493	.136	1.04862	.197	1.10048	.258	1.16899
.015	1.00061	.076	1.01533	.137	1.04932	.198	1.10147	.259	1.17024
.016	1.00069	.077	1.01573	.138	1.05003	.199	1.10247	.260	1.17150
.017	1.00078	.078	1.01614	.139	1.05075	.200	1.10347	.261	1.17276
.018	1.00087	.079	1.01656	.140	1.05147	.201	1.10447	.262	1.17403
.019	1.00097	.080	1.01698	.141	1.05220	.202	1.10548	.263	1.17530
.020	1.00107	.081	1.01741	.142	1.05293	.203	1.10650	.264	1.17657
.021	1.00117	.082	1.01784	.143	1.05367	.204	1.10752	.265	1.17784
.022	1.00128	.083	1.01828	.144	1.05441	.205	1.10855	.266	1.17912
.023	1.00140	.084	1.01872	.145	1.05516	.206	1.10958	.267	1.18040
.024	1.00153	.085	1.01916	.146	1.05591	.207	1.11062	.268	1.18169
.025	1.00167	.086	1.01961	.147	1.05667	.208	1.11165	.269	1.18299
.026	1.00182	.087	1.02006	.148	1.05743	.209	1.11269	.270	1.18429
.027	1.00196	.088	1.02052	.149	1.05819	.210	1.11374	.271	1.18559
.028	1.00210	.089	1.02098	.150	1.05896	.211	1.11479	.272	1.18689
.029	1.00225	.090	1.02145	.151	1.05973	.212	1.11584	.273	1.18820
.030	1.00240	.091	1.02192	.152	1.06051	.213	1.11690	.274	1.18951
.031	1.00256	.092	1.02240	.153	1.06130	.214	1.11796	.275	1.19082
.032	1.00272	.093	1.02289	.154	1.06209	.215	1.11904	.276	1.19214
.033	1.00289	.094	1.02339	.155	1.06288	.216	1.12011	.277	1.19346
.034	1.00307	.095	1.02389	.156	1.06368	.217	1.12118	.278	1.19479
.035	1.00327	.096	1.02440	.157	1.06449	.218	1.12225	.279	1.19612
.036	1.00345	.097	1.02491	.158	1.06530	.219	1.12334	.280	1.19746
.037	1.00364	.098	1.02542	.159	1.06611	.220	1.12444	.281	1.19880
.038	1.00384	.099	1.02593	.160	1.06693	.221	1.12554	.282	1.20014
.039	1.00405	.100	1.02645	.161	1.06775	.222	1.12664	.283	1.20149
.040	1.00426	.101	1.02698	.162	1.06858	.223	1.12774	.284	1.20284
.041	1.00447	.102	1.02752	.163	1.06941	.224	1.12885	.285	1.20419
.042	1.00469	.103	1.02806	.164	1.07025	.225	1.12997	.286	1.20555
.043	1.00492	.104	1.02860	.165	1.07109	.226	1.13108	.287	1.20691
.044	1.00515	.105	1.02914	.166	1.07194	.227	1.13219	.288	1.20827
.045	1.00539	.106	1.02970	.167	1.07279	.228	1.13331	.289	1.20964
.046	1.00563	.107	1.03026	.168	1.07365	.229	1.13444	.290	1.21102
.047	1.00587	.108	1.03082	.169	1.07451	.230	1.13557	.291	1.21239
.048	1.00612	.109	1.03139	.170	1.07537	.231	1.13671	.292	1.21377
.049	1.00638	.110	1.03196	.171	1.07624	.232	1.13785	.293	1.21515
.050	1.00665	.111	1.03254	.172	1.07711	.233	1.13900	.294	1.21654
.051	1.00692	.112	1.03312	.173	1.07799	.234	1.14015	.295	1.21794
.052	1.00720	.113	1.03371	.174	1.07888	.235	1.14131	.296	1.21933
.053	1.00748	.114	1.03430	.175	1.07977	.236	1.14247	.297	1.22073
.054	1.00776	.115	1.03490	.176	1.08066	.237	1.14363	.298	1.22213
.055	1.00806	.116	1.03551	.177	1.08156	.238	1.14480	.299	1.22354
.056	1.00834	.117	1.03611	.178	1.08246	.239	1.14597	.300	1.22495
.057	1.00864	.118	1.03672	.179	1.08337	.240	1.14714	.301	1.22636
.058	1.00895	.119	1.03734	.180	1.08428	.241	1.14832	.302	1.22778
.059	1.00926	.120	1.03797	.181	1.08519	.242	1.14951	.303	1.22920
.060	1.00957	.121	1.03860	.182	1.08611	.243	1.15070	.304	1.23063
.061	1.00989	.122	1.03923	.183	1.08704	.244	1.15189	.305	1.23206

Table of Circular Arcs (Continued)

Hts	Lengths	Hts	Lengths	Hts	Lengths	Hts	Lengths	Hts	Lengths
.306	1.23349	.345	1.29209	.384	1.35575	.423	1.42402	.462	1.49651
.307	1.23492	.346	1.29366	.385	1.35744	.424	1.42583	.463	1.49842
.308	1.23636	.347	1.29523	.386	1.35914	.425	1.42764	.464	1.50033
.309	1.23781	.348	1.29681	.387	1.36084	.426	1.42946	.465	1.50224
.310	1.23926	.349	1.29839	.388	1.36254	.427	1.43127	.466	1.50416
.311	1.24070	.350	1.29997	.389	1.36425	.428	1.43309	.467	1.50608
.312	1.24216	.351	1.30156	.390	1.36596	.429	1.43491	.468	1.50800
.313	1.24361	.352	1.30315	.391	1.36767	.430	1.43673	.469	1.50992
.314	1.24507	.353	1.30474	.392	1.36939	.431	1.43856	.470	1.51185
.315	1.24654	.354	1.30634	.393	1.37111	.432	1.44039	.471	1.51378
.316	1.24801	.355	1.30794	.394	1.37283	.433	1.44222	.472	1.51571
.317	1.24948	.356	1.30954	.395	1.37455	.434	1.44405	.473	1.51764
.318	1.25095	.357	1.31115	.396	1.37628	.435	1.44589	.474	1.51958
.319	1.25243	.358	1.31276	.397	1.37801	.436	1.44773	.475	1.52152
.320	1.25391	.359	1.31437	.398	1.37974	.437	1.44957	.476	1.52346
.321	1.25540	.360	1.31599	.399	1.38148	.438	1.45142	.477	1.52541
.322	1.25689	.361	1.31761	.400	1.38322	.439	1.45327	.478	1.52736
.323	1.25838	.362	1.31923	.401	1.38496	.440	1.45512	.479	1.52931
.324	1.25988	.363	1.32086	.402	1.38671	.441	1.45697	.480	1.53126
.325	1.26138	.364	1.32249	.403	1.38846	.442	1.45883	.481	1.53322
.326	1.26288	.365	1.32413	.404	1.39021	.443	1.46069	.482	1.53518
.327	1.26437	.366	1.32577	.405	1.39196	.444	1.46255	.483	1.53714
.328	1.26588	.367	1.32741	.406	1.39372	.445	1.46441	.484	1.53910
.329	1.26740	.368	1.32905	.407	1.39548	.446	1.46628	.485	1.54106
.330	1.26892	.369	1.33069	.408	1.39724	.447	1.46815	.486	1.54302
.331	1.27044	.370	1.33234	.409	1.39900	.448	1.47002	.487	1.54499
.332	1.27196	.371	1.33399	.410	1.40077	.449	1.47189	.488	1.54696
.333	1.27349	.372	1.33564	.411	1.40254	.450	1.47377	.489	1.54893
.334	1.27502	.373	1.33730	.412	1.40432	.451	1.47565	.490	1.55091
.335	1.27656	.374	1.33896	.413	1.40610	.452	1.47753	.491	1.55289
.336	1.27810	.375	1.34063	.414	1.40788	.453	1.47942	.492	1.55487
.337	1.27964	.376	1.34229	.415	1.40966	.454	1.48131	.493	1.55685
.338	1.28118	.377	1.34396	.416	1.41145	.455	1.48320	.494	1.55884
.339	1.28273	.378	1.34563	.417	1.41324	.456	1.48509	.495	1.56083
.340	1.28428	.379	1.34731	.418	1.41503	.457	1.48699	.496	1.56282
.341	1.28583	.380	1.34899	.419	1.41682	.458	1.48889	.497	1.56481
.342	1.28739	.381	1.35068	.420	1.41861	.459	1.49079	.498	1.56681
.343	1.28895	.382	1.35237	.421	1.42041	.460	1.49269	.499	1.56881
.344	1.29052	.383	1.35406	.422	1.42221	.461	1.49460	.500	1.57080

Table of Lengths of Circular Arcs whose Radius is 1

Rule. Knowing the measure of the circle and the measure of the arc in degrees, minutes and seconds; take from the table the lengths opposite the number of degrees, minutes and seconds in the arc, and multiply their sum by the radius of the circle.

Example. What is the length of an arc subtending an angle of 13° 27′ 8″ with a radius of 8 ft.

$$\begin{array}{rl}
\textbf{Solution.}\quad \text{Length for } 13^\circ & = 0.2268928 \\
27' & = 0.0078540 \\
8'' & = \underline{0.0000388} \\
13^\circ\ 27'\ 8'' & = 0.2347856 \\
 & \underline{8} \\
\text{Length of arc} & = 1.8782848 \text{ ft}
\end{array}$$

Lengths of Circular Arcs. Radius = 1

Sec	Length	Min	Length.	Deg	Length	Deg	Length
1	0.0000048	1	0.0002909	1	0.0174533	61	1.0646508
2	0.0000097	2	0.0005818	2	0.0349066	62	1.0821041
3	0.0000145	3	0.0008727	3	0.0523599	63	1.0995574
4	0.0000194	4	0.0011636	4	0.0698132	64	1.1170107
5	0.0000242	5	0.0014544	5	0.0872665	65	1.1344640
6	0.0000291	6	0.0017453	6	0.1047198	66	1.1519173
7	0.0000339	7	0.0020362	7	0.1221730	67	1.1693706
8	0.0000388	8	0.0023271	8	0.1396263	68	1.1868239
9	0.0000436	9	0.0026180	9	0.1570796	69	1.2042772
10	0.0000485	10	0.0029089	10	0.1745329	70	1.2217305
11	0.0000533	11	0.0031998	11	0.1919862	71	1.2391838
12	0.0000582	12	0.0034907	12	0.2094395	72	1.2566371
13	0.0000630	13	0.0037815	13	0.2268928	73	1.2740904
14	0.0000679	14	0.0040724	14	0.2443461	74	1.2915436
15	0.0000727	15	0.0043633	15	0.2617994	75	1.3089969
16	0.0000776	16	0.0046542	16	0.2792527	76	1.3264502
17	0.0000824	17	0.0049451	17	0.2967060	77	1.3439035
18	0.0000873	18	0.0052360	18	0.3141593	78	1.3613568
19	0.0000921	19	0.0055269	19	0.3316126	79	1.3788101
20	0.0000970	20	0.0058178	20	0.3490659	80	1.3962634
21	0.0001018	21	0.0061087	21	0.3665191	81	1.4137167
22	0.0001067	22	0.0063995	22	0.3839724	82	1.4311700
23	0.0001115	23	0.0066904	23	0.4014257	83	1.4486233
24	0.0001164	24	0.0069813	24	0.4188790	84	1.4660766
25	0.0001212	25	0.0072722	25	0.4363323	85	1.4835299
26	0.0001261	26	0.0075631	26	0.4537856	86	1.5009832
27	0.0001309	27	0.0078540	27	0.4712389	87	1.5184364
28	0.0001357	28	0.0081449	28	0.4886922	88	1.5358897
29	0.0001406	29	0.0084358	29	0.5061455	89	1.5533430
30	0.0001454	30	0.0087266	30	0.5235988	90	1.5707963
31	0.0001503	31	0.0090175	31	0.5410521	91	1.5882496
32	0.0001551	32	0.0093084	32	0.5585054	92	1.6057029
33	0.0001600	33	0.0095993	33	0.5759587	93	1.6231562
34	0.0001648	34	0.0098902	34	0.5934119	94	1.6406095
35	0.0001697	35	0.0101811	35	0.6108652	95	1.6580628
36	0.0001745	36	0.0104720	36	0.6283185	96	1.6755161
37	0.0001794	37	0.0107629	37	0.6457718	97	1.6929694
38	0.0001842	38	0.0110538	38	0.6632251	98	1.7104227
39	0.0001891	39	0.0113446	39	0.6806784	99	1.7278760
40	0.0001939	40	0.0116355	40	0.6981317	100	1.7453293
41	0.0001988	41	0.0119264	41	0.7155850	101	1.7627825
42	0.0002036	42	0.0122173	42	0.7330383	102	1.7802358
43	0.0002085	43	0.0125082	43	0.7504916	103	1.7976891
44	0.0002133	44	0.0127991	44	0.7679449	104	1.8151424
45	0.0002182	45	0.0130900	45	0.7853982	105	1.8325957
46	0.0002230	46	0.0133809	46	0.8028515	106	1.8500490
47	0.0002279	47	0.0136717	47	0.8203047	107	1.8675023
48	0.0002327	48	0.0139626	48	0.8377580	108	1.8849556
49	0.0002376	49	0.0142535	49	0.8552113	109	1.9024089
50	0.0002424	50	0.0145444	50	0.8726646	110	1.9198622
51	0.0002473	51	0.0148353	51	0.8901179	111	1.9373155
52	0.0002521	52	0.0151262	52	0.9075712	112	1.9547688
53	0.0002570	53	0.0154171	53	0.9250245	113	1.9722221
54	0.0002618	54	0.0157080	54	0.9424778	114	1.9896753
55	0.0002666	55	0.0159989	55	0.9599311	115	2.0071286
56	0.0002715	56	0.0162897	56	0.9773844	116	2.0245819
57	0.0002763	57	0.0165806	57	0.9948377	117	2.0420352
58	0.0002812	58	0.0168715	58	1.0122910	118	2.0594885
59	0.0002860	59	0.0171624	59	1.0297443	119	2.0769418
60	0.0002909	60	0.0174533	60	1.0471976	120	2.0943951

To compute the chord of an arc when the chord of half the arc and the versed sine are given.

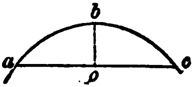

Fig. 32. Circular Arc, Chord and Rise

(The versed sine is the perpendicular *bo*, Fig. 32.)

Rule. From the square of the chord of half the arc subtract the square of the versed sine, and take twice the square root of the remainder.

Example. The chord of half the arc is 60, and the versed sine 36. What is the length of the chord of the arc?

Solution. $60^2 - 36^2 = 2\,304$; $\sqrt{2\,304} = 48$; and $48 \times 2 = 96$, the chord.

To compute the chord of an arc when the diameter and versed sine are given.

Multiply the versed sine by 2 and subtract the product from the diameter; then subtract the square of the remainder from the square of the diameter and take the square root of that remainder.

Example. The diameter of a circle is 100 and the versed sine of an arc 36. What is the chord of the arc?

Solution. $36 \times 2 = 72$; $100 - 72 = 28$; $100^2 - 28^2 = 9\,216$; $\sqrt{9\,216} = 96$, the chord of the arc.

To compute the chord of half an arc when the chord of the arc and the versed sine are given.

Rule. Take the square root of the sum of the squares of the versed sine and of half the chord of the arc.

Example. The chord of an arc is 96 and the versed sine 36. What is the chord of half the arc?

Solution. $\sqrt{36^2 + 48^2} = 60$.

To compute the chord of half an arc when the diameter and versed sine are given.

Rule. Multiply the diameter by the versed sine and take the square root of their product.

To compute a diameter.

Rule 1. Divide the square of the chord of half the arc by the versed sine.

Rule 2. Add the square of half the chord of the arc to the square of the versed sine and divide this sum by the versed sine.

Example. What is the radius of an arc whose chord is 96 and whose versed sine is 36?

Solution. $48^2 + 36^2 = 3\,600$; $3\,600 \div 36 = 100$, the diameter; and the radius $= 50$.

To compute the versed sine.

Rule. Divide the square of the chord of half the arc by the diameter.

To compute the versed sine when the chord of the arc and the diameter are given.

Rule. From the square of the diameter subtract the square of the chord and extract the square root of the remainder; subtract this root from the diameter and halve the remainder.

To compute the length of an arc of a circle when the number of degrees and the radius are given.

Rule 1. Multiply the number of degrees in the arc by 3.1416 multiplied by the radius and divide by 180. The result will be the length of the arc in the same unit as the radius.

Rule 2. Multiply the radius of the circle by 0.01745 and the product by the degrees in the arc.

Example. The number of degrees in an arc is 60 and the radius is 10 in. What is the length of the arc in inches?

Solution. 10 × 3.1416 × 60 = 1884.96; and 1884.96 ÷ 180 = 10.47 in. Or, 10 × 0.01745 × 60 = 10.47 in.

To compute the length of the arc of a circle when the length is given in degrees, minutes and seconds.

Rule. (1) Multiply the number of degrees by 0.01745329 and the product by the radius. (2) Multiply the number of minutes by 0.00029 and that product by the radius. (3) Multiply the number of seconds by 0.0000048 times the radius. (4) Add together these three results for the length of the arc. (See also, table, page 57.)

Example. What is the length of an arc of 60° 10′ 5″, the radius being 4 ft?

Solution. (1) $60° \times 0.01745329 \times 4 = 4.188789$ ft
(2) $10' \times 0.00029 \times 4 = 0.0116$ ft
(3) $5'' \times 0.0000048 \times 4 = \underline{0.000096}$ ft
(4) The length of the arc = 4.200485 ft

To compute the area of a sector of a circle when the degrees of the arc and the radius are given (Fig. 33).

(The degrees of the arc are the same as the angle *aob*.)

Rule. Multiply the number of degrees in the arc by the area of the whole circle and divide by 360.

Example. What is the area of a sector of a circle whose radius is 5 and length of arc 60°?

Solution. Area of circle = 10 × 10 × 0.7854 = 78.54

Hence, area of sector $= \dfrac{78.5 \times 60}{360} = 13.09$

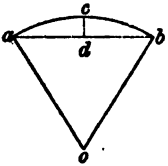

Fig. 33. Sector of Circle

Note. If the length of the arc is given in degrees and minutes, reduce it to minutes, multiply by the area of the whole circle and divide by 21 600.

To compute the area of a sector of a circle when the length of the arc and radius are given.

Rule. Multiply the length of the arc by half the length of the radius. The product is the area.

To compute the area of a segment of a circle when the chord and versed sine of the arc and the radius or diameter of the circle are given.

(The versed sine is the distance *cd*, Fig. 33.)

Rule 1. When the segment is less than a semicircle. (1) Find the area of the sector having the same arc as the segment. (2) Find the area of a triangle formed by the chord of the segment and the radii of the sector. (3) Take the difference of these areas.

Rule 2. When the segment is greater than a semicircle. Find, by the preceding rule, the area of the lesser portion of the circle and subtract it from the area of the whole circle. The remainder will be the area.

To compute the area of the surface of a sphere.

Rule. Multiply the diameter by the circumference. The product will be the area of the surface.

Example. What is the area of the surface of a sphere 10 in in diameter?

Solution. Circumference of sphere = $10 \times 3.1416 = 31.416$ in; $10 \times 31.416 = 314.16$ sq in, the area of surface of sphere.

To compute the total area of the surface of a segment of a sphere.

Rule. Multiply the height (*bc*, Fig. 34) by the circumference of the sphere and add the product to the area of the base.

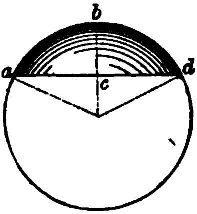

Fig. 34.
Segment of Sphere

To find the area of the base, having the diameter of the sphere and the length of the versed sine of the arc *abd*, find the length of the chord *ad* by the rule on page 58. Having, then, the length of the chord *ad* for the diameter of the base, find the area of the base.

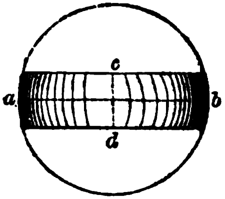

Fig. 35.
Zone of Sphere

Example. The height, *bc*, of a segment *abd*, is 36 in, and the diameter of the sphere is 100 in (Fig. 34). What is the area of the convex surface and the area of the whole surface?

Solution. $100 \times 3.1416 = 314.16$ in, the circumference of sphere
$36 \times 314.16 = 11309.76$ sq in, the area of the convex surface
$100 - (36 \times 2) = 28$
$\sqrt{100^2 - 28^2} = 96$, the chord *ad*
$96^2 \times 0.7854 = 7238.2464$ sq in, the area of the base
$11309.76 + 7238.2464 = 18548.0064$ sq in, the total area

To compute the total area of the surface of a spherical zone.

Rule. Multiply the height, *cd* (Fig. 35), by the circumference of the sphere for the convex surface and add to it the area of the two ends for the total area.

Spheroids, or Ellipsoids

Definition. Spheroids, or ellipsoids, are figures generated by the revolution of a semiellipse about one of its diameters.

When the revolution is about the long diameter, they are PROLATE; and when it is about the short diameter, they are OBLATE.

A PROLATE SPHEROID is approximately cigar-shaped and an OBLATE SPHEROID is, in form, somewhat like a watch.

To compute the area of the surface of a spheroid.

Let $a = \frac{1}{2}$ the long axis; let $b = \frac{1}{2}$ the short axis;

let
$$\frac{a^2 - b^2}{a^2} = e^2 \quad \text{or} \quad e = \sqrt{\frac{a^2 - b^2}{a^2}}$$

Then, the area of the SURFACE OF THE OBLATE SPHEROID

$$= 2\pi a^2 + \frac{\pi b^2}{e} \log\left(\frac{1+e}{1-e}\right)$$

and the area of the SURFACE OF THE PROLATE SPHEROID

$$= 2\pi b^2 + 2\pi ab \frac{\sin^{-1} e}{e}$$

In the first formula, NATURAL LOGARITHMS must be used. The natural logarithm may be obtained by multiplying the common logarithm by 2.302. The value of the expression $\sin^{-1} e$ may be determined by finding the angle whose natural sine is equal to e and dividing this angle by 57.3.

Note. · Although the above formulas are complicated, no simpler rules that give correct results can be given.

To compute the area of the surface of a cylinder.

Rule. Multiply the length of the cylinder by the circumference of one of the ends and add to the product the areas of the two ends.

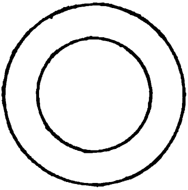

Fig. 36. Circular Ring

To compute the area of a circular ring (Fig. 36).

Rule. Find the area of both circles and subtract the area of the smaller from the area of the larger; the remainder will be the area of the ring.

To compute the area of the surface of a cone.

Rule. Multiply the circumference of the base by one-half the slant-height or side of the cone, for the convex area. Add to this the area of the base, for the whole area.

Example. The diameter of the base of a cone is 3 in and the slant-height 15 in. What is the area of the surface of the cone?

Solution. 3 × 3.1416 = 9.4248 = circumference of base
9.4248 × 7½ = 70.686 sq in = area of convex surface
3 × 3 × 0.7854 = 7.068 sq in = area of base
Area of entire surface of cone = 77.754 sq in

To compute the area of the surface of the frustum of a cone (Fig. 37).

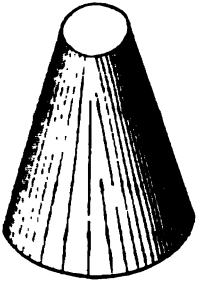

Fig. 37. Frustum of Cone

Rule. Multiply the sum of the circumferences of the two ends by the slant-height of the frustum and divide by 2, for the area of the convex surface. Add the areas of the two ends.

To compute the area of the surface of a pyramid.

Rule. Multiply the perimeter of the base by one-half the slant-height and add to the product the area of the base.

To compute the area of the surface of the frustum of a pyramid.

Rule. Multiply the sum of the perimeters of the two ends by the slant-height of the frustum, halve the product, and add to the result the areas of the two ends.

Mensuration of Solids

To compute the volume of a prism. (See page 38 for definition of a prism.)

Rule. Multiply the area of the base or end by the altitude or perpendicular height.

This rule applies to prisms with bases or ends of any shape, as long as these bases or ends are parallel.

To compute the volume of a prismoid.

Definition. A prismoid is a solid with parallel but unequal ends or bases and with quadrilateral sides.

Rule. To the sum of the areas of the two ends or bases add four times the area of the middle section parallel to them, and multiply this sum by one-sixth of the altitude or perpendicular height.

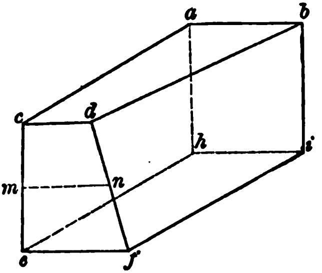

Fig. 38. Quadrangular Prismoid

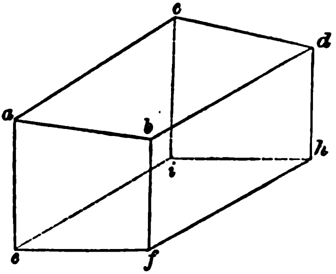

Fig. 39. Prism Truncated Obliquely

Example. What is the volume of a quadrangular prismoid, as Fig. 38, in which *ab* = 6 in, *cd* = 4 in, *ac* = *he* = 10 in, *ce* = 8 in, *ef* = 8 in and *ih* = 6 in?

Solution. Area of top $= \frac{6+4}{2} \times 10 = 50$ sq in

Area of bottom $= \frac{8+6}{2} \times 10 = 70$ sq in

Area of middle section $= \frac{6+6}{2} \times 10 = 60$ sq in

$[50 + 70 + (4 \times 60)] \times \frac{1}{6} = 480$ cu in

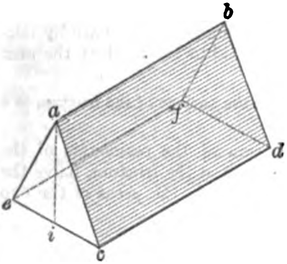

Fig. 40. Wedge or Right Triangular Prism

Note. The length of the end of the middle section (as at *mn*, in Fig. 38) $= \frac{cd + ef}{2}$

To find the volume of a prism truncated obliquely.

Rule. Multiply the area of the base by the average height of the edges.

Example. What is the volume of a truncated prism (Fig. 39) in which *ef* = 6 in, *fh* = 10 in, *ea* = 10 in, *ci* = 12 in, *dh* = 10 in and *fb* = 8 in?

Solution. Area of base $= 6 \times 10 = 60$ sq in

Average height of edges $= \frac{10 + 12 + 8 + 10}{4} = 10$ in

$60 \times 10 = 600$ cu in

To compute the volume of a wedge or right triangular prism when the ends are parallel and equal.

Rule. Multiply the area of one end by the length of the wedge.

To compute the volume of a wedge when the ends are not parallel.

Rule. Add together the lengths of the three edges, *ab*, *cd* and *ef* (Fig. 40); multiply their sum by the altitude or perpendicular height of the wedge, and then by the breadth of the back, and divide the product by 6.

Regular Polyhedrons

Definition. A regular polyhedron is a solid contained within a certain number of similar and equal plane faces, all of which are equal regular polygons. The following is a list of all the regular polyhedrons:

(1) The TETRAHEDRON, or pyramid.
(2) The HEXAHEDRON, or cube, which has six square faces.
(3) The OCTAHEDRON, which has eight triangular faces.
(4) The DODECAHEDRON, which has twelve pentagonal faces.
(5) The ICOSAHEDRON, which has twenty triangular faces.

To compute the volume of a regular polyhedron.

Rule 1. When the radius of the circumscribing sphere is given. Multiply the cube of the radius of the sphere by the multiplier opposite to the polyhedron in column 2 of the following table.

Rule 2. When the radius of the inscribed sphere is given. Multiply the cube of the radius of the inscribed sphere by the multiplier opposite to the polyhedron in column 3 of the table.

Rule 3. When the area of the surface of the polyhedron is given. Cube the surface given, extract the square root, and multiply the root by the multiplier opposite to the polyhedron in column 4 of the table.

Table of Factors for Determining the Volumes of Regular Polyhedrons

Figure	1 Number of sides	2 Factor for volume by radius of circumscribing sphere	3 Factor for volume by radius of inscribed circle	4 Factor for volume by surface
Tetrahedron	4	0.5132	13.85641	0.0517
Hexahedron	6	1.5396	8.0000	0.06804
Octahedron	8	1.33333	6.9282	0.07311
Dodecahedron	12	2.78517	5.55029	0.08169
Icosahedron	20	2.53615	5.05406	0.0856

To compute the volume of a cylinder.

Rule. Multiply the area of the base by the altitude or length.

To compute the volume of a cone.

Rule. Multiply the area of the base by one-third the altitude.

To compute the volume of the frustum of a cone (Fig. 41).

Rule. Add together the squares of the diameters of the two ends or bases and the product of the two diameters; multiply this sum by 0.7854, and this product by the altitude, and then divide this last product by 3.

Example. What is the volume of a frustum of a cone 9 in in height, 5 in in diameter at the base and 3 in in diameter at the top?

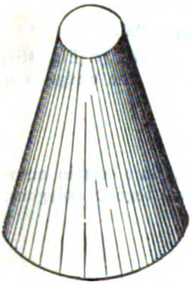

Fig. 41. Frustum of Cone

Solution. $5^2 + 3^2 = 34$. $3 \times 5 = 15$. $15 + 34 = 49$, the sum of the squares of the two diameters added to the product of the diameters of the ends. $49 \times 0.7854 = 38.4846$.

$$\frac{38.4846 \times 9}{3} = 115.4538 \text{ cu in}$$

To compute the volume of a pyramid.

Rule. Multiply the area of the base by the altitude or perpendicular height, and take one-third of the product.

To compute the volume of the frustum of a pyramid.

Rule. Find the height that the pyramid would be if the top were put on, and then compute the volume of the completed pyramid and the volume of the part added; subtract the latter from the former, and the remainder will be the volume of the frustum.

To compute the volume of a sphere.

Rule. Multiply the cube of the diameter by 0.5236.

To compute the volume of a segment of a sphere.

Rule 1. To three times the square of the radius of its base add the square of its height; multiply this sum by the height and the product by 0.5236.

Rule 2. From three times the diameter of the sphere subtract twice the height of the segment; multiply this remainder by the square of the height and the product by 0.5236.

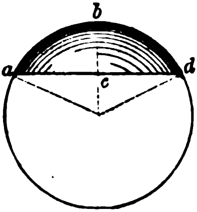

Fig. 42. Segment of Sphere

Example. The segment of a sphere has a radius, *ac* (Fig. 42), of 7 in for its base, and a height, *cb*, of 4 in: what is its volume?

Solution. (By Rule 1.) $3 \times 7^2 = 147$, and $147 + 4^2 = 163$, or three times the square of the radius of the base plus the square of the height. $163 \times 4 \times 0.5236 = 341.3872$ cu in = the volume of the segment.

Second Solution. By the rule for finding the diameter of a circle when a chord and its versed sine are given, we find that the diameter of the sphere in this case is 16.25 in; then, by Rule 2, $(3 \times 16.25) - (2 \times 4) = 40.75$; and $40.75 \times 4^2 \times 0.5236 = 341.3872$ cu in, the volume of the segment.

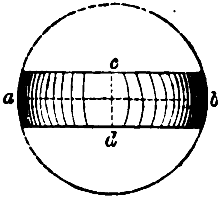

Fig. 43. Zone of Sphere

To compute the volume of a spherical zone.

Definition. The part of a sphere included between two parallel planes (Fig. 43).

Rule. To the sum of the squares of the radii of the two ends add one-third of the square of the height of the zone; multiply this sum by the height and that product by 1.5708.

To compute the volume of a prolate spheroid. (See page 60.)

Rule. Multiply the square of the short axis by the long axis and this product by 0.5236.

To compute the volume of an oblate spheroid.

Rule. Multiply the square of the long axis by the short axis and this product by 0.5236.

To compute the volume of a paraboloid of revolution (Fig. 44).

Rule. Multiply the area of the base by half the altitude.

To compute the volume of a hyperboloid of revolution (Fig. 45).

Rule. To the square of the radius of the base add the square of the middle diameter; multiply this sum by the height and the product by 0.5236.

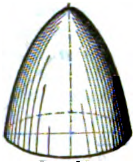

Fig. 44. Paraboloid of Revolution

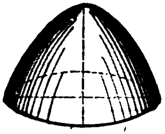

Fig. 45. Hyperboloid of Revolution

To compute the volume of any figure of revolution.

Rule. Multiply the area of the generating surface by the circumference described by its center of gravity.

To compute the volume of an excavation, where the ground is irregular and the bottom of the excavation is level (Fig. 46).

Rule. Divide the surface of the ground to be excavated unto equal squares of about 10 ft on a side, and ascertain by means of a level the height of each corner, *a*, *a*, *a*, *b*, *b*, *b*, etc., above the level to which the ground is to be excavated. Then add together the heights of all the corners that come in one square only. Next take twice the sum of the heights of all the corners that come in two squares, as *b*, *b*, *b*; next three times the sum of the heights of all the corners that come in three squares, as *c*, *c*, *c*; and then four times the sum of the heights of all the corners that belong to four squares, as *d*, *d*, *d*, etc. Add together all these quantities, and multiply their sum by one-fourth the area of one of the squares. The result will be the volume of the excavation.

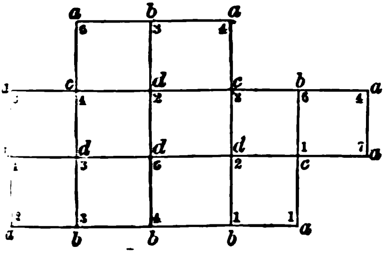

Fig. 46. Plan of Excavation

Example. Let the plan of an excavation for a cellar be as shown in Fig. 46, and the heights of each corner above the proposed bottom of the cellar be as given by the numbers in the figure. Then the volume of the cellar will be as follows, the area of each square being 10 × 10 = 100 sq ft:

Volume = $\frac{1}{4}$ of 100 (a's + 2 b's + 3 c's + 4 d's)

The a's in this case = $4+6+3+2+1+7+4$ = 27

2 × the sum of the b's = $2\times(3+6+1+4+3+4)$ = 42

3 × the sum of the c's = $3\times(1+3+4)$ = 24

4 × the sum of the d's = $4\times(2+3+6+2)$ = 52

145

Volume = 25 × 145 = 3 625 cu ft, the quantity of earth to be excavated.

4. GEOMETRICAL PROBLEMS

Problem 1. To bisect, or divide into equal parts, a given line, ab (Fig. 47).

From *a* and *b*, with any radius greater than half of *ab*, describe arcs intersecting in *c* and *d*. The line *cd*, connecting these intersections, will bisect *ab* and be perpendicular to it.

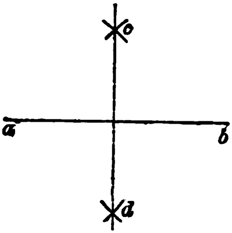

Fig. 47. Line Bisected

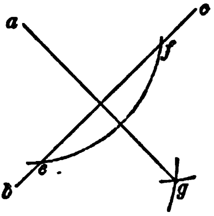

Fig. 48. Perpendicular from Point to Given Line

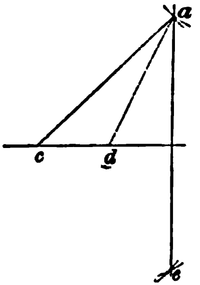

Fig. 49. Perpendicular from Point to Given Line

Problem 2. To draw a perpendicular to a given straight line from a point without it.

First Method (Fig. 48). From the point *a* describe an arc cutting the line *bc* in two places, as *e* and *f*. From *e* and *f* describe two arcs, with the same radius, intersecting in *g*; then a line drawn from *a* to *g* is perpendicular to the line *bc*.

Second Method (Fig. 49). From any two points, *d* and *c*, at some distance apart in the given line, and with radii *da* and *ca* respectively, describe arc cutting at *a* and *e*. Draw *ae*, which is the perpendicular reequired. This method is useful where the given point is opposite the end of the line, or nearly so.

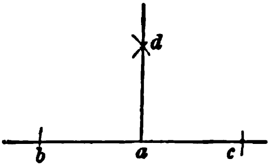

Fig. 50. Perpendicular from Point in Given Line

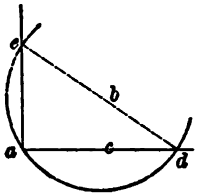

Fig. 51. Perpendicular from Extremity of Given Line

Problem 3. To draw a perpendicular to a straight line from a given point, a, in that line.

First Method (Fig. 50). With any radius, from the given point *a* in the line, describe arcs cutting the line in the points *b* and *c*. Then with *b* and *c* as centers, and with any radius greater than *ab* or *ac*, describe arcs cutting each other at *d*. The line *da* is the perpendicular required.

Second Method (Fig. 51), when the given point is at the end of the line. From any point, *b*, outside of the line, and with a radius *ba*, describe a semicircle passing through *a* and cutting the given line at *d*. Through *b* and *d* draw a straight line intersecting the semicircle at *e*. The line *ea* will then be perpendicular to the line *ac* at the point *a*.

Third Method (Fig. 52), or the 3, 4 and 5 Method. From the point *a* on the given line measure off 4 in, or 4 ft, or 4 of any other unit and with the same unit of measure describe an arc, with *a* as a center and 3 units as a radius. Then from *b* describe an arc with a radius of 5 units, cutting the first arc in *c*. Then *ca* is the perpendicular required. This method is particularly useful in laying out a right angle on the ground, or framing a house where the foot is used as the unit and the lines are laid off by the straight-edge.

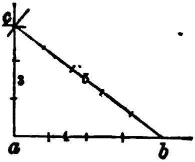

Fig. 52. Perpendicular from Extremity of Given Line

In laying out a right angle on the ground, the proportions of the triangle may be 30, 40 and 50, or any other multiple of 3, 4 and 5; and it can best be laid out with the tape. Thus, first measure off, say 40 feet from *a* (Fig. 52) on the given line; then let one person hold the end of the tape at *b*, another hold the tape at the 80-ft mark at *a*, and a third person take hold of the tape at the 50-ft mark, with his thumb and finger, and pull the tape taut. The 50-ft mark will then be at the point *c* in the line of the perpendicular.

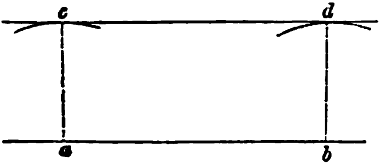

Fig. 53. Straight Line Parallel to Given Line

Problem 4. To draw a straight line parallel to a given line at a given distance away (Fig. 53).

From any two points near the ends of the given line describe two arcs about opposite the given line. Draw the line *cd* tangent to these arcs and it will be parallel to *ab*.

Problem 5. To construct an angle equal to a given angle (Fig. 54).

With the point *A*, at the apex of the given angle, as a center, and any radius, describe the arc *BC*. With the point *a*, at the vertex of the new angle, as a center, and with the same radius as before, describe an arc, as *BC*. With *BC* as a radius and *b* as a center, describe an arc cutting the other arc at *c*. Then will *cab* be equal to the given angle *CAB*.

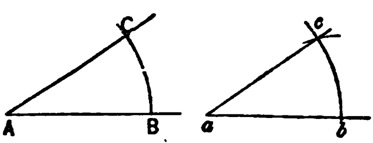

Fig. 54. Angle Equal to Given Angle

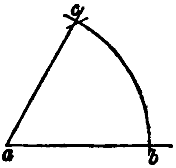

Fig. 55. Angle of 60°

Problem 6. From a point on a given line to draw a line making an angle of 60° with the given line (Fig. 55).

Take any distance, as *ab*, as a radius, and with *a* as a center, describe the arc *bc*. With *b* as a center and with the same radius, describe an arc cutting the first one at *c*. Draw from *a* a line through *c*, and it will make with *ab* an angle of 60°.

Problem 7. From a given point, A, on a given line, AE, to draw a line making an angle 45° with the given line (Fig. 56).

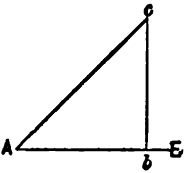

Fig. 56. Angle of 45°

Measure off from *A*, on *AE*, any distance, *Ab*, and at *b* draw a line perpendicular to *AE*. Measure off on this perpendicular *bc* equal to *Ab* and draw a line from *A* through *c*. This line *Ac* will make an angle of 45° with *AE*.

Problem 8. From any point, A, on a given line, to draw a line which will make any desired angle with the given line (Fig. 57).

To solve this problem the tables of chords on pages 81 to 89 are used. Find in the table the length of chord to a radius 1, for the given angle. Then take any radius, as large as convenient and describe an arc of a circle *bc*, with *A* as a center. Multiply the chord of the angle, found in the table, by the length of the radius *Ab*, and with the product as a new radius and with *b* as a center, describe a short arc cutting *bc* in *d*. Draw a line from *A* through *d* and it will make the required angle with *DE*.

Example. Draw a line from *A* on *DE*, making an angle of 44° 40′ with *DE* (Fig. 57).

Solution. The largest convenient radius for the arc is 8 in. With *A* as a center and 8 in as a radius, describe the arc *bc*. In the table of chords, the chord for an angle or arc of 44° 40′ to a radius 1 is 0.76. Multiplying this by 8 in, the length of the new radius is 6.08 in; and with this as radius and with *b* as a center, describe an arc cutting *bc* in *d*. *Ad* will be the line required.

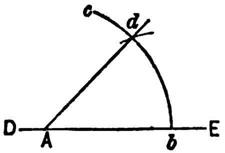

Fig. 57. Line Making Any Angle with Given Line

Problem 8a. To lay off a given angle approximately, by means of an ordinary two-foot rule.

Tables of Angles Corresponding to Openings of a Two-Foot Rule *

In.	Deg.	Min.	In.	Deg.	Min.	In.	Deg.	Min.	In.	Deg.	Min.	In.	Deg.	Min.
¼	1	12	...	11	22	4½	21	37	...	32	3	8¾	42	46
..	1	48	2½	11	58	...	22	13	6¾	32	40	...	43	24
½	2	24	...	12	34	¾	22	50	...	33	17	9	44	3
..	3	00	¾	13	10	...	23	27	7	33	54	...	44	42
¾	3	36	...	13	46	5	24	3	...	34	33	¼	45	21
..	4	11	3	14	22	...	24	39	¼	35	10	...	45	59
1	4	47	...	14	58	¼	25	16	...	35	47	½	46	38
..	5	23	¼	15	34	...	25	53	½	36	25	...	47	17
¼	5	58	...	16	10	½	26	30	...	37	3	¾	47	56
..	6	34	½	16	46	...	27	7	¾	37	41	...	48	35
½	7	10	...	17	22	¾	27	44	...	38	19	10	49	15
..	7	46	¾	17	59	...	28	21	8	38	57	...	49	54
¾	8	22	...	18	35	6	28	58	...	39	35	¼	50	34
...	8	58	4	19	12	...	29	35	¼	40	13	...	51	13
2	9	34	...	19	48	¼	30	11	...	40	51	½	51	53
...	10	10	¼	20	24	...	30	49	½	41	29	...	52	33
¼	10	46	...	21	00	½	31	26	...	42	7	...	....	

* Trautwine.

Lay one leg of the rule on the paper or board with its inner edge coinciding with the given line. Open the rule until the distance between the inner edges at the ends correspond with that given for the angle in the following table; then draw a line by marking along the inner edge of the other leg, and it will give the desired angle within a very close approximation.

Problem 9. To bisect a given angle, as BAC (Fig. 58).

With *A* as a center and any radius, describe an arc, as *cb*. With *c* and *b* as centers, and any radius greater than one-half of *cb*, describe two arcs, intersecting in *d*. Draw from *A* a line through *d* and it will bisect the angle *BAC*.

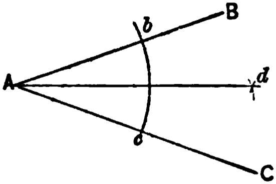

Fig. 58. Angle Bisected

Problem 10. To bisect the angle included between two lines, as AB and CD, when the vertex of the angle is not on the drawing (Fig. 59).

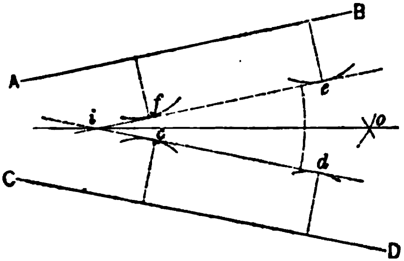

Fig. 59. Angle Bisected. Angle not on Drawing

Draw *fe* parallel to *AB* and *cd* parallel to *CD*, so that the two lines intersect, as at *i*. Bisect the angle *eid*, as in the preceding problem, and draw a line through *i* and *o* which will bisect the angle between the two given lines.

Problem 11. Through two given points, B and C, to describe an arc of a circle with a given radius (Fig. 60).

With *B* and *C* as centers and with a radius equal to the given radius, describe two arcs intersecting at *A*. With *A* as a center and the same radius, describe the arc *bc*, which will pass through the given points, *B* and *C*.

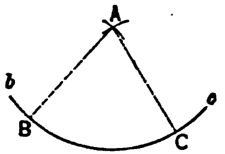

Fig. 60. Circular Arc Through Two Given Points

Problem 12. To find the center of a given circle (Fig. 61).

Draw any chord in the circle, as *ab*, and bisect this chord by the perpendicular *cd*. This line will pass through the center of the circle and *ef* will be a diameter of the circle. Bisect *ef*, and the center *o* will be the center of the circle.

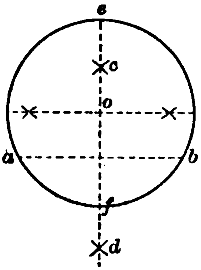

Fig. 61. Center of Given Circle

Problem 13. To draw a circular arc through three given points, as A, B and C (Fig. 62).

Draw lines from *A* to *B* and from *B* to *C*. Bisect *AB* and *BC* by the lines *aa* and *cc* and prolong these lines until they intersect at *o*, which will be the center for the arc sought. With *o* as a center and *Ao* as a radius, describe the arc *ABC*.

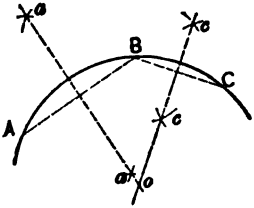

Fig. 62. Circular Arc Through Three Given Points

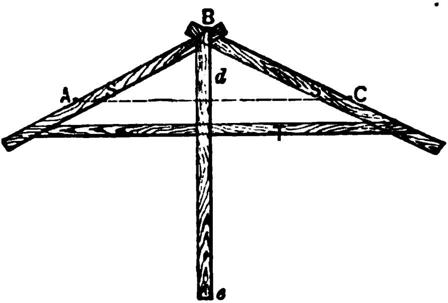

Fig. 63. Frame for Drawing Circular Arc

Problem 14. To describe a circular arc passing through three given points when the center is not available, by means of a triangle (Fig. 63).

Let *A*, *B* and *C* be the given points. Insert two stiff pins or nails at *A* and *C*. Place two strips of wood, *SS*, as shown in the figure, one against *A*, the other against *C*, and inclined so that their intersection shall come at the third point, *B*. Fasten the strips together at their intersection and nail a third strip, *T*, to their other ends, so as to make a firm triangle. Place the pencil-point at *B*, and, keeping the edges of the triangle against *A* and *C*, move the triangle to the left and right. The pencil-point will describe the required arc.

When the points *A* and *C* are at the same distance from *B*, if a strip of wood is nailed to the triangle, so that its edge *de* is at right-angles to a line joining *A* and *C*, as the triangle is moved one way or the other, the edge *de* will always point to the center of the circle. This principle is used in linear perspective.

Problem 15. To describe a circular arc which will be tangent at a given point, A, to a straight line, and pass through a given point, C, outside the line (Fig. 64).

Draw from *A* a line perpendicular to the given line. Connect *A* and *C* by a straight line and bisect this line by the perpendicular *ac*. The point where these two perpendiculars intersect is the center of the circle.

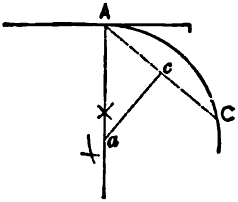

Fig. 64. Circular Arc Tangent to Line at Given Point

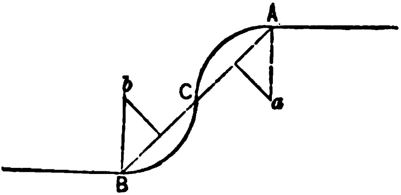

Fig. 65. Reversed Curve Between Parallel Lines

Problem 16. To connect two parallel lines by a reversed curve composed of two circular arcs of equal radius, and tangent to the lines at given points, as A and B (Fig. 65).

Join *A* and *B* and divide the line into two equal parts at *C*. Bisect *CA* and *CB* by perpendiculars. At *A* and *B* erect perpendiculars to the given lines, and the intersections *a* and *b* will be the centers of the arcs composing the required curve.

Problem 17. On a given line, as AB (Fig. 66), to construct a compound curve of three arcs of circles, the radii of the two side arcs being equal and of a given length, and their centers being in the given line. The central arc is to pass through a given point, C, on the perpendicular bisecting the given line, and is to be tangent to the other two arcs.

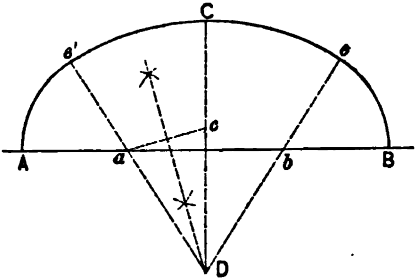

Fig. 66. Curve of Three Circular Arcs

Draw the perpendicular *CD*. Lay off *Aa*, *Bb* and *Cc*, each equal to the given radius of the side arcs; draw *ac*; bisect *ac* by a perpendicular. The intersection of this line with the perpendicular *CD* is the required center of the central arc. Through *a* and *b* draw the lines *Dc* and *De'*; from *a* and *b*, with the given radius, equal to *Aa*, *Bb*, describe the arcs *Ae'* and *Be*; from *D* as a center, and with *CD* as a radius, describe the arc *eCe'* which completes the curve required.

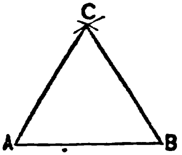

Fig. 67. Equilateral Triangle on Given Base

Problem 18. To construct a triangle upon a given straight line or base, the length of the two sides being given (Figs. 67 and 68).

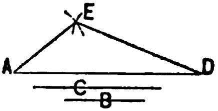

Fig. 68. Scalene Triangle on Given Base

First. An equilateral triangle (Fig. 67). With the extremities *A* and *B* of the given line as centers and with *AB* as a radius, describe arcs cutting each other at *C*. Join *AC* and *BC*.

Second. A scalene triangle (Fig. 68). Let *AD* be the given base and the other two sides be equal to *C* and *B*. With *D* as a center, and with a radius equal to *C*, describe at *E* an arc of indefinite length. With *A* as a center and with *B* as a radius, describe an arc cutting the first at *E*. Join *E* with *A* and *D*. *ADE* is the required triangle.

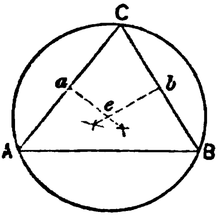

Fig. 69. Triangle and Circumscribed Circle

Problem 19. To describe a circle about a triangle (Fig. 69).

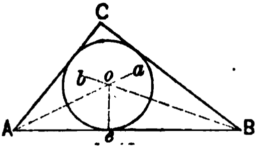

Fig. 70. Triangle and Inscribed Circle

Bisect two of the sides, as *AC* and *CB*, of the triangle, and at their centers, erect perpendicular lines, as *ae* and *be*, intersecting at *e*. With *e* as a center, and *eC* as a radius, describe a circle. It will pass through *A* and *B*.

Problem 20. To inscribe a circle in a triangle (Fig. 70).

Bisect two of the angles, *A* and *B*, of the triangle by lines cutting each other at *o*. With *o* as a center, and with *oe* as a radius, describe a circle. It will be tangent to the other two sides.

Problem 21. To inscribe a square in a circle and to describe a circle about a square (Fig. 71).

To inscribe the square. Draw two diameters, *AB* and *CD*, at right-angles to each other. Join the points *A*, *D*, *B* and *C*. *ADBC* is the inscribed square.

To describe the circle. Draw the diagonals as before, intersecting at *E*, and with *E* as a center and *AE* as a radius, describe the circle.

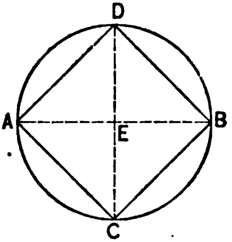

Fig. 71. Inscribed Square and Circumscribed Circle

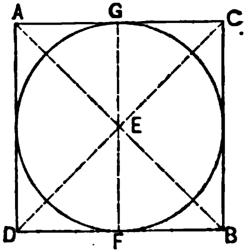

Fig. 72. Inscribed Circle and Circumscribed Square

Problem 22. To inscribe a circle in a square and to describe a square about a circle (Fig. 72).

To inscribe the circle. Draw the diagonals *AB* and *CD*, intersecting at *E*. Draw the perpendicular *EG* to one of the sides. Then with *E* as a center, and *EG* as a radius, describe a circle. It will be tangent to all four sides of the square.

To describe the square. Draw two diameters, *AB* and *CD*, at right-angles to each other, and prolonged beyond the circumference. Draw the diameter *GF*, bisecting the angle *CEA* or *BED*. Draw lines through *G* and *F* perpendicular to *GF*, and terminating in the diagonals. Draw *AD* and *CB* to complete the square.

Problem 23. To inscribe a pentagon in a circle (Fig. 73).

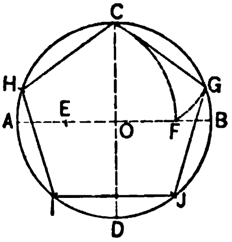

Fig. 73. Circle and Inscribed Pentagon

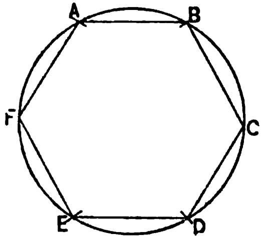

Fig. 74. Circle and Inscribed Hexagon

Draw two diameters, *AB* and *CD*, at right-angles to each other. Bisect *AO* at *E*. With *E* as a center and *EC* as a radius, cut *OB* at *F*. With *C* as a center and *CF* as a radius, cut the circle at *G* and *H*. With these points as centers and the same radius, cut the circle at *I* and *J*. Join *I*, *J*, *G*, *C* and *H*. *IJGCHI* is the inscribed regular pentagon.

Problem 24. To inscribe a regular hexagon in a circle (Fig. 74).

Lay off on the circumference the radius of the circle six times, and connect the points.

Problem 25. To construct a regular hexagon upon a given straight line, AB (Fig. 75).

From *A* and *B*, with a radius equal to *AB*, describe arcs intersecting at *O*. With *O* as a center and a radius equal to *AB*, describe a circle, and from *A* or *B* lay off the lengths *BC*, *CD*, *DE*, *EF* and *FA* on the circumference of the circle. *ABCDEFA* is the required regular hexagon.

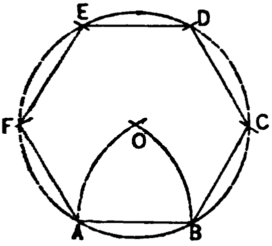

Fig. 75. Regular Hexagon on Given Line

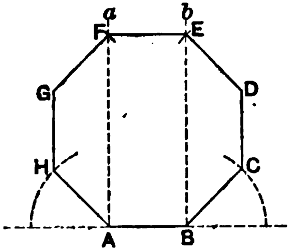

Fig. 76. Regular Octagon on Given Line

Problem 26. To construct a regular octagon upon a given straight line, AB (Fig. 76).

Produce the line *AB* both ways and draw the perpendiculars *Aa* and *Bb*, of indefinite length. Bisect the external angles at *A* and *B* and make the length of the bisecting lines equal to *AB*. From *H* and *C* draw lines parallel to *Aa* or *Bb* and equal in length to *AB*. From *G* and *D* as centers describe arcs, with a radius *AB*, cutting the perpendiculars *Aa* and *Bb* in *F* and *E*. Draw *GF*, *FE* and *ED*. *ABCDEFGHA* is the required octagon.

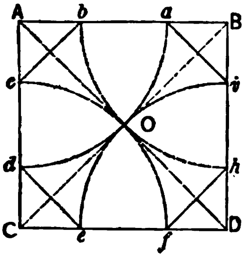

Fig. 77. Square and Inscribed Regular Octagon

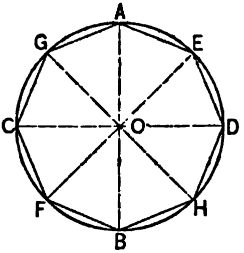

Fig. 78. Circle and Inscribed Regular Octagon

Problem 27. To construct a regular octagon in a square (Fig. 77).

Draw the diagonals *AD* and *BC* and from *A*, *B*, *C* and *D*, with a radius equal to *AO*, describe arcs cutting the sides of the square in *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*, *f*, *h* and *i*. Draw *ai*, *hf*, *ed* and *cb*. *aihfedcba* is the required octagon.

Problem 28. To inscribe a regular octagon in a circle (Fig. 78).

Draw two diameters, *AB* and *CD*, at right-angles to each other. Bisect the angles *AOD* and *AOC* by the diameters *EF* and *GH*. *AEDHBFCGA* is the required octagon.

Problem 29. To inscribe a circle within a regular polygon.

First. When the polygon has an even number of sides, as in Fig. 79. Bisect two opposite sides at *A* and *B*, draw *AB* and bisect it at *C* by a diagonal, *DE*, connecting two opposite angles, as *D* and *E*. The circle drawn with a radius *CA* and with *C* as a center is the inscribed circle required.

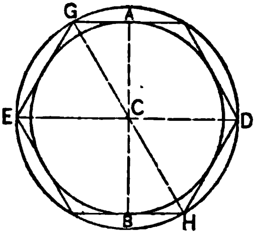

Fig. 79. Regular Polygon, Even Number of Sides, with Inscribed and Circumscribed Circles

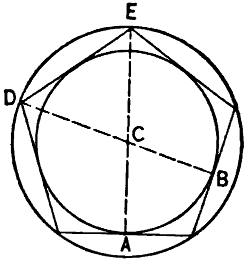

Fig. 80. Regular Polygon, Odd Number of Sides, with Inscribed and Circumscribed Circles

Second. When the number of sides is odd, as in Fig. 80. Bisect two of the adjacent sides as at *A* and *B*, and draw lines, *AE* and *BD*, to the opposite angles, and intersecting at *C*. The circle drawn with *C* as a center and *CA* as a radius is the inscribed circle required.

Problem 30. To draw a circumscribing circle around a regular polygon.

First. When the number of sides is even, as in Fig. 79. Draw two diagonals from opposite angles, as *ED* and *GH*, intersecting at *C*. The circle drawn with *C* as a center and with *CD* as a radius is the circumscribing circle required.

Second. When the number of sides is odd, as in Fig. 80. Determine the center, *C*, as in the last problem. The circle drawn with *C* as a center and *CD* as a radius, is the circumscribing circle required.

Problems on the Ellipse, the Parabola, the Hyperbola and the Cycloid

The Ellipse

Problem 31. To describe an ellipse, the length and breadth, or the two axes, being given.

First Method (Fig. 81), the two axes, AB and CD, being given. On *AB* and *CD* as diameters and from the same center, *O*, describe the circles *AGBH* and *CLDK*. Take any convenient number of points on the circumference of the outer circle, as *b*, *b'*, *b''*, etc., and from them draw lines to the center, *O*, cutting the inner circle at the points *a*, *a'*, *a''*, etc., respectively. From the points *b*, *b'*, etc., draw lines parallel to the shorter axis *CD*; and from the points *a*, *a'*, etc., draw lines parallel to the longer axis *AB*, and intersecting the first set of lines at *c*, *c'*, *c''*, etc. These last points will be points in the ellipse, and by determining a sufficient number of them, the ellipse can be drawn.

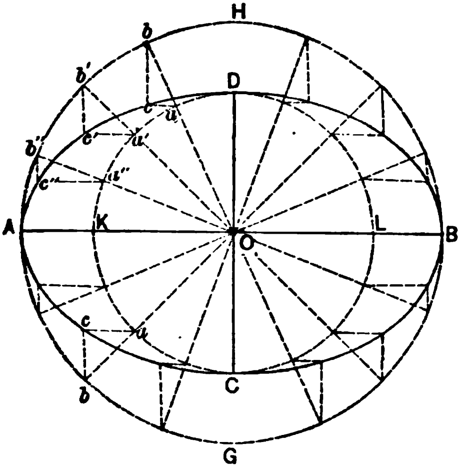

Fig. 81. Ellipse Described on Given Axes.

Second Method (Fig. 82). Take the straight-edge, made of a stiff piece of paper, cardboard or wood, and from some point as *a*, mark off *ab* equal to half the shorter diameter *CD*, and *ac* equal to half the longer diameter *AB*. Place the straight-edge so that the point *b* is on the longer and the point *c* on the shorter diameter. Then will the point *a* be over a point in the ellipse. Make on the paper a dot at *a* and move the straight-edge around, always keeping the points *b* and *c* over the major and minor axes respectively. In this way any number of points in the ellipse may be determined and the ellipse drawn.

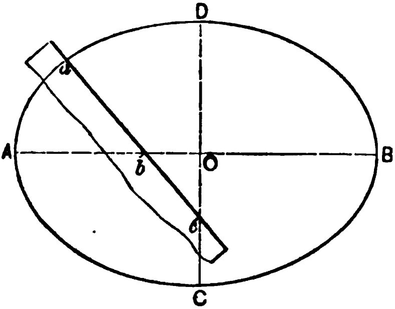

Fig. 82. Ellipse Described with Straight-Edge

Third Method (Fig. 83). Given, the two axes, AB and CD. From the point *D* as a center, and a radius *AO*, equal to one-half of *AB*, describe an arc cutting *AB* at *F* and *F'*. These two points are called the foci of the ellipse.

Note. One property of the ellipse is, that the sums of the distances of any two points on the circumference from the foci are the same. Thus $F'D + DF = F'E + EF$ or $F'G + GF$.

Fix two pins in the axis *AB* at *F* and *F′* and loop upon them a thread, or cord equal in length, when fastened to the pins, to *AB*, so as, when stretched as per dotted line *FDF′*, it will just reach to the extremity *D* of the short axis. Place a pencil-point inside the chord, as at *E*, and move the pencil along, keeping the cord stretched tight. The pencil-point will trace the ellipse required.

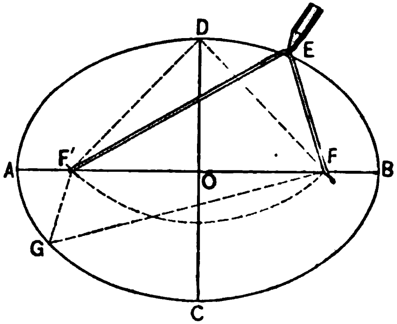

Fig. 83. Ellipse Described with String and Pencil

Problem 32. To draw a tangent to an ellipse at a given point on the curve (Fig. 84).

Let it be required to draw a tangent at the point *E* on the ellipse shown. First determine the foci *F* and *F′* as in the third method for describing an ellipse, and from *E* draw lines *EF* and *EF′*. Prolong *EF′* to *a*, so that *Ea* equals *EF*. Bisect the angle *aEF* by describing arcs from *a* and *F* as centers, as shown at *b*, and through *b* draw a line through *E*. This line is the tangent required. If it is required to draw a line normal to the curve at *E*, as, for instance, the joint of an elliptical arch, bisect the angle *FEF′*, and draw the bisecting line through *E*, and it will be the normal to the curve and the proper line at that point for the joint of an elliptical arch.

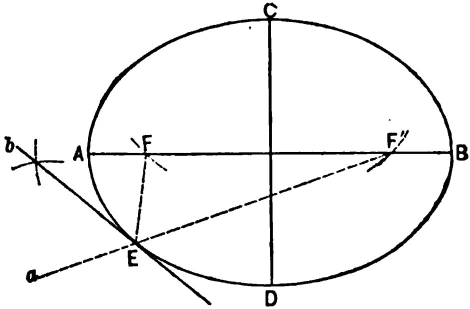

Fig. 84. Tangent Drawn to Point on Ellipse

Problem 33. To draw a tangent to an ellipse from a given point outside of the curve (Fig. 85).

From the given point *T* as a center, and with a radius equal to the distance to the nearer focus *F*, describe an arc of a circle. From *F′* as a center, and with a radius equal to the length of the longer axis of the ellipse, describe arcs cutting the circle just described at *a* and *b*. Draw lines from *F′* to *a* and *b*, cutting the ellipse at *E* and *G*. Draw lines from *T* through *E* and *G* and they will be the tangents required.

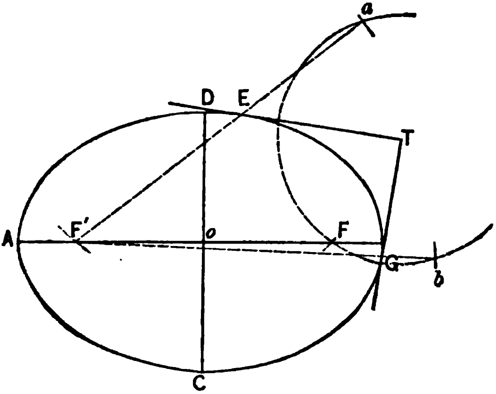

Fig. 85. Tangent Drawn to Ellipse from Point Outside

Problem 34. To describe an ellipse approximately, by means of circular arcs.

First. With arcs of two radii (Fig. 86). Take half the difference of the two axes *AB* and *CD*, and set it off from the center *O* to *a* and *c* on *OA* and *OC*; draw *ac* and on *AB* set off half *ac* from *a* to *d*; draw *di* parallel to *ac*; set off *Oe* equal to *Od*; join *ei* and draw *em* and *dm* parallel respectively to *id* and *ie*. With *m* as a center and with a radius *mC*, describe an arc through *C*, terminating in the points 1 and 2 on *md* and *me* produced. With *i* as a center, and with *iD* as a radius, describe an arc through *D*, terminating in points 3 and 4 on *ie* and *id* produced. With *d* and *e* as centers, describe arcs through *A* and *B*, connecting the points 1 and 4 and 2 and 3. The four arcs thus described form approximately an ellipse. This method is not satisfactory when the conjugate or minor axis is less than two-thirds the transverse or major axis.

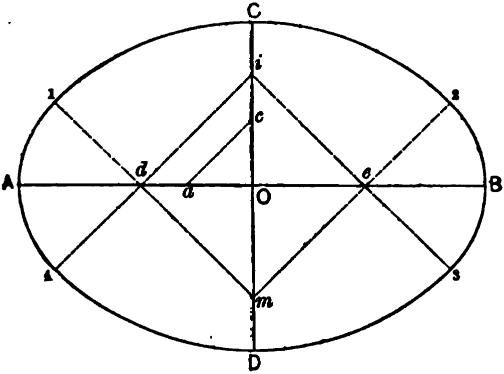

Fig. 86. Ellipse Described with Circular Arcs of Two Radii

Another method of approximating an ellipse by means of arcs of two radii, is shown in Fig. 87, the axis major *AB* and the semiminor axis *OC* being given. Draw the rectangle *AabBA*, and the diagonal *CB*. Lay off *Cc* equal to the difference between *OB* and *OC*. Bisect *cB* at *M* and erect the perpendicular *YD*, intersecting *CO* produced at *Y* and *OB*, at *x*. Make $Ox' = Ox$. Then will x, x', and *Y* be the three centers required, the curves becoming tangent at *D* and at the corresponding point on the left-hand side of the ellipse. This method results in a curve which is slightly fuller at the haunches than the curve drawn by the preceding method.

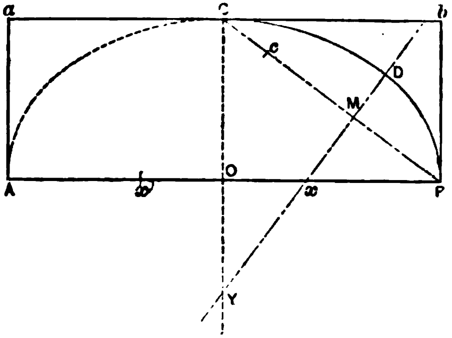

Fig. 87. Ellipse Described with Circular Arcs of Two Radii

Second. With arcs of three radii (Fig. 88). On the transverse or major axis *AB* draw the rectangle *AGEBA*, equal in height to *OC*, half the conjugate or minor axis. Draw *AC* and draw *GD* perpendicular to *AC*. Set off *OK* equal to

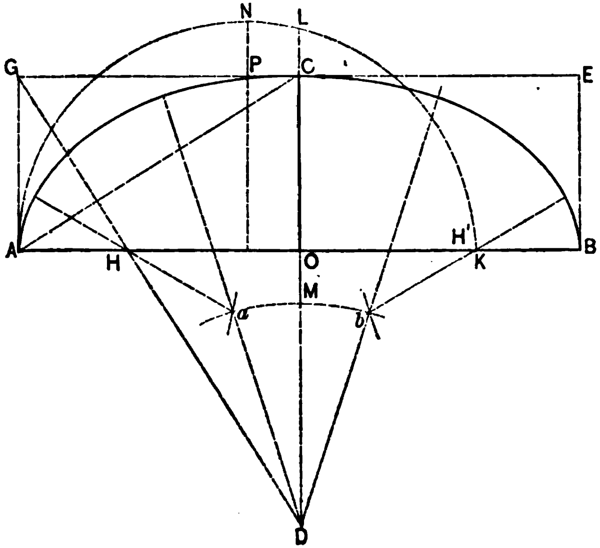

Fig. 88. Ellipse Described with Circular Arcs of Three Radii

OC, and on *AK* as a diameter describe the semicircle *ANK*. Draw a radius parallel to *OC*, intersecting the semicircle at *N*, and the line *GE* at *P*. Extend *OC* to *L* and to *D*. Set off *OM* equal to *PN*, and with *D* as a center and with a radius *DM*, describe an arc. With *A* and *B* as centers and with a radius *OL*, intersect this arc at *a* and *b*. The points *H*, *a*, *D*, *b* and *H'*, are the centers of the arcs required. Produce the lines *aH*, *Da*, *Db* and *bH'*, and thus determine the lengths of the arcs. This method is practicable for nearly all ellipses. It is often employed for vaults, stone arches and bridges.

Note. In this demonstration the point *H'* happens to coincide with the point *K*, but this need not necessarily be the case.

The Parabola

Problem 35. To describe a parabola when the vertex A, the axis AB and a point, M, of the curve are given (Fig. 89).

Construct the rectangle *ABMCA*. Divide *MC* into any number of equal parts, four for instance. Divide *AC* in like manner. Connect *A* 1, *A* 2 and *A* 3. Through 1', 2', 3', draw parallels to the axis *AB*. The intersections I, II and III, of these lines, are points in the required curve.

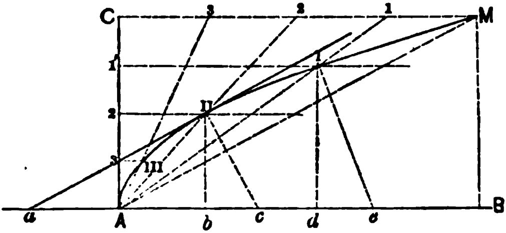

Fig. 89. Parabola and Tangent to Point on Parabola

Problem 36. To draw a tangent to a given point, II, of the parabola (Fig. 89).

From the given point II let fall a perpendicular on the axis *AB* at *b*. Produce the axis to the left of *A*. Make *Aa* equal to *Ab*. A line drawn through *a* and II is the tangent required. The lines perpendicular to the tangent are called NORMALS.

To draw a normal to any point, as I, the tangent to any other point, II being given.

Draw the normal II*c*. From I, let fall a perpendicular I*d*, on the axis *AB*. Lay off *de* equal to *bc*. The line I*e* is the normal required. The tangent may be drawn at I by laying off a perpendicular to the normal I*e* at I.

The Hyperbola

If from any point, *P*, of an hyperbola, two straight lines are drawn to two fixed points, as *F* and *F'*, the foci of the hyperbola, their DIFFERENCE is always the same.

Problem 37. To describe an hyperbola when a vertex, a, the given difference ab and one of the foci, F are given (Fig. 90).

Draw the axis *AB* of the hyperbola, with the given distance *ab* and the focus

F marked on it. From b lay off bF_1 equal to aF to determine the other focus F_1. Take any point, as 1 on AB, and with $a1$ as a radius and F as a center, describe two short arcs above and below the axis. With $b1$ as a radius, and F' as a center, describe arcs cutting those just described, at P and P'. Take several points, as 2, 3 and 4, and determine the corresponding points P_2, P_3 and P_4 in the same way. The curve passing through these points is an hyperbola.

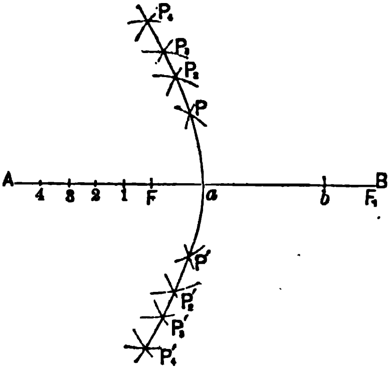

Fig. 90. Hyperbola Described

To draw a tangent to any point of an hyperbola, draw lines from the given point to each of the foci and bisect the angle thus formed. The bisecting line is the tangent required.

The Cycloid

The CYCLOID is the curve described by a point on the circumference of a circle rolling in a straight line.

Problem 38. To describe a cycloid (Fig. 91).

Draw the straight line AB. Describe the generating circle tangent to this line at its middle point D, and through the center C, of the circle, draw the line EE parallel to AB. Let fall a perpendicular from C upon AB. Divide the semicircumference into any number of equal parts, for example, six. Lay off on AB and CE distances $C1'$, $1'2'$, etc., equal to the divisions of the circumference. Draw the chords $D1$, $D2$, etc. From the points $1'$, $2'$, $3'$, etc., on the line CE, with radii equal to the generating circle, describe arcs as shown. From the points $1'$, $2'$, $3'$, $4'$, $5'$, etc., on the line BA, and with radii equal respectively to the chords $D1$, $D2$, $D3$, $D4$, $D5$, describe arcs cutting the preceding arcs. The intersections are points of the required cycloid.

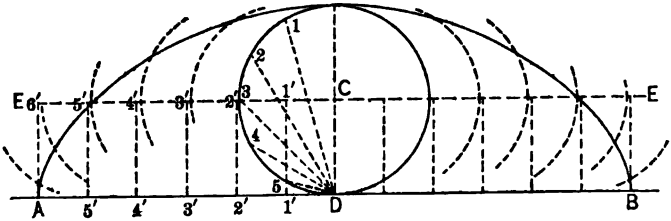

Fig. 91. Cycloid Described

Table of Chords. Radius = 1.0000

M.	0°	1°	2°	3°	4°	5°	6°	7°	8°	9°	10°	M.
0′	0.0000	0.0175	0.0349	0.0524	0.0698	0.0872	0.1047	0.1221	0.1395	0.1569	0.1743	0′
1	0.0003	0.0177	0.0352	0.0526	0.0701	0.0875	0.1050	0.1224	0.1398	0.1572	0.1746	1
2	0.0006	0.0180	0.0355	0.0529	0.0704	0.0878	0.1053	0.1227	0.1401	0.1575	0.1749	2
3	0.0009	0.0183	0.0358	0.0532	0.0707	0.0881	0.1055	0.1230	0.1404	0.1578	0.1752	3
4	0.0012	0.0186	0.0361	0.0535	0.0710	0.0884	0.1058	0.1233	0.1407	0.1581	0.1755	4
5	0.0015	0.0189	0.0364	0.0538	0.0713	0.0887	0.1061	0.1235	0.1410	0.1584	0.1758	5
6	0.0017	0.0192	0.0366	0.0541	0.0715	0.0890	0.1064	0.1238	0.1413	0.1587	0.1761	6
7	0.0020	0.0195	0.0369	0.0544	0.0718	0.0893	0.1067	0.1241	0.1415	0.1589	0.1763	7
8	0.0023	0.0198	0.0372	0.0547	0.0721	0.0896	0.1070	0.1244	0.1418	0.1592	0.1766	8
9	0.0026	0.0201	0.0375	0.0550	0.0724	0.0899	0.1073	0.1247	0.1421	0.1595	0.1769	9
10	0.0029	0.0204	0.0378	0.0553	0.0727	0.0901	0.1076	0.1250	0.1424	0.1598	0.1772	10
11	0.0032	0.0207	0.0381	0.0556	0.0730	0.0904	0.1079	0.1253	0.1427	0.1601	0.1775	11
12	0.0035	0.0209	0.0384	0.0558	0.0733	0.0907	0.1082	0.1256	0.1430	0.1604	0.1778	12
13	0.0038	0.0212	0.0387	0.0561	0.0736	0.0910	0.1084	0.1259	0.1433	0.1607	0.1781	13
14	0.0041	0.0215	0.0390	0.0564	0.0739	0.0913	0.1087	0.1262	0.1436	0.1610	0.1784	14
15	0.0044	0.0218	0.0393	0.0567	0.0742	0.0916	0.1090	0.1265	0.1439	0.1613	0.1787	15
16	0.0047	0.0221	0.0396	0.0570	0.0745	0.0919	0.1093	0.1267	0.1442	0.1616	0.1789	16
17	0.0049	0.0224	0.0398	0.0573	0.0747	0.0922	0.1096	0.1270	0.1444	0.1618	0.1792	17
18	0.0052	0.0227	0.0401	0.0576	0.0750	0.0925	0.1099	0.1273	0.1447	0.1621	0.1795	18
19	0.0055	0.0230	0.0404	0.0579	0.0753	0.0928	0.1102	0.1276	0.1450	0.1624	0.1798	19
20	0.0058	0.0233	0.0407	0.0582	0.0756	0.0931	0.1105	0.1279	0.1453	0.1627	0.1801	20
21	0.0061	0.0236	0.0410	0.0585	0.0759	0.0933	0.1108	0.1282	0.1456	0.1630	0.1804	21
22	0.0064	0.0239	0.0413	0.0588	0.0762	0.0936	0.1111	0.1285	0.1459	0.1633	0.1807	22
23	0.0067	0.0241	0.0416	0.0590	0.0765	0.0939	0.1114	0.1288	0.1462	0.1636	0.1810	23
24	0.0070	0.0244	0.0419	0.0593	0.0768	0.0942	0.1116	0.1291	0.1465	0.1639	0.1813	24
25	0.0073	0.0247	0.0422	0.0596	0.0771	0.0945	0.1119	0.1294	0.1468	0.1642	0.1816	25
26	0.0076	0.0250	0.0425	0.0599	0.0774	0.0948	0.1122	0.1296	0.1471	0.1645	0.1818	26
27	0.0079	0.0253	0.0428	0.0602	0.0776	0.0951	0.1125	0.1299	0.1473	0.1647	0.1821	27
28	0.0081	0.0256	0.0430	0.0605	0.0779	0.0954	0.1128	0.1302	0.1476	0.1650	0.1824	28
29	0.0084	0.0259	0.0433	0.0608	0.0782	0.0957	0.1131	0.1305	0.1479	0.1653	0.1827	29
30	0.0087	0.0262	0.0436	0.0611	0.0785	0.0960	0.1134	0.1308	0.1482	0.1656	0.1830	30
31	0.0090	0.0265	0.0439	0.0614	0.0788	0.0962	0.1137	0.1311	0.1485	0.1659	0.1833	31
32	0.0093	0.0268	0.0442	0.0617	0.0791	0.0965	0.1140	0.1314	0.1488	0.1662	0.1836	32
33	0.0096	0.0271	0.0445	0.0619	0.0794	0.0968	0.1143	0.1317	0.1491	0.1665	0.1839	33
34	0.0099	0.0273	0.0448	0.0622	0.0797	0.0971	0.1145	0.1320	0.1494	0.1668	0.1842	34
35	0.0102	0.0276	0.0451	0.0625	0.0800	0.0974	0.1148	0.1323	0.1497	0.1671	0.1845	35
36	0.0105	0.0279	0.0454	0.0628	0.0803	0.0977	0.1151	0.1325	0.1500	0.1674	0.1847	36
37	0.0108	0.0282	0.0457	0.0631	0.0806	0.0980	0.1154	0.1328	0.1502	0.1676	0.1850	37
38	0.0111	0.0285	0.0460	0.0634	0.0808	0.0983	0.1157	0.1331	0.1505	0.1679	0.1853	38
39	0.0113	0.0288	0.0462	0.0637	0.0811	0.0986	0.1160	0.1334	0.1508	0.1682	0.1856	39
40	0.0116	0.0291	0.0465	0.0640	0.0814	0.0989	0.1163	0.1337	0.1511	0.1685	0.1859	40
41	0.0119	0.0294	0.0468	0.0643	0.0817	0.0992	0.1166	0.1340	0.1514	0.1688	0.1862	41
42	0.0122	0.0297	0.0471	0.0646	0.0820	0.0994	0.1169	0.1343	0.1517	0.1691	0.1865	42
43	0.0125	0.0300	0.0474	0.0649	0.0823	0.0997	0.1172	0.1346	0.1520	0.1694	0.1868	43
44	0.0128	0.0303	0.0477	0.0651	0.0826	0.1000	0.1175	0.1349	0.1523	0.1697	0.1871	44
45	0.0131	0.0305	0.0480	0.0654	0.0829	0.1003	0.1177	0.1352	0.1526	0.1700	0.1873	45
46	0.0134	0.0308	0.0483	0.0657	0.0832	0.1006	0.1180	0.1355	0.1529	0.1703	0.1876	46
47	0.0137	0.0311	0.0486	0.0660	0.0835	0.1009	0.1183	0.1357	0.1531	0.1705	0.1879	47
48	0.0140	0.0314	0.0489	0.0663	0.0838	0.1012	0.1186	0.1360	0.1534	0.1708	0.1882	48
49	0.0143	0.0317	0.0492	0.0666	0.0840	0.1015	0.1189	0.1363	0.1537	0.1711	0.1885	49
50	0.0145	0.0320	0.0494	0.0669	0.0843	0.1018	0.1192	0.1366	0.1540	0.1714	0.1888	50
51	0.0148	0.0323	0.0497	0.0672	0.0846	0.1021	0.1195	0.1369	0.1543	0.1717	0.1891	51
52	0.0151	0.0326	0.0500	0.0675	0.0849	0.1023	0.1198	0.1372	0.1546	0.1720	0.1894	52
53	0.0154	0.0329	0.0503	0.0678	0.0852	0.1026	0.1201	0.1375	0.1549	0.1723	0.1897	53
54	0.0157	0.0332	0.0506	0.0681	0.0855	0.1029	0.1204	0.1378	0.1552	0.1726	0.1900	54
55	0.0160	0.0335	0.0509	0.0683	0.0858	0.1032	0.1206	0.1381	0.1555	0.1729	0.1902	55
56	0.0163	0.0337	0.0512	0.0686	0.0861	0.1035	0.1209	0.1384	0.1558	0.1732	0.1905	56
57	0.0166	0.0340	0.0515	0.0689	0.0864	0.1038	0.1212	0.1386	0.1560	0.1734	0.1908	57
58	0.0169	0.0343	0.0518	0.0692	0.0867	0.1041	0.1215	0.1389	0.1563	0.1737	0.1911	58
59	0.0172	0.0346	0.0521	0.0695	0.0869	0.1044	0.1218	0.1392	0.1566	0.1740	0.1914	59
60	0.0175	0.0349	0.0524	0.0698	0.0872	0.1047	0.1221	0.1395	0.1569	0.1743	0.1917	60

Table of Chords (Continued). Radius = 1.0000

M.	11°	12°	13°	14°	15°	16°	17°	18°	19°	20°	21°	M.
0′	0.1917	0.2091	0.2264	0.2437	0.2611	0.2783	0.2956	0.3129	0.3301	0.3473	0.3645	0′
1	0.1920	0.2093	0.2267	0.2440	0.2613	0.2786	0.2959	0.3132	0.3304	0.3476	0.3648	1
2	0.1923	0.2096	0.2270	0.2443	0.2616	0.2789	0.2962	0.3134	0.3307	0.3479	0.3650	2
3	0.1926	0.2099	0.2273	0.2446	0.2619	0.2792	0.2965	0.3137	0.3310	0.3482	0.3653	3
4	0.1928	0.2102	0.2276	0.2449	0.2622	0.2795	0.2968	0.3140	0.3312	0.3484	0.3656	4
5	0.1931	0.2105	0.2279	0.2452	0.2625	0.2798	0.2971	0.3143	0.3315	0.3487	0.3659	5
6	0.1934	0.2108	0.2281	0.2455	0.2628	0.2801	0.2973	0.3146	0.3318	0.3490	0.3662	6
7	0.1937	0.2111	0.2284	0.2458	0.2631	0.2804	0.2976	0.3149	0.3321	0.3493	0.3665	7
8	0.1940	0.2114	0.2287	0.2460	0.2634	0.2807	0.2979	0.3152	0.3324	0.3496	0.3668	8
9	0.1943	0.2117	0.2290	0.2463	0.2636	0.2809	0.2982	0.3155	0.3327	0.3499	0.3670	9
10	0.1946	0.2119	0.2293	0.2466	0.2639	0.2812	0.2985	0.3157	0.3330	0.3502	0.3673	10
11	0.1949	0.2122	0.2296	0.2469	0.2642	0.2815	0.2988	0.3160	0.3333	0.3504	0.3676	11
12	0.1952	0.2125	0.2299	0.2472	0.2645	0.2818	0.2991	0.3163	0.3335	0.3507	0.3679	12
13	0.1955	0.2128	0.2302	0.2475	0.2648	0.2821	0.2994	0.3166	0.3338	0.3510	0.3682	13
14	0.1957	0.2131	0.2305	0.2478	0.2651	0.2824	0.2996	0.3169	0.3341	0.3513	0.3685	14
15	0.1960	0.2134	0.2307	0.2481	0.2654	0.2827	0.2999	0.3172	0.3344	0.3516	0.3688	15
16	0.1963	0.2137	0.2310	0.2484	0.2657	0.2830	0.3002	0.3175	0.3347	0.3519	0.3690	16
17	0.1966	0.2140	0.2313	0.2486	0.2660	0.2832	0.3005	0.3178	0.3350	0.3522	0.3693	17
18	0.1969	0.2143	0.2316	0.2489	0.2662	0.2835	0.3008	0.3180	0.3353	0.3525	0.3696	18
19	0.1972	0.2146	0.2319	0.2492	0.2665	0.2838	0.3011	0.3183	0.3355	0.3527	0.3699	19
20	0.1975	0.2148	0.2322	0.2495	0.2668	0.2841	0.3014	0.3186	0.3358	0.3530	0.3702	20
21	0 1978	0.2151	0.2325	0.2498	0.2671	0.2844	0.3017	0.3189	0.3361	0.3533	0.3705	21
22	0.1981	0.2154	0.2328	0.2501	0.2674	0.2847	0.3019	0.3192	0.3364	0.3536	0.3708	22
23	0.1983	0.2157	0.2331	0.2504	0.2677	0.2850	0.3022	0.3195	0.3367	0.3539	0.3710	23
24	0.1986	0.2160	0.2333	0.2507	0.2680	0.2853	0.3025	0.3198	0.3370	0.3542	0.3713	24
25	0.1989	0.2163	0.2336	0.2510	0.2683	0.2855	0.3028	0.3200	0.3373	0.3545	0.3716	25
26	0.1992	0.2166	0.2339	0.2512	0.2685	0.2858	0.3031	0.3203	0.3376	0.3547	0.3719	26
27	0.1995	0.2169	0.2342	0.2515	0.2688	0.2861	0.3034	0.3206	0.3378	0.3550	0.3722	27
28	0.1998	0.2172	0.2345	0.2518	0.2691	0.2864	0.3037	0.3209	0.3381	0.3553	0.3725	28
29	0.2001	0.2174	0.2348	0.2521	0.2694	0.2867	0.3040	0.3212	0.3384	0.3556	0 3728	29
30	0.2004	0.2177	0.2351	0.2524	0.2697	0.2870	0.3042	0.3215	0.3387	0.3559	0.3730	30
31	0.2007	0.2180	0.2354	0.2527	0.2700	0.2873	0.3045	0.3218	0.3390	0.3562	0.3733	31
32	0.2010	0.2183	0.2357	0.2530	0.2703	0.2876	0.3048	0.3221	0.3393	0.3565	0.3736	32
33	0.2012	0.2186	0.2359	0.2533	0.2706	0.2878	0.3051	0.3223	0.3396	0.3567	0.3739	33
34	0.2015	0.2189	0.2362	0.2536	0.2709	0.2881	0.3054	0.3226	0.3398	0.3570	0.3742	34
35	0.2018	0.2192	0.2365	0.2538	0.2711	0.2884	0.3057	0.3229	0.3401	0.3573	0.3745	35
36	0.2021	0.2195	0.2368	0.2541	0.2714	0.2887	0.3060	0.3232	0.3404	0.3576	0.3748	36
37	0.2024	0.2198	0.2371	0.2544	0.2717	0.2890	0.3063	0.3235	0.3407	0.3579	0.3750	37
38	0.2027	0.2200	0.2374	0.2547	0.2720	0.2893	0.3065	0.3238	0.3410	0.3582	0.3753	38
39	0.2030	0.2203	0.2377	0.2550	0.2723	0.2896	0.3068	0.3241	0.3413	0.3585	0.3756	39
40	0.2033	0.2206	0.2380	0.2553	0.2726	0.2899	0.3071	0.3244	0.3416	0.3587	0.3759	40
41	0.2036	0.2209	0.2383	0.2556	0.2729	0.2902	0.3074	0.3246	0.3419	0.3590	0.3762	41
42	0.2038	0.2212	0.2385	0.2559	0.2732	0.2904	0.3077	0.3249	0.3421	0.3593	0.3765	42
43	0.2041	0.2215	0.2388	0.2561	0.2734	0.2907	0.3080	0.3252	0.3424	0.3596	0.3768	43
44	0.2044	0.2218	0.2391	0.2564	0.2737	0.2910	0.3083	0.3255	0.3427	0.3599	0.3770	44
45	0.2047	0.2221	0.2394	0.2567	0.2740	0.2913	0.3086	0.3258	0.3430	0.3602	0.3773	45
46	0.2050	0.2224	0.2397	0.2570	0.2743	0.2916	0.3088	0.3261	0.3433	0.3605	0.3776	46
47	0.2053	0.2226	0.2400	0.2573	0.2746	0.2919	0.3091	0.3264	0.3436	0.3608	0.3779	47
48	0.2056	0.2229	0.2403	0.2576	0.2749	0.2922	0.3094	0.3267	0.3439	0.3610	0.3782	48
49	0.2059	0.2232	0.2406	0.2579	0.2752	0.2925	0.3097	0.3269	0.3441	0.3613	0.3785	49
50	0.2062	0.2235	0.2409	0.2582	0.2755	0.2927	0.3100	0.3272	0.3444	0.3616	0.3788	50
51	0.2065	0.2238	0.2411	0.2585	0.2758	0.2930	0.3103	0.3275	0.3447	0.3619	0.3790	51
52	0.2067	0.2241	0.2414	0.2587	0.2760	0.2933	0.3106	0.3278	0.3450	0.3522	0.3793	52
53	0.2070	0.2244	0.2417	0.2590	0.2763	0.2936	0.3109	0.3281	0.3453	0.3625	0.3796	53
54	0.2073	0.2247	0.2420	0.2593	0.2766	0.2939	0.3111	0.3284	0.3456	0.3628	0.3799	54
55	0.2076	0.2250	0.2423	0.2596	9.2769	0.2942	0.3114	0.3287	0.3459	0.3630	0.3802	55
56	0.2079	0.2253	0.2426	0.2599	0.2772	0.2945	0.3117	0.3289	0.3462	0.3633	0.3805	56
57	0.2082	0.2255	0.2429	0.2602	0.2775	0.2948	0.3120	0.3292	0.3464	0.3636	0.3808	57
58	0.2085	0.2258	0.2432	0.2605	0.2778	0.2950	0.3123	0.3295	0.3467	0.3639	0.3810	58
59	0.2088	0.2261	0.2434	0.2608	0.2781	0.2953	0.3126	0.3298	0.3470	0.3642	0.3813	59
60	0.2091	0.2264	0.2437	0.2611	0.2783	0.2956	0.3129	0.3301	0.3473	0.3645	0.3816	60

Table of Chords (Continued). Radius = 1.0000

M.	22°	23°	24°	25°	26°	27°	28°	29°	30°	31°	32°	M.
0′	0.3816	0.3987	0.4158	0.4329	0.4499	0.4669	0.4838	0.5008	0.5176	0.5345	0.5513	0′
1	0.3819	0.3990	0.4161	0.4332	0.4502	0.4672	0.4841	0.5010	0.5179	0.5348	0.5516	1
2	0.3822	0.3993	0.4164	0.4334	0.4505	0.4675	0.4844	0.5013	0.5182	0.5350	0.5518	2
3	0.3825	0.3996	0.4167	0.4337	0.4508	0.4677	0.4847	0.5016	0.5185	0.5353	0.5521	3
4	0.3828	0.3999	0.4170	0.4340	0.4510	0.4680	0.4850	0.5019	0.5188	0.5356	0.5524	4
5	0.3830	0.4002	0.4172	0.4343	0.4513	0.4683	0.4853	0.5022	0.5190	0.5359	0.5527	5
6	0.3833	0.4004	0.4175	0.4346	0.4516	0.4686	0.4855	0.5024	0.5193	0.5362	0.5530	6
7	0.3836	0.4007	0.4178	0.4349	0.4519	0.4689	0.4858	0.5027	0.5196	0.5364	0.5532	7
8	0.3839	0.4010	0.4181	0.4352	0.4522	0.4692	0.4861	0.5030	0.5199	0.5367	0.5535	8
9	0.3842	0.4013	0.4184	0.4354	0.4525	0.4694	0.4864	0.5033	0.5202	0.5370	0.5538	9
10	0.3845	0.4016	0.4187	0.4357	0.4527	0.4697	0.4867	0.5036	0.5204	0.5373	0.5541	10
11	0.3848	0.4019	0.4190	0.4360	0.4530	0.4700	0.4869	0.5039	0.5207	0.5376	0.5543	11
12	0.3850	0.4022	0.4192	0.4363	0.4533	0.4703	0.4872	0.5041	0.5210	0.5378	0.5546	12
13	0.3853	0.4024	0.4195	0.4366	0.4536	0.4706	0.4875	0.5044	0.5213	0.5381	0.5549	13
14	0.3856	0.4027	0.4198	0.4369	0.4539	0.4708	0.4878	0.5047	0.5216	0.5384	0.5552	14
15	0.3859	0.4030	0.4201	0.4371	0.4542	0.4711	0.4881	0.5050	0.5219	0.5387	0.5555	15
16	0.3862	0.4033	0.4204	0.4374	0.4544	0.4714	0.4884	0.5053	0.5221	0.5390	0.5557	16
17	0.3865	0.4036	0.4207	0.4377	0.4547	0.4717	0.4886	0.5055	0.5224	0.5392	0.5560	17
18	0.3868	0.4039	0.4209	0.4380	0.4550	0.4720	0.4889	0.5058	0.5227	0.5395	0.5563	18
19	0.3870	0.4042	0.4212	0.4383	0.4553	0.4723	0.4892	0.5061	0.5230	0.5398	0.5566	19
20	0.3873	0.4044	0.4215	0.4386	0.4556	0.4725	0.4895	0.5064	0.5233	0.5401	0.5569	20
21	0.3876	0.4047	0.4218	0.4388	0.4559	0.4728	0.4898	0.5067	0.5235	0.5404	0.5571	21
22	0.3879	0.4050	0.4221	0.4391	0.4561	0.4731	0.4901	0.5070	0.5238	0.5406	0.5574	22
23	0.3882	0.4053	0.4224	0.4394	0.4564	0.4734	0.4903	0.5072	0.5241	0.5409	0.5577	23
24	0.3885	0.4056	0.4226	0.4397	0.4567	0.4737	0.4906	0.5075	0.5244	0.5412	0.5580	24
25	0.3888	0.4059	0.4229	0.4400	0.4570	0.4740	0.4909	0.5078	0.5247	0.5415	0.5583	25
26	0.3890	0.4061	0.4232	0.4403	0.4573	0.4742	0.4912	0.5081	0.5249	0.5418	0.5585	26
27	0.3893	0.4064	0.4235	0.4405	0.4576	0.4745	0.4915	0.5084	0.5252	0.5420	0.5588	27
28	0.3896	0.4067	0.4238	0.4408	0.4578	0.4748	0.4917	0.5086	0.5255	0.5423	0.5591	28
29	0.3899	0.4070	0.4241	0.4411	0.4581	0.4751	0.4920	0.5089	0.5258	0.5426	0.5594	29
30	0.3902	0.4073	0.4244	0.4414	0.4584	0.4754	0.4923	0.5092	0.5261	0.5429	0.5597	30
31	0.3905	0.4076	0.4246	0.4417	0.4587	0.4757	0.4926	0.5095	0.5263	0.5432	0.5599	31
32	0.3908	0.4079	0.4249	0.4420	0.4590	0.4759	0.4929	0.5098	0.5266	0.5434	0.5602	32
33	0.3910	0.4081	0.4252	0.4422	0.4593	0.4762	0.4932	0.5100	0.5269	0.5437	0.5605	33
34	0.3913	0.4084	0.4255	0.4425	0.4595	0.4765	0.4934	0.5103	0.5272	0.5440	0.5608	34
35	0.3916	0.4087	0.4258	0.4428	0.4598	0.4768	0.4937	0.5106	0.5275	0.5443	0.5611	35
36	0.3919	0.4090	0.4261	0.4431	0.4601	0.4771	0.4940	0.5109	0.5277	0.5446	0.5613	36
37	0.3922	0.4093	0.4263	0.4434	0.4604	0.4773	0.4943	0.5112	0.5280	0.5448	0.5616	37
38	0.3925	0.4096	0.4266	0.4437	0.4607	0.4776	0.4946	0.5115	0.5283	0.5451	0.5619	38
39	0.3927	0.4098	0.4269	0.4439	0.4609	0.4779	0.4948	0.5117	0.5286	0.5454	0.5622	39
40	0.3930	0.4101	0.4272	0.4442	0.4612	0.4782	0.4951	0.5120	0.5289	0.5457	0.5625	40
41	0.3933	0.4104	0.4275	0.4445	0.4615	0.4785	0.4954	0.5123	0.5291	0.5460	0.5627	41
42	0.3936	0.4107	0.4278	0.4448	0.4618	0.4788	0.4957	0.5126	0.5294	0.5462	0.5630	42
43	0.3939	0.4110	0.4280	0.4451	0.4621	0.4790	0.4960	0.5129	0.5297	0.5465	0.5633	43
44	0.3942	0.4113	0.4283	0.4454	0.4624	0.4793	0.4963	0.5131	0.5300	0.5468	0.5636	44
45	0.3945	0.4116	0.4286	0.4456	0.4626	0.4796	0.4965	0.5134	0.5303	0.5471	0.5638	45
46	0.3947	0.4118	0.4289	0.4459	0.4629	0.4799	0.4968	0.5137	0.5306	0.5474	0.5641	46
47	0.3950	0.4121	0.4292	0.4462	0.4632	0.4802	0.4971	0.5140	0.5308	0.4576	0.5644	47
48	0.3953	0.4124	0.4295	0.4465	0.4635	0.4805	0.4974	0.5143	0.5311	0.5479	0.5647	48
49	0.3956	0.4127	0.4298	0.4468	0.4638	0.4807	0.4977	0.5145	0.5314	0.5482	0.5650	49
50	0.3959	0.4130	0.4300	0.4471	0.4641	0.4810	0.4979	0.5148	0.5317	0.5485	0.5652	50
51	0.3962	0.4133	0.4303	0.4474	0.4643	0.4813	0.4982	0.5151	0.5320	0.5488	0.5655	51
52	0.3965	0.4135	0.4306	0.4476	0.4646	0.4816	0.4985	0.5154	0.5322	0.5490	0.5658	52
53	0.3967	0.4138	0.4309	0.4479	0.4649	0.4819	0.4988	0.5157	0.5325	0.5493	0.5661	53
54	0.3970	0.4141	0.4312	0.4482	0.4652	0.4822	0.4991	0.5160	0.5328	0.5496	0.5664	54
55	0.3973	0.4144	0.4315	0.4485	0.4655	0.4824	0.4994	0.5162	0.5331	0.5499	0.5666	55
56	0.3976	0.4147	0.4317	0.4488	0.4658	0.4827	0.4996	0.5165	0.5334	0.5502	0.5669	56
57	0.3979	0.4150	0.4320	0.4491	0.4660	0.4830	0.4999	0.5168	0.5336	0.5504	0.5672	57
58	0.3982	0.4153	0.4323	0.4493	0.4663	0.4833	0.5002	0.5171	0.5339	0.5507	0.5675	58
59	0.3985	0.4155	0.4326	0.4496	0.4666	0.4836	0.5005	0.5174	0.5342	0.5510	0.5678	59
60	0.3987	0.4158	0.4329	0.4499	0.4669	0.4838	0.5008	0.5176	0.5345	0.5513	0.5680	60

Table of Chords (Continued). Radius = 1.0000

M.	33°	34°	35°	36°	37°	38°	39°	40°	41°	42°	43°	M.
0′	0.5680	0.5847	0.6014	0.6180	0.6346	0.6511	0.6676	0.6840	0.7004	0.7167	0.7330	0′
1	0.5683	0.5850	0.6017	0.6183	0.6349	0.6514	0.6679	0.6843	0.7007	0.7170	0.7333	1
2	0.5686	0.5853	0.6020	0.6186	0.6352	0.6517	0.6682	0.6846	0.7010	0.7173	0.7335	2
3	0.5689	0.5856	0.6022	0.6189	0.6354	0.6520	0.6684	0.6849	0.7012	0.7176	0.7338	3
4	0.5691	0.5859	0.6025	0.6191	0.6357	0.6522	0.6687	0.6851	0.7015	0.7178	0.7341	4
5	0.5694	0.5861	0.6028	0.6194	0.6360	0.6525	0.6690	0.6854	0.7018	0.7181	0.7344	5
6	0.5697	0.5864	0.6031	0.6197	0.6363	0.6528	0.6693	0.6857	0.7020	0.7184	0.7346	6
7	0.5700	0.5867	0.6034	0.6200	0.6365	0.6531	0.6695	0.6860	0.7023	0.7186	0.7349	7
8	0.5703	0.5870	0.6036	0.6202	0.6368	0.6533	0.6698	0.6862	0.7026	0.7189	0.7352	8
9	0.5705	0.5872	0.6039	0.6205	0.6371	0.6536	0.6701	0.6865	0.7029	0.7192	0.7354	9
10	0.5708	0.5875	0.6042	0.6208	0.6374	0.6539	0.6704	0.6868	0.7031	0.7195	0.7357	10
11	0.5711	0.5878	0.6045	0.6211	0.6376	0.6542	0.6706	0.6870	0.7034	0.7197	0.7360	11
12	0.5714	0.5881	0.6047	0.6214	0.6379	0.6544	0.6709	0.6873	0.7037	0.7200	0.7362	12
13	0.5717	0.5884	0.6050	0.6216	0.6382	0.6547	0.6712	0.6876	0.7040	0.7203	0.7365	13
14	0.5719	0.5886	0.6053	0.6219	0.6385	0.6550	0.6715	0.6879	0.7042	0.7205	0.7368	14
15	0.5722	0.5889	0.6056	0.6222	0.6387	0.6553	0.6717	0.6881	0.7045	0.7208	0.7371	15
16	0.5725	0.5892	0.6058	0.6225	0.6390	0.6555	0.6720	0.6884	0.7048	0.7211	0.7373	16
17	0.5728	0.5895	0.6061	0.6227	0.6393	0.6558	0.6723	0.6887	0.7050	0.7214	0.7376	17
18	0.5730	0.5897	0.6064	0.6230	0.6396	0.6561	0.6725	0.6890	0.7053	0.7216	0.7379	18
19	0.5733	0.5900	0.6067	0.6233	0.6398	0.6564	0.6728	0.6892	0.7056	0.7219	0.7381	19
20	0.5736	0.5903	0.6070	0.6236	0.6401	0.6566	0.6731	0.6895	0.7059	0.7222	0.7384	20
21	0.5739	0.5906	0.6072	0.6238	0.6404	0.6569	0.6734	0.6898	0.7061	0.7224	0.7387	21
22	0.5742	0.5909	0.6075	0.6241	0.6407	0.6572	0.6736	0.6901	0.7064	0.7227	0.7390	22
23	0.5744	0.5911	0.6078	0.6244	0.6410	0.6575	0.6739	0.6903	0.7067	0.7230	0.7392	23
24	0.5747	0.5914	0.6081	0.6247	0.6412	0.6577	0.6742	0.6906	0.7069	0.7232	0.7395	24
25	0.5750	0.5917	0.6083	0.6249	0.6415	0.6580	0.6745	0.6909	0.7072	0.7235	0.7398	25
26	0.5753	0.5920	0.6086	0.6252	0.6418	0.6583	0.6747	0.6911	0.7075	0.7238	0.7400	26
27	0.5756	0.5922	0.6089	0.6255	0.6421	0.6586	0.6750	0.6914	0.7078	0.7241	0.7403	27
28	0.5758	0.5925	0.6092	0.6258	0.6423	0.6588	0.6753	0.6917	0.7080	0.7243	0.7406	28
29	0.5761	0.5928	0.6095	0.6260	0.6426	0.6591	0.6756	0.6920	0.7083	0.7246	0.7408	29
30	0.5764	0.5931	0.6097	0.6263	0.6429	0.6594	0.6758	0.6922	0.7086	0.7249	0.7411	30
31	0.5767	0.5934	0.6100	0.6266	0.6432	0.6597	0.6761	0.6925	0.7089	0.7251	0.7414	31
32	0.5769	0.5936	0.6103	0.6269	0.6434	0.6599	0.6764	0.6928	0.7091	0.7254	0.7417	32
33	0.5772	0.5939	0.6106	0.6272	0.6437	0.6602	0.6767	0.6931	0.7094	0.7257	0.7419	33
34	0.5775	0.5942	0.6108	0.6274	0.6440	0.6605	0.6769	0.6933	0.7097	0.7260	0.7422	34
35	0.5778	0.5945	0.6111	0.6277	0.6443	0.6608	0.6772	0.6936	0.7099	0.7262	0.7425	35
36	0.5781	0.5947	0.6114	0.6280	0.6445	0.6610	0.6775	0.6939	0.7102	0.7265	0.7427	36
37	0.5783	0.5950	0.6117	0.6283	0.6448	0.6613	0.6777	0.6941	0.7105	0.7268	0.7430	37
38	0.5786	0.5953	0.6119	0.6285	0.6451	0.6616	0.6780	0.6944	0.7108	0.7270	0.7433	38
39	0.5789	0.5956	0.6122	0.6288	0.6454	0.6619	0.6783	0.6947	0.7110	0.7273	0.7435	39
40	0.5792	0.5959	0.6125	0.6291	0.6456	0.6621	0.6786	0.6950	0.7113	0.7276	0.7438	40
41	0.5795	0.5961	0.6128	0.6294	0.6459	0.6624	0.6788	0.6952	0.7116	0.7279	0.7441	41
42	0.5797	0.5964	0.6130	0.6296	0.6462	0.6627	0.6791	0.6955	0.7118	0.7281	0.7443	42
43	0.5800	0.5967	0.6133	0.6299	0.6465	0.6630	0.6794	0.6958	0.7121	0.7284	0.7446	43
44	0.5803	0.5970	0.6136	0.6302	0.6467	0.6632	0.6797	0.6961	0.7124	0.7287	0.7449	44
45	0.5806	0.5972	0.6139	0.6305	0.6470	0.6635	0.6799	0.6963	0.7127	0.7289	0.7452	45
46	0.5808	0.5975	0.6142	0.6307	0.6473	0.6638	0.6802	0.6966	0.7129	0.7292	0.7454	46
47	0.5811	0.5978	0.6144	0.6310	0.6476	0.6640	0.6805	0.6969	0.7132	0.7295	0.7457	47
48	0.5814	0.5981	0.6147	0.6313	0.6478	0.6643	0.6808	0.6971	0.7135	0.7298	0.7460	48
49	0.5817	0.5984	0.6150	0.6316	0.6481	0.6646	0.6810	0.6974	0.7137	0.7300	0.7462	49
50	0.5820	0.5986	0.6153	0.6318	0.6484	0.6649	0.6813	0.6977	0.7140	0.7303	0.7465	50
51	0.5822	0.5989	0.6155	0.6321	0.6487	0.6651	0.6816	0.6980	0.7143	0.7306	0.7468	51
52	0.5825	0.5992	0.6158	0.6324	0.6489	0.6654	0.6819	0.6982	0.7146	0.7308	0.7471	52
53	0.5828	0.5995	0.6161	0.6327	0.6492	0.6657	0.6821	0.6985	0.7148	0.7311	0.7473	53
54	0.5831	0.5997	0.6164	0.6330	0.6495	0.6660	0.6824	0.6988	0.7151	0.7314	0.7476	54
55	0.5834	0.6000	0.6166	0.6332	0.6498	0.6662	0.6827	0.6991	0.7154	0.7316	0.7479	55
56	0.5836	0.6003	0.6169	0.6335	0.6500	0.6665	0.6829	0.6993	0.7156	0.7319	0.7481	56
57	0.5839	0.6006	0.6172	0.6338	0.6503	0.6668	0.6832	0.6996	0.7159	0.7322	0.7484	57
58	0.5842	0.6009	0.6175	0.6341	0.6506	0.6671	0.6835	0.6999	0.7162	0.7325	0.7487	58
59	0.5845	0.6011	0.6178	0.6343	0.6509	0.6673	0.6838	0.7001	0.7165	0.7327	0.7489	59
60	0.5847	0.6014	0.6180	0.6346	0.6511	0.6676	0.6840	0.7004	0.7167	0.7330	0.7492	60

Table of Chords (Continued). Radius = 1.0000

M.	44°	45°	46°	47°	48°	49°	50°	51°	52°	53°	54°
0′	0.7492	0.7654	0.7815	0.7975	0.8135	0.8294	0.8452	0.8610	0.8767	0.8924	0.9080
1	0.7495	0.7656	0.7817	0.7978	0.8137	0.8297	0.8455	0.8613	0.8770	0.8927	0.9082
2	0.7498	0.7659	0.7820	0.7980	0.8140	0.8299	0.8458	0.8615	0.8773	0.8929	0.9085
3	0.7500	0.7662	0.7823	0.7983	0.8143	0.8302	0.8460	0.8618	0.8775	0.8932	0.9088
4	0.7503	0.7664	0.7825	0.7986	0.8145	0.8304	0.8463	0.8621	0.8778	0.8934	0.9090
5	0.7506	0.7667	0.7828	0.7988	0.8148	0.8307	0.8466	0.8623	0.8780	0.8937	0.9093
6	0.7508	0.7670	0.7831	0.7991	0.8151	0.8310	0.8468	0.8626	0.8783	0.8940	0.9095
7	0.7511	0.7672	0.7833	0.7994	0.8153	0.8312	0.8471	0.8629	0.8786	0.8942	0.9098
8	0.7514	0.7675	0.7836	0.7996	0.8156	0.8315	0.8473	0.8631	0.8788	0.8945	0.9101
9	0.7516	0.7678	0.7839	0.7999	0.8159	0.8318	0.8476	0.8634	0.8791	0.8947	0.9103
10	0.7519	0.7681	0.7841	0.8002	0.8161	0.8320	0.8479	0.8636	0.8794	0.8950	0.9106
11	0.7522	0.7683	0.7844	0.8004	0.8164	0.8323	0.8481	0.8639	0.8796	0.8953	0.9108
12	0.7524	0.7686	0.7847	0.8007	0.8167	0.8326	0.8484	0.8642	0.8799	0.8955	0.9111
13	0.7527	0.7689	0.7849	0.8010	0.8169	0.8328	0.8487	0.8644	0.8801	0.8958	0.9113
14	0.7530	0.7691	0.7852	0.8012	0.8172	0.8331	0.8489	0.8647	0.8804	0.8960	0.9116
15	0.7533	0.7694	0.7855	0.8015	0.8175	0.8334	0.8492	0.8650	0.8807	0.8963	0.9119
16	0.7535	0.7697	0.7857	0.8018	0.8177	0.8336	0.8495	0.8652	0.8809	0.8966	0.9121
17	0.7538	0.7699	0.7860	0.8020	0.8180	0.8339	0.8497	0.8655	0.8812	0.8968	0.9124
18	0.7541	0.7702	0.7863	0.8023	0.8183	0.8341	0.8500	0.8657	0.8814	0.8971	0.9126
19	0.7543	0.7705	0.7865	0.8026	0.8185	0.8344	0.8502	0.8660	0.8817	0.8973	0.9129
20	0.7546	0.7707	0.7868	0.8028	0.8188	0.8347	0.8505	0.8663	0.8820	0.8976	0.9132
21	0.7549	0.7710	0.7871	0.8031	0.8190	0.8349	0.8508	0.8665	0.8822	0.8979	0.9134
22	0.7551	0.7713	0.7873	0.8034	0.8193	0.8352	0.8510	0.8668	0.8825	0.8981	0.9137
23	0.7554	0.7715	0.7876	0.8036	0.8196	0.8355	0.8513	0.8671	0.8828	0.8984	0.9139
24	0.7557	0.7718	0.7879	0.8039	0.8198	0.8357	0.8516	0.8673	0.8830	0.8986	0.9142
25	0.7560	0.7721	0.7882	0.8042	0.8201	0.8360	0.8518	0.8676	0.8833	0.8989	0.9145
26	0.7562	0.7723	0.7884	0.8044	0.8204	0.8363	0.8521	0.8678	0.8835	0.8992	0.9147
27	0.7565	0.7726	0.7887	0.8047	0.8206	0.8365	0.8523	0.8681	0.8838	0.8994	0.9150
28	0.7568	0.7729	0.7890	0.8050	0.8209	0.8368	0.8526	0.8684	0.8841	0.8997	0.9152
29	0.7570	0.7731	0.7892	0.8052	0.8212	0.8371	0.8529	0.8686	0.8843	0.8999	0.9155
30	0.7573	0.7734	0.7895	0.8055	0.8214	0.8373	0.8531	0.8689	0.8846	0.9002	0.9157
31	0.7576	0.7737	0.7898	0.8058	0.8217	0.8376	0.8534	0.8692	0.8848	0.9005	0.9160
32	0.7578	0.7740	0.7900	0.8060	0.8220	0.8378	0.8537	0.8694	0.8851	0.9007	0.9163
33	0.7581	0.7742	0.7903	0.8063	0.8222	0.8381	0.8539	0.8697	0.8854	0.9010	0.9165
34	0.7584	0.7745	0.7906	0.8066	0.8225	0.8384	0.8542	0.8699	0.8856	0.9012	0.9168
35	0.7586	0.7748	0.7908	0.8068	0.8228	0.8386	0.8545	0.8702	0.8859	0.9015	0.9170
36	0.7589	0.7750	0.7911	0.8071	0.8230	0.8389	0.8547	0.8705	0.8861	0.9018	0.9173
37	0.7592	0.7753	0.7914	0.8074	0.8233	0.8392	0.8550	0.8707	0.8864	0.9020	0.9176
38	0.7595	0.7756	0.7916	0.8076	0.8236	0.8394	0.8552	0.8710	0.8867	0.9023	0.9178
39	0.7597	0.7758	0.7919	0.8079	0.8238	0.8397	0.8555	0.8712	0.8869	0.9025	0.9181
40	0.7600	0.7761	0.7922	0.8082	0.8241	0.8400	0.8558	0.8715	0.8872	0.9028	0.9183
41	0.7603	0.7764	0.7924	0.8084	0.8244	0.8402	0.8560	0.8718	0.8874	0.9031	0.9186
42	0.7605	0.7766	0.7927	0.8087	0.8246	0.8405	0.8563	0.8720	0.8877	0.9033	0.9188
43	0.7608	0.7769	0.7930	0.8090	0.8249	0.8408	0.8566	0.8723	0.8880	0.9036	0.9191
44	0.7611	0.7772	0.7932	0.8092	0.8251	0.8410	0.8568	0.8726	0.8882	0.9038	0.9194
45	0.7613	0.7774	0.7935	0.8095	0.8254	0.8413	0.8571	0.8728	0.8885	0.9041	0.9196
46	0.7616	0.7777	0.7938	0.8098	0.8257	0.8415	0.8573	0.8731	0.8887	0.9044	0.9199
47	0.7619	0.7780	0.7940	0.8100	0.8259	0.8418	0.8576	0.8734	0.8890	0.9046	0.9201
48	0.7621	0.7782	0.7943	0.8103	0.8262	0.8421	0.8579	0.8736	0.8803	0.9049	0.9204
49	0.7624	0.7785	0.7946	0.8105	0.8265	0.8423	0.8581	0.8739	0.8895	0.9051	0.9207
50	0.7627	0.7788	0.7948	0.8108	0.8267	0.8426	0.8584	0.8741	0.8898	0.9054	0.9209
51	0.7629	0.7791	0.7951	0.8111	0.8270	0.8429	0.8587	0.8744	0.8900	0.9056	0.9212
52	0.7632	0.7793	0.7954	0.8113	0.8273	0.8431	0.8589	0.8747	0.8903	0.9059	0.9214
53	0.7635	0.7796	0.7956	0.8116	0.8275	0.8434	0.8592	0.8749	0.8906	0.9062	0.9217
54	0.7638	0.7799	0.7959	0.8119	0.8278	0.8437	0.8594	0.8752	0.8908	0.9064	0.9219
55	0.7640	0.7801	0.7962	0.8121	0.8281	0.8439	0.8597	0.8754	0.8911	0.9067	0.9222
56	0.7643	0.7804	0.7964	0.8124	0.8283	0.8442	0.8600	0.8757	0.8914	0.9069	0.9225
57	0.7646	0.7807	0.7967	0.8127	0.8286	0.8444	0.8602	0.8760	0.8916	0.9072	0.9227
58	0.7648	0.7809	0.7970	0.8129	0.8289	0.8447	0.8605	0.8762	0.8919	0.9075	0.9230
59	0.7651	0.7812	0.7972	0.8132	0.8291	0.8450	0.8608	0.8765	0.8921	0.9077	0.9232
60	0.7654	0.7815	0.7975	0.8135	0.8294	0.8452	0.8610	0.8767	0.8924	0.9080	0.9235

Table of Chords (Continued). Radius = 1.0000

M.	55°	56°	57°	58°	59°	60°	61°	62°	63°	64°	M.
0′	0.9235	0.9389	0.9543	0.9696	0.9848	1.0000	1.0151	1.0301	1.0450	1.0598	0′
1	0.9238	0.9392	0.9546	0.9699	0.9851	1.0003	1.0153	1.0303	1.0452	1.0601	1
2	0.9240	0.9395	0.9548	0.9701	0.9854	1.0005	1.0156	1.0306	1.0455	1.0603	2
3	0.9243	0.9397	0.9551	0.9704	0.9856	1.0008	1.0158	1.0308	1.0457	1.0606	3
4	0.9245	0.9400	0.9553	0.9706	0.9859	1.0010	1.0161	1.0311	1.0460	1.0608	4
5	0.9248	0.9402	0.9556	0.9709	0.9861	1.0013	1.0163	1.0313	1.0462	1.0611	5
6	0.9250	0.9405	0.9559	0.9711	0.9864	1.0015	1.0166	1.0316	1.0465	1.0613	6
7	0.9253	0.9407	0.9561	0.9714	0.9866	1.0018	1.0168	1.0318	1.0467	1.0616	7
8	0.9256	0.9410	0.9564	0.9717	0.9869	1.0020	1.0171	1.0321	1.0470	1.0618	8
9	0.9258	0.9413	0.9566	0.9719	0.9871	1.0023	1.0173	1.0323	1.0472	1.0621	9
10	0.9261	0.9415	0.9569	0.9722	0.9874	1.0025	1.0176	1.0326	1.0475	1.0623	10
11	0.9263	0.9418	0.9571	0.9724	0.9876	1.0028	1.0178	1.0328	1.0477	1.0626	11
12	0.9266	0.9420	0.9574	0.9727	0.9879	1.0030	1.0181	1.0331	1.0480	1.0628	12
13	0.9268	0.9423	0.9576	0.9729	0.9881	1.0033	1.0183	1.0333	1.0482	1.0630	13
14	0.9271	0.9425	0.9579	0.9732	0.9884	1.0035	1.0186	1.0336	1.0485	1.0633	14
15	0.9274	0.9428	0.9581	0.9734	0.9886	1.0038	1.0188	1.0338	1.0487	1.0635	15
16	0.9276	0.9430	0.9584	0.9737	0.9889	1.0040	1.0191	1.0341	1.0490	1.0638	16
17	0.9279	0.9433	0.9587	0.9739	0.9891	1.0043	1.0193	1.0343	1.0492	1.0640	17
18	0.9281	0.9436	0.9589	0.9742	0.9894	1.0045	1.0196	1.0346	1.0495	1.0643	18
19	0.9284	0.9438	0.9592	0.9744	0.9897	1.0048	1.0198	1.0348	1.0497	1.0645	19
20	0.9287	0.9441	0.9594	0.9747	0.9899	1.0050	1.0201	1.0351	1.0500	1.0648	20
21	0.9289	0.9443	0.9597	0.9750	0.9902	1.0053	1.0203	1.0353	1.0502	1.0650	21
22	0.9292	0.9446	0.9599	0.9752	0.9904	1.0055	1.0206	1.0356	1.0504	1.0653	22
23	0.9294	0.9448	0.9602	0.9755	0.9907	1.0058	1.0208	1.0358	1.0507	1.0655	23
24	0.9297	0.9451	0.9604	0.9757	0.9909	1.0060	1.0211	1.0361	1.0509	1.0658	24
25	0.9299	0.9454	0.9607	0.9760	0.9912	1.0063	1.0213	1.0363	1.0512	1.0660	25
26	0.9302	0.9456	0.9610	0.9762	0.9914	1.0065	1.0216	1.0366	1.0514	1.0662	26
27	0.9305	0.9459	0.9612	0.9765	0.9917	1.0068	1.0218	1.0368	1.0517	1.0665	27
28	0.9307	0.9461	0.9615	0.9767	0.9919	1.0070	1.0221	1.0370	1.0519	1.0667	28
29	0.9310	0.9464	0.9617	0.9770	0.9922	1.0073	1.0223	1.0373	1.0522	1.0670	29
30	0.9312	0.9466	0.9620	0.9772	0.9924	1.0075	1.0226	1.0375	1.0524	1.0672	30
31	0.9315	0.9469	0.9622	0.9775	0.9927	1.0078	1.0228	1.0378	1.0527	1.0675	31
32	0.9317	0.9472	0.9625	0.9778	0.9929	1.0080	1.0231	1.0380	1.0529	1.0677	32
33	0.9320	0.9474	0.9627	0.9780	0.9932	1.0083	1.0233	1.0383	1.0532	1.0680	33
34	0.9323	0.9477	0.9630	9.9783	0.9934	1.0086	1.0236	1.0385	1.0534	1.0682	34
35	0.9325	0.9479	0.9633	0.9785	0.9937	1.0088	1.0238	1.0388	1.0537	1.0685	35
36	0.9328	0.9482	0.9635	0.9788	0.9939	1.0091	1.0241	1.0390	1.0539	1.0687	36
37	0.9330	0.9484	0.9638	0.9790	0.9942	1.0093	1.0243	1.0393	1.0542	1.0690	37
38	0.9333	0.9487	0.9640	0.9793	0.9945	1.0096	1.0246	1.0395	1.0544	1.0692	38
39	0.9335	0.9489	0.9643	0.9795	0.9947	1.0098	1.0248	1.0398	1.0547	1.0694	39
40	0.9338	0.9492	0.9645	0.9798	0.9950	1.0101	1.0251	1.0400	1.0549	1.0697	40
41	0.9341	0.9495	0.9648	0.9800	0.9952	1.0103	1.0253	1.0403	1.0551	1.0699	41
42	0.9343	0.9497	0.9650	0.9803	0.9955	1.0106	1.0256	1.0405	1.0554	1.0702	42
43	0.9346	0.9500	0.9653	0.9805	0.9957	1.0108	1.0258	1.0408	1.0556	1.0704	43
44	0.9348	0.9502	0.9655	0.9808	0.9960	1.0111	1.0261	1.0410	1.0559	1.0707	44
45	0.9351	0.9505	0.9658	0.9810	0.9962	1.0113	1.0263	1.0413	1.0561	1.0709	45
46	0.9353	0.9507	0.9661	0.9813	0.9965	1.0116	1.0266	1.0415	1.0564	1.0712	46
47	0.9356	0.9510	0.9663	0.9816	0.9967	1.0118	1.0268	1.0418	1.0566	1.0714	47
48	0.9359	0.9512	0.9666	0.9818	0.9970	1.0121	1.0271	1.0420	1.0569	1.0717	48
49	0.9361	0.9515	0.9668	0.9821	0.9972	1.0123	1.0273	1.0423	1.0571	1.0719	49
50	0.9364	0.9518	0.9671	0.9823	0.9975	1.0126	1.0276	1.0425	1.0574	1.0721	50
51	0.9366	0.9520	0.9673	0.9826	0.9977	1.0128	1.0278	1.0428	1.0576	1.0724	51
52	0.9369	0.9523	0.9676	0.9828	0.9980	1.0131	1.0281	1.0430	1.0579	1.0726	52
53	0.9371	0.9525	0.9678	0.9831	0.9982	1.0133	1.0283	1.0433	1.0581	1.0729	53
54	0.9374	0.9528	0.9681	0.9833	0.9985	1.0136	1.0286	1.0435	1.0584	1.0731	54
55	0.9377	0.9530	0.9683	0.9836	0.9987	1.0138	1.0288	1.0438	1.0586	1.0734	55
56	0.9379	0.9533	0.9686	0.9838	0.9990	1.0141	1.0291	1.0440	1.0589	1.0736	56
57	0.9382	0.9536	0.9689	0.9841	0.9992	1.0143	1.0293	1.0443	1.0591	1.0739	57
58	0.9384	0.9538	0.9691	0.9843	0.9995	1.0146	1.0296	1.0445	1.0593	1.0741	58
59	0.9387	0.9541	0.9694	0.9846	0.9998	1.0148	1.0298	1.0447	1.0596	1.0744	59
60	0.9389	0.9543	0.9696	0.9848	1.0000	1.0151	1.0301	1.0450	1.0598	1.0746	60

Table of Chords (Continued). Radius = 1.0000

M	65°	66°	67°	68°	69°	70°	71°	72°
	1.0746	1.0893	1.1039	1.1184	1.1328	1.1472	1.1614	1.1756
	1.0748	1.0895	1.1041	1.1186	1.1331	1.1474	1.1616	1.1758
	1.0751	1.0898	1.1044	1.1189	1.1333	1.1476	1.1619	1.1760
	1.0753	1.0900	1.1046	1.1191	1.1335	1.1479	1.1621	1.1763
	1.0756	1.0903	1.1048	1.1194	1.1338	1.1481	1.1624	1.1765
	1.0758	1.0905	1.1051	1.1196	1.1340	1.1483	1.1626	1.1767
	1.0761	1.0907	1.1053	1.1198	1.1342	1.1486	1.1628	1.1770
	1.0763	1.0910	1.1056	1.1201	1.1345	1.1488	1.1631	1.1772
	1.0766	1.0912	1.1058	1.1203	1.1347	1.1491	1.1633	1.1775
	1.0768	1.0915	1.1016	1.1206	1.1350	1.1493	1.1635	1.1777
	1.0771	1.0917	1.1063	1.1208	1.1352	1.1495	1.1638	1.1779
	1.0773	1.0920	1.1065	1.1210	1.1354	1.1498	1.1640	1.1782
	1.0775	1.0922	1.1068	1.1213	1.1357	1.1500	1.1642	1.1784
	1.0778	1.0924	1.1070	1.1215	1.1359	1.1502	1.1645	1.1786
	1.0780	1.0927	1.1073	1.1218	1.1362	1.1505	1.1647	1.1789
	1.0783	1.0929	1.1075	1.1220	1.1364	1.1507	1.1650	1.1791
	1.0785	1.0932	1.1078	1.1222	1.1366	1.1510	1.1652	1.1793
	1.0788	1.0934	1.1080	1.1225	1.1369	1.1512	1.1654	1.1796
	1.0790	1.0937	1.1082	1.1227	1.1371	1.1514	1.1657	1.1798
	1.0793	1.0939	1.1085	1.1230	1.1374	1.1517	1.1659	1.1800
	1.0795	1.0942	1.1087	1.1232	1.1376	1.1519	1.1661	1.1803
	1.0797	1.0944	1.1090	1.1234	1.1378	1.1522	1.1664	1.1805
	1.0800	1.0946	1.1092	1.1237	1.1381	1.1524	1.1666	1.1807
	1.0802	1.0949	1.1094	1.1239	1.1383	1.1526	1.1668	1.1810
	1.0805	1.0951	1.1097	1.1242	1.1386	1.1529	1.1671	1.1812
	1.0807	1.0954	1.1099	1.1244	1.1388	1.1531	1.1673	1.1814
	1.0810	1.0956	1.1102	1.1246	1.1390	1.1533	1.1676	1.1817
	1.0812	1.0959	1.1104	1.1249	1.1393	1.1536	1.1678	1.1819
	1.0815	1.0961	1.1107	1.1251	1.1395	1.1538	1.1680	1.1821
	1.0817	1.0963	1.1109	1.1254	1.1398	1.1541	1.1683	1.1824
	1.0820	1.0966	1.1111	1.1256	1.1400	1.1543	1.1685	1.1826
	1.0822	1.0968	1.1114	1.1258	1.1402	1.1545	1.1687	1.1829
	1.0824	1.0971	1.1116	1.1261	1.1405	1.1548	1.1690	1.1831
	1.0827	1.0973	1.1119	1.1263	1.1407	1.1550	1.1602	1.1833
	1.0829	1.0976	1.1121	1.1266	1.1409	1.1552	1.1694	1.1836
	1.0832	1.0978	1.1123	1.1268	1.1412	1.1555	1.1697	1.1838
	1.0834	1.0980	1.1126	1.1271	1.1414	1.1557	1.1699	1.1840
	1.0837	1.0983	1.1128	1.1273	1.1417	1.1560	1.1702	1.1843
	1.0839	1.0985	1.1131	1.1275	1.1419	1.1562	1.1704	1.1845
	1.0841	1.0988	1.1133	1.1278	1.1421	1.1564	1.1706	1.1847
	1.0844	1.0990	1.1136	1.1280	1.1424	1.1567	1.1709	1.1850
	1.0846	1.0993	1.1138	1.1283	1.1426	1.1569	1.1711	1.1852
	1.0849	1.0995	1.1140	1.1285	1.1429	1.1571	1.1713	1.1854
	1.0851	1.0997	1.1143	1.1287	1.1431	1.1574	1.1716	1.1857
	1.0854	1.1000	1.1145	1.1290	1.1433	1.1576	1.1718	1.1859
	1.0856	1.1002	1.1148	1.1292	1.1436	1.1579	1.1720	1.1861
	1.0859	1.1005	1.1150	1.1295	1.1438	1.1581	1.1723	1.1864
	1.0861	1.1007	1.1152	1.1297	1.1441	1.1583	1.1725	1.1866
	1.0863	1.1010	1.1155	1.1299	1.1443	1.1586	1.1727	1.1868
	1.0866	1.1012	1.1157	1.1302	1.1445	1.1588	1.1730	1.1871
	1.0868	1.1014	1.1160	1.1304	1.1448	1.1590	1.1732	1.1873
	1.0871	1.1017	1.1162	1.1307	1.1450	1.1593	1.1735	1.1875
	1.0873	1.1019	1.1165	1.1309	1.1452	1.1595	1.1737	1.1878
	1.0876	1.1022	1.1167	1.1311	1.1455	1.1598	1.1739	1.1880
	1.0878	1.1024	1.1169	1.1314	1.1457	1.1600	1.1742	1.1882
	1.0881	1.1027	1.1172	1.1316	1.1460	1.1602	1.1744	1.1885
	1.0883	1.1029	1.1174	1.1319	1.1462	1.1605	1.1746	1.1887
	1.0885	1.1031	1.1177	1.1321	1.1464	1.1607	1.1749	1.1889
	1.0888	1.1034	1.1179	1.1323	1.1467	1.1609	1.1751	1.1892
	1.0890	1.1036	1.1181	1.1326	1.1469	1.1612	1.1753	1.1894
	1.0893	1.1039	1.1184	1.1328	1.1472	1.1614	1.1756	1.1896

Table of Chords (Continued). Radius = 1.0000

74°	75°	76°	77°	78°	79°	80°	81°	82°	
1.2036	1.2175	1.2313	1.2450	1.2586	1.2722	1.2856	1.2989	1.3121	
1.2039	1.2178	1.2316	1.2453	1.2589	1.2724	1.2858	1.2991	1.3123	
1.2041	1.2180	1.2318	1.2455	1.2591	1.2726	1.2860	1.2993	1.3126	
1.2043	1.2182	1.2320	1.2457	1.2593	1.2728	1.2862	1.2996	1.3128	
1.2046	1.2184	1.2322	1.2459	1.2595	1.2731	1.2865	1.2998	1.3130	
1.2048	1.2187	1.2325	1.2462	1.2598	1.2733	1.2867	1.3000	1.3132	
1.2050	1.2189	1.2327	1.2464	1.2600	1.2735	1.2869	1.3002	1.3134	
1.2053	1.2191	1.2329	1.2466	1.2602	1.2737	1.2871	1.3004	1.3137	
1.2055	1.2194	1.2332	1.2468	1.2604	1.2740	1.2874	1.3007	1.3139	
1.2057	1.2196	1.2334	1.2471	1.2607	1.2742	1.2876	1.3009	1.3141	
1.2060	1.2198	1.2336	1.2473	1.2609	1.2744	1.2878	1.3011	1.3143	
1.2062	1.2201	1.2338	1.2475	1.2611	1.2746	1.2880	1.3013	1.3145	
1.2064	1.2203	1.2341	1.2478	1.2614	1.2748	1.2882	1.3015	1.3147	
1.2066	1.2205	1.2343	1.2480	1.2616	1.2751	1.2885	1.3018	1.3150	
1.2069	1.2208	1.2345	1.2482	1.2618	1.2753	1.2887	1.3020	1.3152	
1.2071	1.2210	1.2348	1.2484	1.2620	1.2755	1.2889	1.3022	1.3154	
1.2073	1.2212	1.2350	1.2487	1.2623	1.2757	1.2891	1.3024	1.3156	
1.2076	1.2214	1.2352	1.2489	1.2625	1.2760	1.2894	1.3027	1.3158	
1.2078	1.2217	1.2354	1.2491	1.2627	1.2762	1.2896	1.3029	1.3161	
1.2080	1.2219	1.2357	1.2493	1.2629	1.2764	1.2898	1.3031	1.3163	
1.2083	1.2221	1.2359	1.2496	1.2632	1.2766	1.2900	1.3033	1.3165	
1.2085	1.2224	1.2361	1.2498	1.2634	1.2769	1.2903	1.3035	1.3167	21
1.2087	1.2226	1.2364	1.2500	1.2636	1.2771	1.2905	1.3038	1.3169	22
1.2090	1.2228	1.2366	1.2503	1.2638	1.2773	1.2907	1.3040	1.3172	23
1.2092	1.2231	1.2368	1.2505	1.2641	1.2775	1.2909	1.3042	1.3174	24
1.2094	1.2233	1.2370	1.2507	1.2643	1.2778	1.2911	1.3044	1.3176	25
1.2097	1.2235	1.2373	1.2509	1.2645	1.2780	1.2914	1.3046	1.3178	26
1.2099	1.2237	1.2375	1.2512	1.2648	1.2782	1.2916	1.3049	1.3180	27
1.2101	1.2240	1.2377	1.2514	1.2650	1.2784	1.2918	1.3051	1.3183	28
1.2104	1.2242	1.2380	1.2516	1.2652	1.2787	1.2920	1.3053	1.3185	29
1.2106	1.2244	1.2382	1.2518	1.2654	1.2789	1.2922	1.3055	1.3187	30
1.2108	1.2247	1.2384	1.2521	1.2656	1.2791	1.2925	1.3057	1.3189	31
1.2111	1.2249	1.2386	1.2523	1.2659	1.2793	1.2927	1.3060	1.3191	32
1.2113	1.2251	1.2389	1.2525	1.2661	1.2795	1.2929	1.3062	1.3193	33
1.2115	1.2254	1.2391	1.2528	1.2663	1.2798	1.2931	1.3064	1.3196	34
1.2117	1.2256	1.2393	1.2530	1.2665	1.2800	1.2934	1.3066	1.3198	35
1.2120	1.2258	1.2396	1.2532	1.2668	1.2802	1.2936	1.3068	1.3200	36
1.2122	1.2260	1.2398	1.2534	1.2670	1.2804	1.2938	1.3071	1.3202	37
1.2124	1.2263	1.2400	1.2537	1.2672	1.2807	1.2940	1.3073	1.3204	38
1.2127	1.2265	1.2402	1.2539	1.2674	1.2809	1.2942	1.3075	1.3207	39
1.2129	1.2267	1.2405	1.2541	1.2677	1.2811	1.2945	1.3077	1.3209	40
1.2131	1.2270	1.2407	1.2543	1.2679	1.2813	1.2947	1.3079	1.3211	41
1.2134	1.2272	1.2409	1.2546	1.2681	1.2816	1.2949	1.3082	1.3213	42
1.2136	1.2274	1.2412	1.2548	1.2683	1.2818	1.2951	1.3084	1.3215	43
1.2138	1.2277	1.2414	1.2550	1.2686	1.2820	1.2954	1.3086	1.3218	44
1.2141	1.2279	1.2416	1.2552	1.2688	1.2822	1.2956	1.3088	1.3220	45
1.2143	1.2281	1.2418	1.2555	1.2690	1.2825	1.2958	1.3090	1.3222	46
1.2145	1.2283	1.2421	1.2557	1.2692	1.2827	1.2960	1.3093	1.3224	47
1.2148	1.2286	1.2423	1.2559	1.2695	1.2829	1.2962	1.3095	1.3226	48
1.2150	1.2288	1.2425	1.2562	1.2697	1.2831	1.2965	1.3097	1.3228	49
1.2152	1.2290	1.2428	1.2564	1.2699	1.2833	1.2967	1.3099	1.3231	50
1.2154	1.2293	1.2430	1.2566	1.2701	1.2836	1.2969	1.3101	1.3233	51
1.2157	1.2295	1.2432	1.2568	1.2704	1.2838	1.2971	1.3104	1.3235	52
1.2159	1.2297	1.2434	1.2571	1.2706	1.2840	1.2973	1.3106	1.3237	53
1.2161	1.2299	1.2437	1.2573	1.2708	1.2842	1.2976	1.3108	1.3239	54
1.2164	1.2302	1.2439	1.2575	1.2710	1.2845	1.2978	1.3110	1.3242	55
1.2166	1.2304	1.2441	1.2577	1.2713	1.2847	1.2980	1.3112	1.3244	56
1.2168	1.2306	1.2443	1.2580	1.2715	1.2849	1.2982	1.3115	1.3246	57
1.2171	1.2309	1.2446	1.2582	1.2717	1.2851	1.2985	1.3117	1.3248	58
1.2173	1.2311	1.2448	1.2584	1.2719	1.2854	1.2987	1.3119	1.3250	59
1.2175	1.2313	1.2450	1.2586	1.2722	1.2856	1.2989	1.3121	1.3252	60

Table of Chords (Concluded). Radius = 1.0000

M.	83°	84°	85°	86°	87°	88°	89°
0′	1.3252	1.3383	1.3512	1.3640	1.3767	1.3893	1.4018
1	1.3255	1.3385	1.3514	1.3642	1.3769	1.3895	1.4020
2	1.3257	1.3387	1.3516	1.3644	1.3771	1.3897	1.4022
3	1.3259	1.3389	1.3518	1.3646	1.3773	1.3899	1.4024
4	1.3261	1.3391	1.3520	1.3648	1.3776	1.3902	1.4026
5	1.3263	1.3393	1.3523	1.3651	1.3778	1.3904	1.4029
6	1.3265	1.3396	1.3525	1.3653	1.3780	1.3906	1.4031
7	1.3268	1.3398	1.3527	1.3655	1.3782	1.3908	1.4033
8	1.3270	1.3400	1.3529	1.3657	1.3784	1.3910	1.4035
9	1.3272	1.3402	1.3531	1.3659	1.3786	1.3912	1.4037
10	1.3274	1.3404	1.3533	1.3661	1.3788	1.3914	1.4039
11	1.3276	1.3406	1.3535	1.3663	1.3790	1.3916	1.4041
12	1.3279	1.3409	1.3538	1.3665	1.3792	1.3918	1.4043
13	1.3281	1.3411	1.3540	1.3668	1.3794	1.3920	1.4045
14	1.3283	1.3413	1.3542	1.3670	1.3797	1.3922	1.4047
15	1.3285	1.3415	1.3544	1.3672	1.3799	1.3925	1.4049
16	1.3287	1.3417	1.3546	1.3674	1.3801	1.3927	1.4051
17	1.3289	1.3419	1.3548	1.3676	1.3803	1.3929	1.4053
18	1.3292	1.3421	1.3550	1.3678	1.3805	1.3931	1.4055
19	1.3294	1.3424	1.3552	1.3680	1.3807	1.3933	1.4058
20	1.3296	1.3426	1.3555	1.3682	1.3809	1.3935	1.4060
21	1.3298	1.3428	1.3557	1.3685	1.3811	1.3937	1.4062
22	1.3300	1.3430	1.3559	1.3687	1.3813	1.3939	1.4064
23	1.3302	1.3432	1.3561	1.3689	1.3816	1.3941	1.4066
24	1.3305	1 3434	1.3563	1.3691	1.3818	1.3943	1.4068
25	1.3307	1.3437	1.3565	1.3693	1.3820	1.3945	1.4070
26	1.3309	1.3439	1.3567	1.3695	1.3822	1.3947	1.4072
27	1.3311	1.3441	1.3570	1.3697	1.3824	1.3950	1.4074
28	1.3313	1.3443	1.3572	1.3699	1.3826	1.3952	1.4076
29	1.3315	1.3445	1.3574	1.3702	1.3828	1.3954	1.4078
30	1.3318	1.3447	1.3576	1.3704	1.3830	1.3956	1.4080
31	1.3320	1.3449	1.3578	1.3706	1.3832	1.3958	1.4082
32	1.3322	1.3452	1.3580	1.3708	1.3834	1.3960	1.4084
33	1.3324	1.3454	1.3582	1.3710	1.3837	1.3962	1.4086
34	1.3326	1.3456	1.3585	1.3712	1.3839	1.3964	1.4089
35	1.3328	1.3458	1 3587	1.3714	1.3841	1.3966	1.4091
36	1.3331	1.3460	1.3589	1.3716	1.3843	1.3968	1.4093
37	1.3333	1.3462	1.3591	1.3718	1.3845	1.3970	1.4095
38	1.3335	1.3465	1.3593	1.3721	1.3847	1.3972	1.4097
39	1.3337	1.3467	1.3595	1.3723	1.3849	1.3975	1.4099
40	1.3339	1.3469	1.3597	1.3725	1.3851	1.3977	1.4101
41	1.3341	1.3471	1.3599	1.3727	1.3853	1.3979	1.4103
42	1.3344	1.3473	1.3602	1.3729	1.3855	1.3981	1.4105
43	1.3346	1.3475	1.3604	1.3731	1.3858	1.3983	1.4107
44	1.3348	1.3477	1.3606	1.3733	1.3860	1.3985	1.4109
45	1.3350	1.3480	1.3608	1.3735	1.3862	1.3987	1.4111
46	1.3352	1.3482	1.3610	1.3738	1.3864	1.3989	1.4113
47	1.3354	1.3484	1.3612	1.3740	1.3866	1.3991	1.4115
48	1.3357	1.3486	1.3614	1.3742	1.3868	1.3993	1.4117
49	1.3359	1.3488	1.3617	1.3744	1.3870	1.3995	1.4119
50	1.3361	1.3490	1.3619	1.3746	1.3872	1.3997	1.4122
51	1.3363	1.3492	1.3621	1.3748	1.3874	1.3999	1.4124
52	1.3365	1.3495	1.3623	1.3750	1.3876	1.4002	1.4126
53	1.3367	1.3497	1.3625	1.3752	1.3879	1.4004	1.4128
54	1.3370	1.3499	1.3627	1.3754	1.3881	1.4006	1.4130
55	1.3372	1.3501	1.3629	1.3757	1.3883	1.4008	1.4132
56	1.3374	1.3503	1.3631	1.3759	1.3885	1.4010	1.4134
57	1 3376	1.3505	1.3634	1.3761	1.3887	1.4012	1.4136
58	1.3378	1.3508	1.3636	1.3763	1.3889	1.4014	1.4138
59	1.3380	1.3510	1.3638	1.3765	1.3891	1.4016	1.4140
60	1.3383	1.3512	1.3640	1.3767	1.3893	1.4018	1.4142

Lengths and Bevels of Hip-Rafters and Jack-Rafters

Method of Determining the Lengths and Bevels. The lines *ab* and *bc* (Fig. 92) represent the outside of the walls at the angle of a building; *be* is the seat of the hip-rafter and *gf* of a jack-rafter. Draw *eh* at right-angles to *be* and make it equal to the rise of the roof; join *b* and *h* and *hb* will be the length of the hip-rafter. Through *e* draw *di* at right-angles to *bc*. With *b* as a center and with the radius *bh*, describe the arc *hi*, cutting *di* in *i*. Join *b* and *i* and extend *gf* to meet *bi* in *j*; then *gj* is the length of the jack-rafter. The length of each jack-rafter is found in the same manner, by extending its seat to cut the line *bi*. From *f* draw *fk* at right-angles to *fg*; also *fl* at right-angles to *be*. Make *fk* equal to *fl* by the arc *lk*, or make *gk* equal to *gj* by the arc *jk*; then the angle at *j* is the TOP BEVEL of the jack-rafters, and the angle at *k* the DOWN BEVEL.

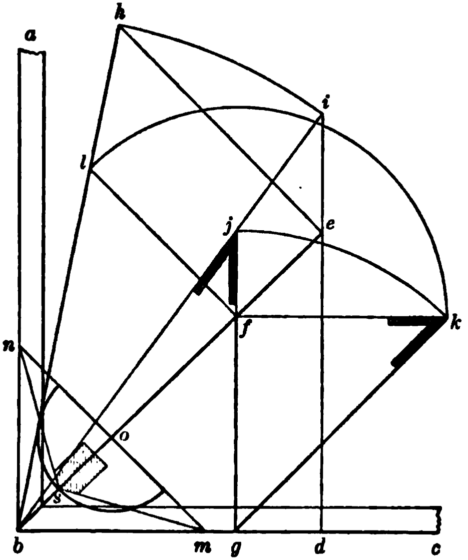

Fig. 92. Lengths and Bevels of Hip-rafters and Jack-rafters

Backing of the Hip-Rafter. At any convenient point in *be* (Fig. 92), as *o*, draw *mn* at right-angles to *be*. From *o* describe a circle, tangent to *bh*, cutting *be* in *s*. Join *m* and *s* and *n* and *s*. The lines *ms* and *ns* form at *s* the proper angle for beveling the top of the hip-rafter.

5. TRIGONOMETRY

It is not the purpose of the author to teach the principles or uses of trigonometry; but for the benefit of those readers who have already acquired a knowledge of this science, the following convenient formulas and tables of natural sines, cosines, tangents and cotangents have been inserted. To those who know how to apply these trigonometric functions, they will often be found of great convenience and utility. These tables are taken, by permission, from Searle's Field Engineering, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., publishers.

Trigonometric Functions

Let A (Fig. 93) = angle BAC = arc BF and let the radius $AF = AB = AH = 1$
Then

$\sin A = BC$
$\cos A = AC$
$\tan A = DF$
$\cot A = HG$
$\sec A = AD$
$\operatorname{cosec} A = AG$
$\operatorname{versin} A = CF = BE$
$\operatorname{covers} A = BK = HL$
$\operatorname{exsec} A = BD$
$\operatorname{coexsec} A = BG$
$\operatorname{chord} A = BF$
$\operatorname{chord} 2A = BI = 2BC$

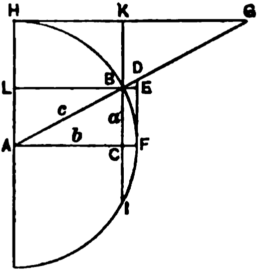

Fig. 93.— Functions of Right-angled Triangle

In the right-angled triangle ABC (Fig. 93) let $AB = c$, $AC = b$ and $BC = a$
Then

(1) $\sin A = \frac{a}{c} = \cos B$

(2) $\cos A = \frac{b}{c} = \sin B$

(3) $\tan A = \frac{a}{b} = \cot B$

(4) $\cot A = \frac{b}{a} = \tan B$

(5) $\sec A = \frac{c}{b} = \operatorname{cosec} B$

(6) $\operatorname{cosec} A = \frac{c}{a} = \sec B$

(7) $\operatorname{vers} A = \frac{c-b}{c} = \operatorname{covers} B$

(8) $\operatorname{exsec} A = \frac{c-b}{b} = \operatorname{coexsec} B$

(9) $\operatorname{covers} A = \frac{c-a}{c} = \operatorname{versin} B$

(10) $\operatorname{coexsec} A = \frac{c-a}{a} = \operatorname{exsec} B$

(11) $a = c \sin A = b \tan A$

(12) $b = c \cos A = a \cot A$

(13) $c = \frac{a}{\sin A} = \frac{b}{\cos A}$

(14) $a = c \cos B = b \cot B$

(15) $b = c \sin B = a \tan B$

(16) $c = \frac{a}{\cos B} = \frac{b}{\sin B}$

(17) $a = \sqrt{(c+b)(c-b)}$

(18) $b = \sqrt{(c+a)(c-a)}$

(19) $c = \sqrt{a^2+b^2}$

(20) $C = 90° = A + B$

(21) $\text{area} = \frac{ab}{2}$

Solution of Oblique Triangles

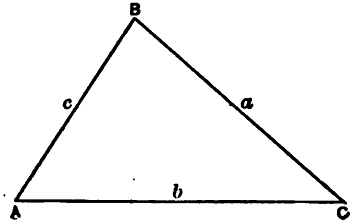

Fig. 94. Oblique-angled Triangle

	Given	Required	Formulas
(22)	A, B, a	C, b, c	$C = 180° - (A + B)$ $\quad b = \frac{a}{\sin A} \cdot \sin B$ $c = \frac{a}{\sin A} \sin (A + B)$
(23)	A, a, b	B, C, c	$\sin B = \frac{\sin A}{a} \cdot b$ $\quad C = 180° - (A + B)$ $c = \frac{a}{\sin A} \cdot \sin C$
(24)	C, a, b	$\frac{1}{2}(A + B)$	$\frac{1}{2}(A + B) = 90° - \frac{1}{2}C$
(25)	....	$\frac{1}{2}(A - B)$	$\tan \frac{1}{2}(A - B) = \frac{a - b}{a + b} \tan \frac{1}{2}(A + B)$
(26)	....	A, B	$A = \frac{1}{2}(A + B) + \frac{1}{2}(A - B)$ $B = \frac{1}{2}(A + B) - \frac{1}{2}(A - B)$
(27)	....	c	$c = (a + b) \frac{\cos \frac{1}{2}(A + B)}{\cos \frac{1}{2}(A - B)} = (a - b) \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2}(A + B)}{\sin \frac{1}{2}(A - B)}$
(28)	....	Area	$K = \frac{1}{2} ab \sin C$
(29)	a, b, c	A	Let $s = \frac{1}{2}(a + b + c)$; $\quad \sin \frac{1}{2} A = \sqrt{\frac{(s - b)(s - c)}{bc}}$
(30)	....	....	$\cos \frac{1}{2} A = \sqrt{\frac{s(s - a)}{bc}}$; $\quad \tan \frac{1}{2} A = \sqrt{\frac{(s - b)(s - c)}{s(s - a)}}$
(31)	....	....	$\sin A = \frac{2\sqrt{s(s - a)(s - b)(s - c)}}{bc}$ $\text{vers } A = \frac{2(s - b)(s - c)}{bc}$
(32)	....	Area	$K = \sqrt{s(s - a)(s - b)(s - c)}$
(33)	A, B, C, a	Area	$K = \frac{a^2 \sin B \sin C}{2 \sin A}$

Oblique Triangles. General Formulas

$$\sin A = \frac{1}{\operatorname{cosec} A} = \sqrt{1 - \cos^2 A} = \tan A \cos A \tag{34}$$

$$\sin A = 2 \sin \tfrac{1}{2} A \cos \tfrac{1}{2} A = \operatorname{vers} A \cot \tfrac{1}{2} A \tag{35}$$

$$\sin A = \sqrt{\tfrac{1}{2} \operatorname{vers} 2A} = \sqrt{\tfrac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2A)} \tag{36}$$

$$\cos A = \frac{1}{\sec A} = \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 A} = \cot A \sin A \tag{37}$$

$$\cos A = 1 - \operatorname{vers} A = 2 \cos^2 \tfrac{1}{2} A - 1 = 1 - 2 \sin^2 \tfrac{1}{2} A \tag{38}$$

$$\cos A = \cos^2 \tfrac{1}{2} A - \sin^2 \tfrac{1}{2} A = \sqrt{\tfrac{1}{2} + \tfrac{1}{2} \cos 2A} \tag{39}$$

$$\tan A = \frac{1}{\cot A} = \frac{\sin A}{\cos A} = \sqrt{\sec^2 A - 1} \tag{40}$$

$$\tan A = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\cos^2 A} - 1} = \frac{\sqrt{1 - \cos^2 A}}{\cos A} = \frac{\sin 2A}{1 + \cos 2A} \tag{41}$$

$$\tan A = \frac{1 - \cos 2A}{\sin 2A} = \frac{\operatorname{vers} 2A}{\sin 2A} = \operatorname{exsec} A \cot \tfrac{1}{2} A \tag{42}$$

$$\cot A = \frac{1}{\tan A} = \frac{\cos A}{\sin A} = \sqrt{\operatorname{cosec}^2 A - 1} \tag{43}$$

$$\cot A = \frac{\sin 2A}{1 - \cos 2A} = \frac{\sin 2A}{\operatorname{vers} 2A} = \frac{1 + \cos 2A}{\sin 2A} \tag{44}$$

$$\cot A = \frac{\tan \tfrac{1}{2} A}{\operatorname{exsec} A} \tag{45}$$

$$\operatorname{vers} A = 1 - \cos A = \sin A \tan \tfrac{1}{2} A = 2 \sin^2 \tfrac{1}{2} A \tag{46}$$

$$\operatorname{vers} A = \operatorname{exsec} A \cos A \tag{47}$$

$$\operatorname{exsec} A = \sec A - 1 = \tan A \tan \tfrac{1}{2} A = \frac{\operatorname{vers} A}{\cos A} \tag{48}$$

$$\sin \tfrac{1}{2} A = \sqrt{\frac{1 - \cos A}{2}} = \sqrt{\frac{\operatorname{vers} A}{2}} \tag{49}$$

$$\sin 2A = 2 \sin A \cos A \tag{50}$$

$$\cos \tfrac{1}{2} A = \sqrt{\frac{1 + \cos A}{2}} \tag{51}$$

$$\cos 2A = 2 \cos^2 A - 1 = \cos^2 A - \sin^2 A = 1 - 2 \sin^2 A \tag{52}$$

$$\tan \tfrac{1}{2} A = \frac{\tan A}{1 + \sec A} = \operatorname{cosec} A - \cot A = \frac{1 - \cos A}{\sin A} = \sqrt{\frac{1 - \cos A}{1 + \cos A}} \tag{53}$$

$$\tan 2A = \frac{2 \tan A}{1 - \tan^2 A} \tag{54}$$

$$\cot \tfrac{1}{2} A = \frac{\sin A}{\operatorname{vers} A} = \frac{1 + \cos A}{\sin A} = \frac{1}{\operatorname{cosec} A - \cot A} \tag{55}$$

$$\cot 2A = \frac{\cot^2 A - 1}{2 \cot A} \tag{56}$$

Oblique Triangles. General Formulas (Continued)

(57) $\operatorname{vers} \frac{1}{2} A = \dfrac{\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{vers} A}{1 + \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{vers} A}} = \dfrac{1 - \cos A}{2 + \sqrt{2(1 + \cos A)}}$

(58) $\operatorname{vers} 2A = 2 \sin^2 A$

(59) $\operatorname{exsec} \frac{1}{2} A = \dfrac{1 - \cos A}{(1 + \cos A) + \sqrt{2(1 + \cos A)}}$

(60) $\operatorname{exsec} 2A = \dfrac{2 \tan^2 A}{1 - \tan^2 A}$

(61) $\sin (A \pm B) = \sin A \cos B \pm \sin B \cos A$

(62) $\cos (A \pm B) = \cos A \cos B \mp \sin A \sin B$

(63) $\sin A + \sin B = 2 \sin \frac{1}{2}(A + B) \cos \frac{1}{2}(A - B)$

(64) $\sin A - \sin B = 2 \cos \frac{1}{2}(A + B) \sin \frac{1}{2}(A - B)$

(65) $\cos A + \cos B = 2 \cos \frac{1}{2}(A + B) \cos \frac{1}{2}(A - B)$

(66) $\cos B - \cos A = 2 \sin \frac{1}{2}(A + B) \sin \frac{1}{2}(A - B)$

(67) $\sin^2 A - \sin^2 B = \cos^2 B - \cos^2 A = \sin (A + B) \sin (A - B)$

(68) $\cos^2 A - \sin^2 B = \cos (A + B) \cos (A - B)$

(69) $\tan A + \tan B = \dfrac{\sin (A + B)}{\cos A \cos B}$

(70) $\tan A - \tan B = \dfrac{\sin (A - B)}{\cos A \cos B}$

′	0°		1°		2°		3°		4°		′
	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	
0	.00000	One.	.01745	.99985	.03490	.99939	.05234	.99863	.06976	.99756	60
1	.00029	One.	.01774	.99984	.03519	.99938	.05263	.99861	.07005	.99754	59
2	.00058	One.	.01803	.99984	.03548	.99937	.05292	.99860	.07034	.99752	58
3	.00087	One.	.01832	.99983	.03577	.99936	.05321	.99858	.07063	.99750	57
4	.00116	One.	.01862	.99983	.03606	.99935	.05350	.99857	.07092	.99748	56
5	.00145	One.	.01891	.99982	.03635	.99934	.05379	.99855	.07121	.99746	55
6	.00175	One.	.01920	.99982	.03664	.99933	.05408	.99854	.07150	.99744	54
7	.00204	One.	.01949	.99981	.03693	.99932	.05437	.99852	.07179	.99742	53
8	.00233	One.	.01978	.99980	.03723	.99931	.05466	.99851	.07208	.99740	52
9	.00262	One.	.02007	.99980	.03752	.99930	.05495	.99849	.07237	.99738	51
10	.00291	One.	.02036	.99979	.03781	.99929	.05524	.99847	.07266	.99736	50
11	.00320	.99999	.02065	.99979	.03810	.99927	.05553	.99846	.07295	.99734	49
12	.00349	.99999	.02094	.99978	.03839	.99926	.05582	.99844	.07324	.99731	48
13	.00378	.99999	.02123	.99977	.03868	.99925	.05611	.99842	.07353	.99729	47
14	.00407	.99999	.02152	.99977	.03897	.99924	.05640	.99841	.07382	.99727	46
15	.00436	.99999	.02181	.99976	.03926	.99923	.05669	.99839	.07411	.99725	45
16	.00465	.99999	.02211	.99976	.03955	.99922	.05698	.99838	.07440	.99723	44
17	.00495	.99999	.02240	.99975	.03984	.99921	.05727	.99836	.07469	.99721	43
18	.00524	.99999	.02269	.99974	.04013	.99919	.05756	.99834	.07498	.99719	42
19	.00553	.99998	.02298	.99974	.04042	.99918	.05785	.99833	.07527	.99716	41
20	.00582	.99998	.02327	.99973	.04071	.99917	.05814	.99831	.07556	.99714	40
21	.00611	.99998	.02356	.99972	.04100	.99916	.05844	.99829	.07585	.99712	39
22	.00640	.99998	.02385	.99972	.04129	.99915	.05873	.99827	.07614	.99710	38
23	.00669	.99998	.02414	.99971	.04159	.99913	.05902	.99826	.07643	.99708	37
24	.00698	.99998	.02443	.99970	.04188	.99912	.05931	.99824	.07672	.99705	36
25	.00727	.99997	.02472	.99969	.04217	.99911	.05960	.99822	.07701	.99703	35
26	.00756	.99997	.02501	.99969	.04246	.99910	.05989	.99821	.07730	.99701	34
27	.00785	.99997	.02530	.99968	.04275	.99909	.06018	.99819	.07759	.99699	33
28	.00814	.99997	.02560	.99967	.04304	.99907	.06047	.99817	.07788	.99696	32
29	.00844	.99996	.02589	.99966	.04333	.99906	.06076	.99815	.07817	.99694	31
30	.00873	.99996	.02618	.99966	.04362	.99905	.06105	.99813	.07846	.99692	30
31	.00902	.99996	.02647	.99965	.04391	.99904	.06134	.99812	.07875	.99689	29
32	.00931	.99996	.02676	.99964	.04420	.99902	.06163	.99810	.07904	.99687	28
33	.00960	.99995	.02705	.99963	.04449	.99901	.06192	.99808	.07933	.99685	27
34	.00989	.99995	.02734	.99963	.04478	.99900	.06221	.99806	.07962	.99683	26
35	.01018	.99995	.02763	.99962	.04507	.99898	.06250	.99804	.07991	.99680	25
36	.01047	.99995	.02792	.99961	.04536	.99897	.06279	.99803	.08020	.99678	24
37	.01076	.99994	.02821	.99960	.04565	.99896	.06308	.99801	.08049	.99676	23
38	.01105	.99994	.02850	.99959	.04594	.99894	.06337	.99799	.08078	.99673	22
39	.01134	.99994	.02879	.99959	.04623	.99893	.06366	.99797	.08107	.99671	21
40	.01164	.99993	.02908	.99958	.04653	.99892	.06395	.99795	.08136	.99668	20
41	.01193	.99993	.02938	.99957	.04682	.99890	.06424	.99793	.08165	.99666	19
42	.01222	.99993	.02967	.99956	.04711	.99889	.06453	.99792	.08194	.99664	18
43	.01251	.99992	.02996	.99955	.04740	.99888	.06482	.99790	.08223	.99661	17
44	.01280	.99992	.03025	.99954	.04769	.99886	.06511	.99788	.08252	.99659	16
45	.01309	.99991	.03054	.99953	.04798	.99885	.06540	.99786	.08281	.99657	15
46	.01338	.99991	.03083	.99952	.04827	.99883	.06569	.99784	.08310	.99654	14
47	.01367	.99991	.03112	.99952	.04856	.99882	.06598	.99782	.08339	.99652	13
48	.01396	.99990	.03141	.99951	.04885	.99881	.06627	.99780	.08368	.99649	12
49	.01425	.99990	.03170	.99950	.04914	.99879	.06656	.99778	.08397	.99647	11
50	.01454	.99989	.03199	.99949	.04943	.99878	.06685	.99776	.08426	.99644	10
51	.01483	.99989	.03228	.99948	.04972	.99876	.06714	.99774	.08455	.99642	9
52	.01513	.99989	.03257	.99947	.05001	.99875	.06743	.99772	.08484	.99639	8
53	.01542	.99988	.03286	.99946	.05030	.99873	.06773	.99770	.08513	.99637	7
54	.01571	.99988	.03316	.99945	.05059	.99872	.06802	.99768	.08542	.99635	6
55	.01600	.99987	.03345	.99944	.05088	.99870	.06831	.99766	.08571	.99632	5
56	.01629	.99987	.03374	.99943	.05117	.99869	.06860	.99764	.08600	.99630	4
57	.01658	.99986	.03403	.99942	.05146	.99867	.06889	.99762	.08629	.99627	3
58	.01687	.99986	.03432	.99941	.05175	.99866	.06918	.99760	.08658	.99625	2
59	.01716	.99985	.03461	.99940	.05205	.99864	.06947	.99758	.08687	.99622	1
60	.01745	.99985	.03490	.99939	.05234	.99863	.06976	.99756	.08716	.99619	0
′	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	′
	89°		88°		87°		86°		85°		

′	5°		6°		7°		8°		9°		′
	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	
0	.08716	.99619	.10453	.99452	.12187	.99255	.13917	.99027	.15643	.98769	60
1	.08745	.99617	.10482	.99449	.12216	.99251	.13946	.99023	.15672	.98764	59
2	.08774	.99614	.10511	.99446	.12245	.99248	.13975	.99019	.15701	.98760	58
3	.08803	.99612	.10540	.99443	.12274	.99244	.14004	.99015	.15730	.98755	57
4	.08831	.99609	.10569	.99440	.12302	.99240	.14033	.99011	.15758	.98751	56
5	.08860	.99607	.10597	.99437	.12331	.99237	.14061	.99006	.15787	.98746	55
6	.08889	.99604	.10626	.99434	.12360	.99233	.14090	.99002	.15816	.98741	54
7	.08918	.99602	.10655	.99431	.12389	.99230	.14119	.98998	.15845	.98737	53
8	.08947	.99599	.10684	.99428	.12418	.99226	.14148	.98994	.15873	.98732	52
9	.08976	.99596	.10713	.99424	.12447	.99222	.14177	.98990	.15902	.98728	51
10	.09005	.99594	.10742	.99421	.12476	.99219	.14205	.98986	.15931	.98723	50
11	.09034	.99591	.10771	.99418	.12504	.99215	.14234	.98982	.15959	.98718	49
12	.09063	.99588	.10800	.99415	.12533	.99211	.14263	.98978	.15988	.98714	48
13	.09092	.99586	.10829	.99412	.12562	.99208	.14292	.98973	.16017	.98709	47
14	.09121	.99583	.10858	.99409	.12591	.99204	.14320	.98969	.16046	.98704	46
15	.09150	.99580	.10887	.99406	.12620	.99200	.14349	.98965	.16074	.98700	45
16	.09179	.99578	.10916	.99402	.12649	.99197	.14378	.98961	.16103	.98695	44
17	.09208	.99575	.10945	.99399	.12678	.99193	.14407	.98957	.16132	.98690	43
18	.09237	.99572	.10973	.99396	.12706	.99189	.14436	.98953	.16160	.98686	42
19	.09266	.99570	.11002	.99393	.12735	.99186	.14464	.98948	.16189	.98681	41
20	.09295	.99567	.11031	.99390	.12764	.99182	.14493	.98944	.16218	.98676	40
21	.09324	.99564	.11060	.99386	.12793	.99178	.14522	.98940	.16246	.98671	39
22	.09353	.99562	.11089	.99383	.12822	.99175	.14551	.98936	.16275	.98667	38
23	.09382	.99559	.11118	.99380	.12851	.99171	.14580	.98931	.16304	.98662	37
24	.09411	.99556	.11147	.99377	.12880	.99167	.14608	.98927	.16333	.98657	36
25	.09440	.99553	.11176	.99374	.12908	.99163	.14637	.98923	.16361	.98652	35
26	.09469	.99551	.11205	.99370	.12937	.99160	.14666	.98919	.16390	.98648	34
27	.09498	.99548	.11234	.99367	.12966	.99156	.14695	.98914	.16419	.98643	33
28	.09527	.99545	.11263	.99364	.12995	.99152	.14723	.98910	.16447	.98638	32
29	.09556	.99542	.11291	.99360	.13024	.99148	.14752	.98906	.16476	.98633	31
30	.09585	.99540	.11320	.99357	.13053	.99144	.14781	.98902	.16505	.98629	30
31	.09614	.99537	.11349	.99354	.13081	.99141	.14810	.98897	.16533	.98624	29
32	.09642	.99534	.11378	.99351	.13110	.99137	.14838	.98893	.16562	.98619	28
33	.09671	.99531	.11407	.99347	.13139	.99133	.14867	.98889	.16591	.98614	27
34	.09700	.99528	.11436	.99344	.13168	.99129	.14896	.98884	.16620	.98609	26
35	.09729	.99526	.11465	.99341	.13197	.99125	.14925	.98880	.16648	.98604	25
36	.09758	.99523	.11494	.99337	.13226	.99122	.14954	.98876	.16677	.98600	24
37	.09787	.99520	.11523	.99334	.13254	.99118	.14982	.98871	.16706	.98595	23
38	.09816	.99517	.11552	.99331	.13283	.99114	.15011	.98867	.16734	.98590	22
39	.09845	.99514	.11580	.99327	.13312	.99110	.15040	.98863	.16763	.98585	21
40	.09874	.99511	.11609	.99324	.13341	.99106	.15069	.98858	.16792	.98580	20
41	.09903	.99508	.11638	.99320	.13370	.99102	.15097	.98854	.16820	.98575	19
42	.09932	.99506	.11667	.99317	.13399	.99098	.15126	.98849	.16849	.98570	18
43	.09961	.99503	.11696	.99314	.13427	.99094	.15155	.98845	.16878	.98565	17
44	.09990	.99500	.11725	.99310	.13456	.99091	.15184	.98841	.16906	.98561	16
45	.10019	.99497	.11754	.99307	.13485	.99087	.15212	.98836	.16935	.98556	15
46	.10048	.99494	.11783	.99303	.13514	.99083	.15241	.98832	.16964	.98551	14
47	.10077	.99491	.11812	.99300	.13543	.99079	.15270	.98827	.16992	.98546	13
48	.10106	.99488	.11840	.99297	.13572	.99075	.15299	.98823	.17021	.98541	12
49	.10135	.99485	.11869	.99293	.13600	.99071	.15327	.98818	.17050	.98536	11
50	.10164	.99482	.11898	.99290	.13629	.99067	.15356	.98814	.17078	.98531	10
51	.10192	.99479	.11927	.99286	.13658	.99063	.15385	.98809	.17107	.98526	9
52	.10221	.99476	.11956	.99283	.13687	.99059	.15414	.98805	.17136	.98521	8
53	.10250	.99473	.11985	.99279	.13716	.99055	.15442	.98800	.17164	.98516	7
54	.10279	.99470	.12014	.99276	.13744	.99051	.15471	.98796	.17193	.98511	6
55	.10308	.99467	.12043	.99272	.13773	.99047	.15500	.98791	.17222	.98506	5
56	.10337	.99464	.12071	.99269	.13802	.99043	.15529	.98787	.17250	.98501	4
57	.10366	.99461	.12100	.99265	.13831	.99039	.15557	.98782	.17279	.98496	3
58	.10395	.99458	.12129	.99262	.13860	.99035	.15586	.98778	.17308	.98491	2
59	.10424	.99455	.12158	.99258	.13889	.99031	.15615	.98773	.17336	.98486	1
60	.10453	.99452	.12187	.99255	.13917	.99027	.15643	.98769	.17365	.98481	0
′	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	′
	84°		83°		82°		81°		80°		

′	10°		11°		12°		13°		14°		′
	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	
0	.17365	.98481	.19081	.98163	.20791	.97815	.22495	.97437	.24192	.97030	60
1	.17393	.98476	.19109	.98157	.20820	.97809	.22523	.97430	.24220	.97023	59
2	.17422	.98471	.19138	.98152	.20848	.97803	.22552	.97424	.24249	.97015	58
3	.17451	.98466	.19167	.98146	.20877	.97797	.22580	.97417	.24277	.97008	57
4	.17479	.98461	.19195	.98140	.20905	.97791	.22608	.97411	.24305	.97001	56
5	.17508	.98455	.19224	.98135	.20933	.97784	.22637	.97404	.24333	.96994	55
6	.17537	.98450	.19252	.98129	.20962	.97778	.22665	.97398	.24362	.96987	54
7	.17565	.98445	.19281	.98124	.20990	.97772	.22693	.97391	.24390	.96980	53
8	.17594	.98440	.19309	.98118	.21019	.97766	.22722	.97384	.24418	.96973	52
9	.17623	.98435	.19338	.98112	.21047	.97760	.22750	.97378	.24446	.96966	51
10	.17651	.98430	.19366	.98107	.21076	.97754	.22778	.97371	.24474	.96959	50
11	.17680	.98425	.19395	.98101	.21104	.97748	.22807	.97365	.24503	.96952	49
12	.17708	.98420	.19423	.98096	.21132	.97742	.22835	.97358	.24531	.96945	48
13	.17737	.98414	.19452	.98090	.21161	.97735	.22863	.97351	.24559	.96937	47
14	.17766	.98409	.19481	.98084	.21189	.97729	.22892	.97345	.24587	.96930	46
15	.17794	.98404	.19509	.98079	.21218	.97723	.22920	.97338	.24615	.96923	45
16	.17823	.98399	.19538	.98073	.21246	.97717	.22948	.97331	.24644	.96916	44
17	.17852	.98394	.19566	.98067	.21275	.97711	.22977	.97325	.24672	.96909	43
18	.17880	.98389	.19595	.98061	.21303	.97705	.23005	.97318	.24700	.96902	42
19	.17909	.98383	.19623	.98056	.21331	.97698	.23033	.97311	.24728	.96894	41
20	.17937	.98378	.19652	.98050	.21360	.97692	.23062	.97304	.24756	.96887	40
21	.17966	.98373	.19680	.98044	.21388	.97686	.23090	.97298	.24784	.96880	39
22	.17995	.98368	.19709	.98039	.21417	.97680	.23118	.97291	.24813	.96873	38
23	.18023	.98362	.19737	.98033	.21445	.97673	.23146	.97284	.24841	.96866	37
24	.18052	.98357	.19766	.98027	.21474	.97667	.23175	.97278	.24869	.96858	36
25	.18081	.98352	.19794	.98021	.21502	.97661	.23203	.97271	.24897	.96851	35
26	.18109	.98347	.19823	.98016	.21530	.97655	.23231	.97264	.24925	.96844	34
27	.18138	.98341	.19851	.98010	.21559	.97648	.23260	.97257	.24954	.96837	33
28	.18166	.98336	.19880	.98004	.21587	.97642	.23288	.97251	.24982	.96829	32
29	.18195	.98331	.19908	.97998	.21616	.97636	.23316	.97244	.25010	.96822	31
30	.18224	.98325	.19937	.97992	.21644	.97630	.23345	.97237	.25038	.96815	30
31	.18252	.98320	.19965	.97987	.21672	.97623	.23373	.97230	.25066	.96807	29
32	.18281	.98315	.19994	.97981	.21701	.97617	.23401	.97223	.25094	.96800	28
33	.18309	.98310	.20022	.97975	.21729	.97611	.23429	.97217	.25122	.96793	27
34	.18338	.98304	.20051	.97969	.21758	.97604	.23458	.97210	.25151	.96786	26
35	.18367	.98299	.20079	.97963	.21786	.97598	.23486	.97203	.25179	.96778	25
36	.18395	.98294	.20108	.97958	.21814	.97592	.23514	.97196	.25207	.96771	24
37	.18424	.98288	.20136	.97952	.21843	.97585	.23542	.97189	.25235	.96764	23
38	.18452	.98283	.20165	.97946	.21871	.97579	.23571	.97182	.25263	.96756	22
39	.18481	.98277	.20193	.97940	.21899	.97573	.23599	.97176	.25291	.96749	21
40	.18509	.98272	.20222	.97934	.21928	.97566	.23627	.97169	.25320	.96742	20
41	.18538	.98267	.20250	.97928	.21956	.97560	.23656	.97162	.25348	.96734	19
42	.18567	.98261	.20279	.97922	.21985	.97553	.23684	.97155	.25376	.96727	18
43	.18595	.98256	.20307	.97916	.22013	.97547	.23712	.97148	.25404	.96719	17
44	.18624	.98250	.20336	.97910	.22041	.97541	.23740	.97141	.25432	.96712	16
45	.18652	.98245	.20364	.97905	.22070	.97534	.23769	.97134	.25460	.96705	15
46	.18681	.98240	.20393	.97899	.22098	.97528	.23797	.97127	.25488	.96697	14
47	.18710	.98234	.20421	.97893	.22126	.97521	.23825	.97120	.25516	.96690	13
48	.18738	.98229	.20450	.97887	.22155	.97515	.23853	.97113	.25545	.96682	12
49	.18767	.98223	.20478	.97881	.22183	.97508	.23882	.97106	.25573	.96675	11
50	.18795	.98218	.20507	.97875	.22212	.97502	.23910	.97100	.25601	.96667	10
51	.18824	.98212	.20535	.97869	.22240	.97496	.23938	.97093	.25629	.96660	9
52	.18852	.98207	.20563	.97863	.22268	.97489	.23966	.97086	.25657	.96653	8
53	.18881	.98201	.20592	.97857	.22297	.97483	.23995	.97079	.25685	.96645	7
54	.18910	.98196	.20620	.97851	.22325	.97476	.24023	.97072	.25713	.96638	6
55	.18938	.98190	.20649	.97845	.22353	.97470	.24051	.97065	.25741	.96630	5
56	.18967	.98185	.20677	.97839	.22382	.97463	.24079	.97058	.25769	.96623	4
57	.18995	.98179	.20706	.97833	.22410	.97457	.24108	.97051	.25798	.96615	3
58	.19024	.98174	.20734	.97827	.22438	.97450	.24136	.97044	.25826	.96608	2
59	.19052	.98168	.20763	.97821	.22467	.97444	.24164	.97037	.25854	.96600	1
60	.19081	.98163	.20791	.97815	.22495	.97437	.24192	.97030	.25882	.96593	0
′	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	′
	79°		78°		77°		76°		75°		

′	15°		16°		17°		18°		19°		′
	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	
0	.25882	.96593	.27564	.96126	.29237	.95630	.30902	.95106	.32557	.94552	60
1	.25910	.96585	.27592	.96118	.29265	.95622	.30929	.95097	.32584	.94542	59
2	.25938	.96578	.27620	.96110	.29293	.95613	.30957	.95088	.32612	.94583	58
3	.25966	.96570	.27648	.96102	.29321	.95605	.30985	.95079	.32639	.94523	57
4	.25994	.96562	.27676	.96094	.29348	.95596	.31012	.95070	.32667	.94514	56
5	.26022	.96555	.27704	.96086	.29376	.95588	.31040	.95061	.32694	.94504	55
6	.26050	.96547	.27731	.96078	.29404	.95579	.31068	.95052	.32722	.94495	54
7	.26079	.96540	.27759	.96070	.29432	.95571	.31095	.95043	.32749	.94485	53
8	.26107	.96532	.27787	.96062	.29460	.95562	.21123	.95033	.32777	.94476	52
9	.26135	.96524	.27815	.96054	.29487	.95554	.31151	.95024	.32804	.94466	51
10	.26163	.96517	.27843	.96046	.29515	.95545	.31178	.95015	.32832	.94457	50
11	.26191	.96509	.27871	.96037	.29543	.95536	.31206	.95006	.32859	.94447	49
12	.26219	.96502	.27899	.96029	.29571	.95528	.31233	.94997	.32887	.94438	48
13	.26247	.96494	.27927	.96021	.29599	.95519	.31261	.94988	.32914	.94428	47
14	.26275	.96486	.27955	.96013	.29626	.95511	.31289	.94979	.32942	.94418	46
15	.26303	.96479	.27983	.96005	.29654	.95502	.31316	.94970	.32969	.94409	45
16	.26331	.96471	.28011	.95997	.29682	.95493	.31344	.94961	.32997	.94399	44
17	.26359	.96463	.28039	.95989	.29710	.95485	.31372	.94952	.33024	.94390	43
18	.26387	.96456	.28067	.95981	.29737	.95476	.31399	.94943	.33051	.94380	42
19	.26415	.96448	.28095	.95972	.29765	.95467	.31427	.94933	.33079	.94370	41
20	.26443	.96440	.28123	.95964	.29793	.95459	.31454	.94924	.33106	.94361	40
21	.26471	.96433	.28150	.95956	.29821	.95450	.31482	.94915	.33134	.94351	39
22	.26500	.96425	.28178	.95948	.29849	.95441	.31510	.94906	.33161	.94342	38
23	.26528	.96417	.28206	.95940	.29876	.95433	.31537	.94897	.33189	.94332	37
24	.26556	.96410	.28234	.95931	.29904	.95424	.31565	.94888	.33216	.94322	36
25	.26584	.96402	.28262	.95923	.29932	.95415	.31593	.94878	.33244	.94313	35
26	.26612	.96394	.28290	.95915	.29960	.95407	.31620	.94869	.33271	.94303	34
27	.26640	.96386	.28318	.95907	.29987	.95398	.31648	.94860	.33298	.94293	33
28	.26668	.96379	.28346	.95898	.30015	.95389	.31675	.94851	.33326	.94284	32
29	.26696	.96371	.28374	.95890	.30043	.95380	.31703	.94842	.33353	.94274	31
30	.26724	.96363	.28402	.95882	.30071	.95372	.31730	.94832	.33381	.94264	30
31	.26752	.96355	.28429	.95874	.30098	.95363	.31758	.94823	.33408	.94254	29
32	.26780	.96347	.28457	.95865	.30126	.95354	.31786	.94814	.33436	.94245	28
33	.26808	.96340	.28485	.95857	.30154	.95345	.31813	.94805	.33463	.94235	27
34	.26836	.96332	.28513	.95849	.30182	.95337	.31841	.94795	.33490	.94225	26
35	.26864	.96324	.28541	.95841	.30209	.95328	.31868	.94786	.33518	.94215	25
36	.26892	.96316	.28569	.95832	.30237	.95319	.31896	.94777	.33545	.94206	24
37	.26920	.96308	.28597	.95824	.30265	.95310	.31923	.94768	.33573	.94196	23
38	.26948	.96301	.28625	.95816	.30292	.95301	.31951	.94758	.33600	.94186	22
39	.26976	.96293	.28652	.95807	.30320	.95293	.31979	.94749	.33627	.94176	21
40	.27004	.96285	.28680	.95799	.30348	.95284	.32006	.94740	.33655	.94167	20
41	.27032	.96277	.28708	.95791	.30376	.95275	.32034	.94730	.33682	.94157	19
42	.27060	.96269	.28736	.95782	.30403	.95266	.32061	.94721	.33710	.94147	18
43	.27088	.96261	.28764	.95774	.30431	.95257	.32089	.94712	.23737	.94137	17
44	.27116	.96253	.28792	.95766	.30459	.95248	.32116	.94702	.33764	.94127	16
45	.27144	.96246	.28820	.95757	.30486	.95240	.32144	.94693	.33792	.94118	15
46	.27172	.96238	.28847	.95749	.30514	.95231	.32171	.94684	.33819	.94108	14
47	.27200	.96230	.28875	.95740	.30542	.95222	.32199	.94674	.33846	.94098	13
48	.27228	.96222	.28903	.95732	.30570	.95213	.32227	.94665	.33874	.94088	12
49	.27256	.96214	.28931	.95724	.30597	.95204	.32254	.94656	.33901	.94078	11
50	.27284	.96206	.28959	.95715	.30625	.95195	.32282	.94646	.33929	.94068	10
51	.27312	.96198	.28987	.95707	.30653	.95186	.32309	.94637	.33956	.94058	9
52	.27340	.96190	.29015	.95698	.30680	.95177	.32337	.94627	.33983	.94049	8
53	.27368	.96182	.29042	.95690	.30708	.95168	.32364	.94618	.34011	.94039	7
54	.27396	.96174	.29070	.95681	.30736	.95159	.32392	.94609	.34038	.94029	6
55	.27424	.96166	.29098	.95673	.30763	.95150	.32419	.94599	.34065	.94019	5
56	.27452	.96158	.29126	.95664	.30791	.95142	.32447	.94590	.34093	.94009	4
57	.27480	.96150	.29154	.95656	.30819	.95133	.32474	.93580	.34120	.93999	3
58	.27508	.96142	.29182	.95647	.30846	.95124	.32502	.94571	.34147	.93989	2
59	.27536	.96134	.29209	.95639	.30874	.95115	.32529	.94561	.34175	.93979	1
60	.27564	.96126	.29237	.95630	.30902	.95106	.32557	.94552	.34202	.93969	0
′	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	′
	74°		73°		72°		71°		70°		

′	20°		21°		22°		23°		24°		′
	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	
0	.34202	.93969	.35837	.93358	.37461	.92718	.39073	.92050	.40674	.91355	60
1	.34229	.93959	.35864	.93348	.37488	.92707	.39100	.92039	.40700	.91343	59
2	.34257	.93949	.35891	.93337	.37515	.92697	.39127	.92028	.40727	.91331	58
3	.34284	.93939	.35918	.93327	.37542	.92686	.39153	.92016	.40753	.91319	57
4	.34311	.93929	.35945	.93316	.37569	.92675	.39180	.92005	.40780	.91307	56
5	.34339	.93919	.35973	.93306	.37595	.92664	.39207	.91994	.40806	.91295	55
6	.34366	.93909	.36000	.93295	.37622	.92653	.39234	.91982	.40833	.91283	54
7	.34393	.93899	.36027	.93285	.37649	.92642	.39260	.91971	.40860	.91272	53
8	.34421	.93889	.36054	.93274	.37676	.92631	.39287	.91959	.40886	.91260	52
9	.34448	.93879	.36081	.93264	.37703	.92620	.39314	.91948	.40913	.91248	51
10	.34475	.93869	.36108	.93253	.37730	.92609	.39341	.91936	.40939	.91236	50
11	.34503	.93859	.36135	.93243	.37757	.92598	.39367	.91925	.40966	.91224	49
12	.34530	.93849	.36162	.93232	.37784	.92587	.39394	.91914	.40992	.91212	48
13	.34557	.93839	.36190	.93222	.37811	.92576	.39421	.91902	.41019	.91200	47
14	.34584	.93829	.36217	.93211	.37838	.92565	.39448	.91891	.41045	.91188	46
15	.34612	.93819	.36244	.93201	.37865	.92554	.39474	.91879	.41072	.91176	45
16	.34639	.93809	.36271	.93190	.37892	.92543	.39501	.91868	.41098	.91164	44
17	.34666	.93799	.36298	.93180	.37919	.92532	.39528	.91856	.41125	.91152	43
18	.34694	.93789	.36325	.93169	.37946	.92521	.39555	.91845	.41151	.91140	42
19	.34721	.93779	.36352	.93159	.37973	.92510	.39581	.91833	.41178	.91128	41
20	.34748	.93769	.36379	.93148	.37999	.92499	.39608	.91822	.41204	.91116	40
21	.34775	.93759	.36406	.93137	.38026	.92488	.39635	.91810	.41231	.91104	39
22	.34803	.93748	.36434	.93127	.38053	.92477	.39661	.91799	.41257	.91092	38
23	.34830	.93738	.36461	.93116	.38080	.92466	.39688	.91787	.41284	.91080	37
24	.34857	.93728	.36488	.93106	.38107	.92455	.39715	.91775	.41310	.91068	36
25	.34884	.93718	.36515	.93095	.38134	.92444	.39741	.91764	.41337	.91056	35
26	.34912	.93708	.36542	.93084	.38161	.92432	.39768	.91752	.41363	.91044	34
27	.34939	.93698	.36569	.93074	.38188	.92421	.39795	.91741	.41390	.91032	33
28	.34966	.93688	.36596	.93063	.38215	.92410	.39822	.91729	.41416	.91020	32
29	.34993	.93677	.36623	.93052	.28241	.92399	.39848	.91718	.41443	.91008	31
30	.35021	.93667	.36650	.93042	.38268	.92388	.39875	.91706	.41469	.90996	30
31	.35048	.93657	.36677	.93031	.38295	.92377	.39902	.91694	.41496	.90984	29
32	.35075	.93647	.36704	.93020	.38322	.92366	.39928	.91683	.41522	.90972	28
33	.35102	.93637	.36731	.93010	.38349	.92355	.39955	.91671	.41549	.90960	27
34	.35130	.93626	.36758	.92999	.38376	.92343	.39982	.91660	.41575	.90948	26
35	.35157	.93616	.36785	.92988	.38403	.92332	.40008	.91648	.41602	.90936	25
36	.35184	.93606	.36812	.92978	.38430	.92321	.40035	.91636	.41628	.90924	24
37	.35211	.93596	.36839	.92967	.38456	.92310	.40062	.91625	.41655	.90911	23
38	.35239	.93585	.36867	.92956	.38483	.92299	.40088	.91613	.41681	.90899	22
39	.35266	.93575	.36894	.92945	.38510	.92287	.40115	.91601	.41707	.90887	21
40	.35293	.93565	.36921	.92935	.38537	.92276	.40141	.91590	.41734	.90875	20
41	.35320	.93555	.36948	.92924	.38564	.92265	.40168	.91578	.41760	.90863	19
42	.35347	.93544	.36975	.92913	.38591	.92254	.40195	.91566	.41787	.90851	18
43	.35375	.93534	.37002	.92902	.38617	.92243	.40221	.91555	.41813	.90839	17
44	.35402	.93524	.37029	.92892	.38644	.92231	.40248	.91543	.41840	.90826	16
45	.35429	.93514	.37056	.92881	.38671	.92220	.40275	.91531	.41866	.90814	15
46	.35456	.93503	.37083	.92870	.38698	.92209	.40301	.91519	.41892	.90802	14
47	.35484	.93493	.37110	.92859	.38725	.92198	.40328	.91508	.41919	.90790	13
48	.35511	.93483	.37137	.92849	.38752	.92186	.40355	.91496	.41945	.90778	12
49	.35538	.93472	.37164	.92838	.38778	.92175	.40381	.91484	.41972	.90766	11
50	.35565	.93462	.37191	.92827	.38805	.92164	.40408	.91472	.41998	.90753	10
51	.35592	.93452	.37218	.92816	.38832	.92152	.40434	.91461	.42024	.90741	9
52	.35619	.93441	.37245	.92805	.38859	.92141	.40461	.91449	.42051	.90729	8
53	.35647	.93431	.37272	.92794	.38886	.92130	.40488	.91437	.42077	.90717	7
54	.35674	.93420	.37299	.92784	.38912	.92119	.40514	.91425	.42104	.90704	6
55	.35701	.93410	.37326	.92773	.38939	.92107	.40541	.91414	.42130	.90692	5
56	.35728	.93400	.37353	.92762	.38966	.92096	.40567	.91402	.42156	.90680	4
57	.35755	.93389	.37380	.92751	.38993	.92085	.40594	.91390	.42183	.90668	3
58	.35782	.93379	.37407	.92740	.39020	.92073	.40621	.91378	.42209	.90655	2
59	.35810	.93368	.37434	.92729	.39046	.92062	.40647	.91366	.42235	.90643	1
60	.35837	.93358	.37461	.92718	.39073	.92050	.40674	.91355	.42262	.90631	0
′	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	′
	69°		68°		67°		66°		65°		

25°		26°		27°		28°		29°		′
Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	
.42262	.90631	.43837	.89879	.45399	.89101	.46947	.88295	.48481	.87462	60
.42288	.90618	.43863	.89867	.45425	.89087	.46973	.88281	.48506	.87448	59
.42315	.90606	.43889	.89854	.45451	.89074	.46999	.88267	.48532	.87434	58
.42341	.90594	.43916	.89841	.45477	.89061	.47024	.88254	.48557	.87420	57
.42367	.90582	.43942	.89828	.45503	.89048	.47050	.88240	.48583	.87406	56
.42394	.90569	.43968	.89816	.45529	.89035	.47076	.88226	.48608	.87391	55
.42420	.90557	.43994	.89803	.45554	.89021	.47101	.88213	.48634	.87377	54
.42446	.90545	.44020	.89790	.45580	.89008	.47127	.88199	.48659	.87363	53
.42473	.90532	.44046	.89777	.45606	.88995	.47153	.88185	.48684	.87349	52
.42499	.90520	.44072	.89764	.45632	.88981	.47178	.88172	.48710	.87335	51
.42525	.90507	.44098	.89752	.45658	.88968	.47204	.88158	.48735	.87321	50
.42552	.90495	.44124	.89739	.45684	.88956	.47229	.88144	.48761	.87306	49
.42578	.90483	.44151	.89726	.45710	.88942	.47255	.88130	.48786	.87292	48
.42604	.90470	.44177	.89713	.45736	.88926	.47281	.88117	.48811	.87278	47
.42631	.90458	.44203	.89700	.45762	.88915	.47306	.88103	.48837	.87264	46
.42657	.90446	.44229	.89687	.45787	.88902	.47332	.88089	.48862	.87250	45
.42683	.90433	.44255	.89674	.45813	.88888	.47358	.88075	.48888	.87235	44
.42709	.90421	.44281	.89662	.45839	.88875	.47383	.88062	.48913	.87221	43
.42736	.90408	.44307	.89649	.45865	.88862	.47409	.88048	.48938	.87207	42
.42762	.90396	.44333	.89636	.45891	.88848	.47434	.88034	.48964	.87193	41
.42788	.90383	.44359	.89623	.45917	.88835	.47460	.88020	.48989	.87178	40
.42815	.90371	.44385	.89610	.45942	.88822	.47486	.88006	.49014	.87164	39
.42841	.90358	.44411	.89597	.45968	.88808	.47511	.87993	.49040	.87150	38
.42867	.90346	.44437	.89584	.45994	.88795	.47537	.87979	.49065	.87136	37
.42894	.90334	.44464	.89571	.46020	.88782	.47562	.87965	.49090	.87121	36
.42920	.90321	.44490	.89558	.46046	.88768	.47588	.87951	.49116	.87107	35
.42946	.90309	.44516	.89545	.46072	.88755	.47614	.87937	.49141	.87093	34
.42972	.90296	.44542	.89532	.46097	.88741	.47639	.87923	.49166	.87079	33
.42999	.90284	.44568	.89519	.46123	.88728	.47665	.87909	.49192	.87064	32
.42025	.90271	.44594	.89506	.46149	.88715	.47690	.87896	.49217	.87050	31
.43051	.90259	.44620	.89493	.46175	.88701	.47716	.87882	.49242	.87036	30
.42077	.90246	.44646	.89480	.46201	.88688	.47741	.87868	.49268	.87021	29
.43104	.90233	.44672	.89467	.46226	.88674	.47767	.87854	.49293	.87007	28
.43130	.90221	.44698	.89454	.46252	.88661	.47793	.87840	.49318	.86993	27
.43156	.90208	.44724	.89441	.46278	.88647	.47818	.87826	.49344	.86978	26
.43182	.90196	.44750	.89428	.46304	.88634	.47844	.87812	.49369	.86964	25
.43209	.90183	.44776	.89415	.46330	.88620	.47869	.87798	.49394	.86949	24
.43235	.90171	.44802	.89402	.46355	.88607	.47895	.87784	.49419	.86935	23
.43261	.90158	.44828	.89389	.46381	.88593	.47920	.87770	.49445	.86921	22
.43287	.90146	.44854	.89376	.46407	.88580	.47946	.87756	.49470	.86906	21
.43313	.90133	.44880	.89363	.46433	.88566	.47971	.87743	.49495	.86892	20
.43340	.90120	.44906	.89350	.46458	.88553	.47997	.87729	.49521	.86878	19
.43366	.90108	.44932	.89337	.46484	.88539	.48022	.87715	.49546	.86863	18
.43392	.90095	.44958	.89324	.46510	.88526	.48048	.87701	.49571	.86849	17
.43418	.90082	.44984	.89311	.46536	.88512	.48073	.87687	.49596	.86834	16
.43445	.90070	.45010	.89298	.46561	.88499	.48099	.87673	.49622	.86820	15
.43471	.90057	.45036	.89285	.46587	.88485	.48124	.87659	.49647	.86805	14
.43497	.90045	.45062	.89272	.46613	.88472	.48150	.87645	.49672	.86791	13
.43523	.90032	.45088	.89259	.46639	.88458	.48175	.87631	.49697	.86777	12
.43549	.90019	.45114	.89245	.46664	.88445	.48201	.87617	.49723	.86762	11
.43575	.90007	.45140	.89232	.46690	.88431	.48226	.87603	.49748	.86748	10
.43602	.89994	.45166	.89219	.46716	.88417	.48252	.87589	.49773	.86733	9
.43628	.89981	.45192	.89206	.46742	.88404	.48277	.87575	.49798	.86719	8
.43654	.89968	.45218	.89193	.46767	.88390	.48303	.87561	.49824	.86704	7
.43680	.89956	.45243	.89180	.46793	.88377	.48328	.87546	.49849	.86690	6
.43706	.89943	.45269	.89167	.46819	.88363	.48354	.87532	.49874	.86675	5
.43733	.89930	.45295	.89153	.46844	.88349	.48379	.87518	.49899	.86661	4
.43759	.89918	.45321	.89140	.46870	.88336	.48405	.87504	.49924	.86646	3
.43785	.89905	.45347	.89127	.46896	.88322	.48430	.87490	.49950	.86632	2
.43811	.89892	.45373	.89114	.46921	.88308	.48456	.87476	.49975	.86617	1
.43837	.89879	.45399	.89101	.46947	.88295	.48481	.87462	.50000	.86603	0
Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	′
64°		63°		62°		61°		60°		

′	30°		31°		32°		33°		34°		′
	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	
0	.50000	.86603	.51504	.85717	.52902	.84805	.54464	.83867	.55919	.82904	60
1	.50025	.86588	.51529	.85702	.53017	.84789	.54488	.83851	.55943	.82887	59
2	.50050	.86573	.51554	.85687	.53041	.84774	.54513	.83835	.55968	.82871	58
3	.50076	.86559	.51579	.85672	.53066	.84759	.54537	.83819	.55992	.82855	57
4	.50101	.86544	.51604	.85657	.53091	.84743	.54561	.83804	.56016	.82839	56
5	.50126	.86530	.51628	.85642	.53115	.84728	.54586	.83788	.56040	.82822	55
6	.50151	.86515	.51653	.85627	.53140	.84712	.54610	.83772	.56064	.82806	54
7	.50176	.86501	.51678	.85612	.53164	.84697	.54635	.83756	.56088	.82790	53
8	.50201	.86486	.51703	.85597	.53189	.84681	.54659	.83740	.56112	.82773	52
9	.50227	.86471	.51728	.85582	.53214	.84606	.54683	.83724	.56136	.82757	51
10	.50252	.86457	.51753	.85567	.53238	.84650	.54708	.83708	.56160	.82741	50
11	.50277	.86442	.51778	.85551	.53263	.84635	.54732	.83692	.56184	.82724	49
12	.50302	.86427	.51803	.85536	.53288	.84619	.54756	.83676	.56208	.82708	48
13	.50327	.86413	.51828	.85521	.53312	.84604	.54781	.83660	.56232	.82692	47
14	.50352	.86398	.51852	.85506	.53337	.84588	.54805	.83645	.56256	.82675	46
15	.50377	.86384	.51877	.85491	.53361	.84573	.54829	.83629	.56280	.82659	45
16	.50403	.86369	.51902	.85476	.53386	.84557	.54854	.83613	.56305	.82643	44
17	.50428	.86354	.51927	.85461	.53411	.84542	.54878	.83597	.56329	.82626	43
18	.50453	.86340	.51952	.85446	.53435	.84526	.54902	.83581	.56353	.82610	42
19	.50478	.86325	.51977	.85421	.53460	.84511	.54927	.83565	.56377	.82503	41
20	.50503	.86310	.52002	.85416	.53484	.84495	.54951	.83549	.56401	.82577	40
21	.50528	.86295	.52026	.85401	.53509	.84480	.54975	.83533	.56425	.82561	39
22	.50553	.86281	.52051	.85385	.53534	.84404	.54999	.83517	.56449	.82544	38
23	.50578	.86266	.52076	.85370	.53558	.84448	.55024	.83501	.56473	.82528	37
24	.50603	.86251	.52101	.85355	.53583	.84433	.55048	.83485	.56497	.82511	36
25	.50628	.86237	.52126	.85340	.53607	.84417	.55072	.83469	.56521	.82495	35
26	.50654	.86222	.52151	.85325	.52632	.84402	.55097	.83453	.56545	.82478	34
27	.50679	.86207	.52175	.85310	.53656	.84386	.55121	.83437	.56569	.82462	33
28	.50704	.86192	.52200	.85294	.53681	.84370	.55145	.83421	.56593	.82446	32
29	.50729	.86178	.52225	.85279	.53705	.84355	.55169	.83405	.56617	.82429	31
30	.50754	.86163	.52250	.85264	.53730	.84339	.55194	.83389	.56641	.82413	30
31	.50779	.86148	.52275	.85249	.53754	.84324	.55218	.83373	.56665	.82396	29
32	.50804	.86133	.52299	.85234	.53779	.84308	.55242	.83356	.56689	.82380	28
33	.50829	.86119	.52324	.85218	.53804	.84292	.55266	.83340	.56713	.82363	27
34	.50854	.86104	.52349	.85203	.53828	.84277	.55291	.83324	.56736	.82347	26
35	.50879	.86089	.52374	.85188	.53853	.84261	.55315	.83308	.56760	.82330	25
36	.50904	.86074	.52399	.85173	.53877	.84245	.55339	.83292	.56784	.82314	24
37	.50929	.86059	.52423	.85157	.53902	.84230	.55363	.83276	.56808	.82297	23
38	.50954	.86045	.52448	.85142	.53926	.84214	.55388	.83260	.56832	.82281	22
39	.50979	.86030	.52473	.85127	.53951	.84198	.55412	.83244	.56856	.82264	21
40	.51004	.86015	.52498	.85112	.53976	.84182	.55436	.83228	.56880	.82248	20
41	.51029	.86000	.52522	.85096	.54000	.84167	.55460	.83212	.56904	.82231	19
42	.51054	.85985	.52547	.85081	.54024	.84151	.55484	.83195	.56928	.82214	18
43	.51079	.85970	.52572	.85066	.54049	.84135	.55509	.83179	.56952	.82198	17
44	.51104	.85956	.52597	.85051	.54073	.84120	.55533	.83163	.56976	.82181	16
45	.51129	.85941	.52621	.85035	.54097	.84104	.55557	.83147	.57000	.82165	15
46	.51154	.85926	.52646	.85020	.54122	.84088	.55581	.83131	.57024	.82148	14
47	.51179	.85911	.52671	.85005	.54146	.84072	.55605	.83115	.57047	.82132	13
48	.51204	.85896	.52696	.84989	.54171	.84057	.55630	.83098	.57071	.82115	12
49	.51229	.85881	.52720	.84974	.54195	.84041	.55654	.83082	.57095	.82098	11
50	.51254	.85866	.52745	.84959	.54220	.84025	.55678	.83066	.57119	.82082	10
51	.51279	.85851	.52770	.84943	.54244	.84009	.55702	.83050	.57143	.82065	9
52	.51304	.85836	.52794	.84928	.54269	.83994	.55726	.83034	.57167	.82048	8
53	.51329	.85821	.52819	.84913	.54293	.83978	.55750	.83017	.57191	.82032	7
54	.51354	.85806	.52844	.84897	.54317	.83962	.55775	.83001	.57215	.82015	6
55	.51379	.85792	.52869	.84882	.54342	.83946	.55799	.82985	.57238	.81999	5
56	.51404	.85777	.52893	.84866	.54366	.83920	.55823	.82969	.57262	.81982	4
57	.51429	.85762	.52918	.84851	.54391	.83915	.55847	.82953	.57286	.81965	3
58	.51454	.85747	.52943	.84836	.54415	.83899	.55871	.82936	.57310	.81949	2
59	.51479	.85732	.52967	.84820	.54440	.83883	.55895	.82920	.57334	.81932	1
60	.51504	.85717	.52992	.84805	.54464	.83867	.55919	.82904	.57358	.81915	0
′	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	′
	59°		58°		57°		56°		55°		

′	35°		36°		37°		38°		30°		′
	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	
0	.57358	.81915	.58779	.80902	.60182	.79864	.61566	.78801	.62932	.77715	60
1	.57381	.81899	.58802	.80885	.60205	.79846	.61589	.78783	.62955	.77096	59
2	.57405	.81882	.58826	.80867	.60228	.79829	.61612	.78765	.62977	.77678	58
3	.57429	.81865	.58849	.80850	.60251	.79811	.61635	.78747	.63000	.77660	57
4	.57453	.81848	.58873	.80833	.60274	.79793	.61658	.78729	.63022	.77641	56
5	.57477	.81832	.58896	.80816	.60298	.79776	.61681	.78711	.63045	.77623	55
6	.57501	.81815	.58920	.80799	.60321	.79758	.61704	.78694	.63068	.77605	54
7	.57524	.81798	.58943	.80782	.60344	.79741	.61726	.78676	.63090	.77586	53
8	.57548	.81782	.58967	.80765	.60367	.79723	.61749	.78658	.63113	.77568	52
9	.57572	.81765	.58990	.80748	.60390	.79706	.61772	.78640	.63135	.77550	51
10	.57596	.81748	.59014	.80730	.60414	.79688	.61795	.78622	.63158	.77531	50
11	.57619	.81731	.59037	.80713	.60437	.79671	.61818	.78604	.63180	.77513	40
12	.57643	.81714	.59061	.80696	.60460	.79653	.61841	.78586	.63203	.77494	48
13	.57667	.81698	.59084	.80679	.60483	.79635	.61864	.78568	.63225	.77476	47
14	.57601	.81681	.59108	.80662	.60506	.79618	.61887	.78550	.63248	.77458	46
15	.57715	.81664	.59131	.80644	.60529	.79600	.61909	.78532	.63271	.77439	45
16	.57738	.81647	.59154	.80627	.60553	.79583	.61932	.78514	.63293	.77421	44
17	.57762	.81631	.59178	.80610	.60576	.79565	.61955	.78496	.63316	.77402	43
18	.57786	.81614	.59201	.80593	.60599	.79547	.61978	.78478	.63338	.77384	42
19	.57810	.81597	.59225	.80576	.60622	.79530	.62001	.78460	.63361	.77366	41
20	.57833	.81580	.59248	.80558	.60645	.79512	.62024	.78442	.63383	.77347	40
21	.57857	.81563	.59272	.80541	.60068	.79494	.62046	.78424	.63406	.77329	39
22	.57881	.81546	.59295	.80524	.60691	.79477	.62069	.78405	.63428	.77310	38
23	.57904	.81530	.59318	.80507	.60714	.79459	.62092	.78387	.63451	.77292	37
24	.57928	.81513	.59342	.80489	.60738	.79441	.62115	.78369	.63473	.77273	36
25	.57952	.81496	.59365	.80472	.60761	.79424	.62138	.78351	.63496	.77255	35
26	.57976	.81479	.59389	.80455	.60784	.79406	.62160	.78333	.63518	.77236	34
27	.57999	.81462	.59412	.80438	.60807	.79388	.62183	.78315	.63540	.77218	33
28	.58023	.81445	.59436	.80420	.60830	.79371	.62206	.78297	.63563	.77199	32
29	.58047	.81428	.59459	.80403	.60853	.79353	.62229	.78279	.63585	.77181	31
30	.58070	.81412	.59482	.80386	.60876	.79335	.62251	.78261	.63608	.77162	30
31	.58094	.81395	.59506	.80368	.60899	.79318	.62274	.78243	.63630	.77144	29
32	.58118	.81378	.59529	.80351	.60922	.79300	.62297	.78225	.63653	.77125	28
33	.58141	.81361	.59552	.80334	.60945	.79282	.62320	.78206	.63675	.77107	27
34	.58165	.81344	.59576	.80316	.60968	.79264	.62342	.78188	.63698	.77088	26
35	.58189	.81327	.59509	.80299	.60991	.79247	.62365	.78170	.63720	.77070	25
36	.58212	.81310	.59622	.80282	.61015	.79229	.62388	.78152	.63742	.77051	24
37	.58236	.81293	.59646	.80264	.61038	.79211	.62411	.78134	.63765	.77033	23
38	.58260	.81276	.59669	.80247	.61061	.79193	.62433	.78116	.63787	.77014	22
39	.58283	.81259	.59693	.80230	.61084	.79176	.62456	.78098	.63810	.76996	21
40	.58307	.81242	.59716	.80212	.61107	.79158	.62479	.78079	.63832	.76977	20
41	.58330	.81225	.59739	.80195	.61130	.79140	.62502	.78061	.63854	.76959	19
42	.58354	.81208	.59763	.80178	.61153	.79122	.62524	.78043	.63877	.76940	18
43	.58378	.81191	.59786	.80160	.61176	.79105	.62547	.78025	.63899	.76921	17
44	.58401	.81174	.59809	.80143	.61199	.79087	.62570	.78007	.63922	.76903	16
45	.58425	.81157	.59832	.80125	.61222	.79069	.62592	.77988	.63944	.76884	15
46	.58449	.81140	.59856	.80108	.61245	.79051	.62615	.77970	.63966	.76866	14
47	.58472	.81123	.59879	.80091	.61268	.79033	.62638	.77952	.63989	.76847	13
48	.58496	.81106	.59902	.80073	.61291	.79016	.62660	.77934	.64011	.76828	12
49	.58519	.81089	.59926	.80056	.61314	.78998	.62683	.77916	.64033	.76810	11
50	.58543	.81072	.59949	.80038	.61337	.78980	.62706	.77897	.64056	.76791	10
51	.58567	.81055	.59972	.80021	.61360	.78962	.62728	.77879	.64078	.76772	9
52	.58590	.81038	.59995	.80003	.61383	.78944	.62751	.77861	.64100	.76754	8
53	.58614	.81021	.60019	.79986	.61406	.78926	.62774	.77843	.64123	.76735	7
54	.58637	.81004	.60042	.79968	.61429	.78908	.62796	.77824	.64145	.76717	6
55	.58661	.80987	.60065	.79951	.61451	.78891	.62819	.77806	.64167	.76698	5
56	.58684	.80970	.60089	.79934	.61474	.78873	.62842	.77788	.64190	.76679	4
57	.58708	.80953	.60112	.79916	.61497	.78855	.62864	.77769	.64212	.76661	3
58	.58731	.80936	.60135	.79899	.61520	.78837	.62887	.77751	.64234	.76642	2
59	.58755	.80919	.60158	.79881	.61543	.78819	.62909	.77733	.64256	.76623	1
60	.58779	.80902	.60182	.79864	.61566	.78801	.62932	.77715	.64279	.76604	0
′	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	′
	54°		53°		52°		51°		50°		

′	40°		41°		42°		43°		44°		′
	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	
0	.64279	.76604	.65606	.75471	.66913	.74314	.68200	.73135	.69466	.71934	60
1	.64301	.76586	.65628	.75452	.66935	.74295	.68221	.73116	.69487	.71914	59
2	.64323	.76567	.65650	.75433	.66956	.74276	.68242	.73096	.69508	.71894	58
3	.64346	.76548	.65672	.75414	.66978	.74256	.68264	.73076	.69529	.71873	57
4	.64368	.76530	.65694	.75395	.66999	.74237	.68285	.73056	.69549	.71853	56
5	.64390	.76511	.65716	.75375	.67021	.74217	.68306	.73036	.69570	.71833	55
6	.64412	.76492	.65738	.75356	.67043	.74198	.68327	.73016	.69591	.71813	54
7	.64435	.76473	.65759	.75337	.67064	.74178	.68349	.72996	.69612	.71792	53
8	.64457	.76455	.65781	.75318	.67086	.74159	.68370	.72976	.69633	.71772	52
9	.64479	.76436	.65803	.75299	.67107	.74139	.68391	.72957	.69654	.71752	51
10	.64501	.76417	.65825	.75290	.67129	.74120	.68412	.72937	.69675	.71732	50
11	.64524	.76398	.65847	.75261	.67151	.74100	.68434	.72917	.69696	.71711	49
12	.64546	.76380	.65869	.75241	.67172	.74080	.68455	.72897	.69717	.71691	48
13	.64568	.76361	.65891	.75222	.67194	.74061	.68476	.72877	.69737	.71671	47
14	.64590	.76342	.65913	.75203	.67215	.74041	.68497	.72857	.69758	.71650	46
15	.64612	.76323	.65935	.75184	.67237	.74022	.68518	.72837	.69779	.71630	45
16	.64635	.76304	.65956	.75165	.67258	.74002	.68539	.72817	.69800	.71610	44
17	.64657	.76286	.65978	.75146	.67280	.73983	.68561	.72797	.69821	.71590	43
18	.64679	.76267	.66000	.75126	.67301	.73963	.68582	.72777	.69842	.71569	42
19	.64701	.76248	.66022	.75107	.67323	.73944	.68603	.72757	.69862	.71549	41
20	.64723	.76229	.66044	.75088	.67344	.73924	.68624	.72737	.69883	.71529	40
21	.64746	.76210	.66066	.75069	.67366	.73904	.68645	.72717	.69904	.71508	39
22	.64768	.76192	.66088	.75050	.67387	.73885	.68666	.72697	.69925	.71488	38
23	.64790	.76173	.66109	.75030	.67409	.73865	.68688	.72677	.69946	.71468	37
24	.64812	.76154	.66131	.75011	.67430	.73846	.68709	.72657	.69966	.71447	36
25	.64834	.76135	.66153	.74992	.67452	.73826	.68730	.72637	.69987	.71427	35
26	.64856	.76116	.66175	.74973	.67473	.73806	.68751	.72617	.70008	.71407	34
27	.64878	.76097	.66197	.74953	.67495	.73787	.68772	.72597	.70029	.71386	33
28	.64901	.76078	.66218	.74934	.67516	.73767	.68793	.72577	.70049	.71366	32
29	.64923	.76059	.66240	.74915	.67538	.73747	.68814	.72557	.70070	.71345	31
30	.64945	.76041	.66262	.74896	.67559	.73728	.68835	.72537	.70091	.71325	30
31	.64967	.76022	.66284	.74876	.67580	.73708	.68857	.72517	.70112	.71305	29
32	.64989	.76003	.66306	.74857	.67602	.73688	.68878	.72497	.70132	.71284	28
33	.65011	.75984	.66327	.74838	.67623	.73669	.68899	.72477	.70153	.71264	27
34	.65033	.75965	.66349	.74818	.67645	.73649	.68920	.72457	.70174	.71243	26
35	.65055	.75946	.66371	.74799	.67666	.73629	.68941	.72437	.70195	.71223	25
36	.65077	.75927	.66393	.74780	.67688	.73610	.68962	.72417	.70215	.71203	24
37	.65100	.75908	.66414	.74760	.67709	.73590	.68983	.72397	.70236	.71182	23
38	.65122	.75889	.66436	.74741	.67730	.73570	.69004	.72377	.70257	.71162	22
39	.65144	.75870	.66458	.74722	.67752	.73551	.69025	.72357	.70277	.71141	21
40	.65166	.75851	.66480	.74703	.67773	.73531	.69046	.72337	.70298	.71121	20
41	.65188	.75832	.66501	.74683	.67795	.73511	.69067	.72317	.70319	.71100	19
42	.65210	.75813	.66523	.74664	.67816	.73491	.69088	.72297	.70339	.71080	18
43	.65232	.75794	.66545	.74644	.67837	.73472	.69109	.72277	.70360	.71059	17
44	.65254	.75775	.66506	.74625	.67859	.73452	.69130	.72257	.70381	.71039	16
45	.65276	.75756	.66588	.74606	.67880	.73432	.69151	.72236	.70401	.71019	15
46	.65298	.75738	.66610	.74586	.67901	.73413	.69172	.72216	.70422	.70998	14
47	.65320	.75719	.66632	.74567	.67923	.73393	.69193	.72196	.70443	.70978	13
48	.65342	.75700	.66653	.74548	.67944	.73373	.69214	.72176	.70463	.70957	12
49	.65364	.75680	.66675	.74528	.67965	.73353	.69235	.72156	.70484	.70937	11
50	.65386	.75661	.66697	.74509	.67987	.73333	.69256	.72136	.70505	.70916	10
51	.65408	.75642	.66718	.74489	.68008	.73314	.69277	.72116	.70525	.70896	9
52	.65430	.75623	.66740	.74470	.68029	.73294	.69298	.72095	.70546	.70875	8
53	.65452	.75604	.66762	.74451	.68051	.73274	.69319	.72075	.70567	.70855	7
54	.65474	.75585	.66783	.74431	.68072	.73254	.69340	.72055	.70587	.70834	6
55	.65496	.75566	.66805	.74412	.68093	.73234	.69361	.72035	.70608	.70813	5
56	.65518	.75547	.66827	.74392	.68115	.73215	.69382	.72015	.70628	.70793	4
57	.65540	.75528	.66848	.74373	.68136	.73195	.69403	.71995	.70649	.70772	3
58	.65562	.75509	.66870	.74353	.68157	.73175	.69424	.71974	.70670	.70752	2
59	.65584	.75490	.66891	.74334	.68179	.73155	.69445	.71954	.70690	.70731	1
60	.65606	.75471	.66913	74314	.68200	.73135	.69466	.71934	.70711	.70711	0
′	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	Cosin	Sine	′
	49°		48°		47°		46°		45°		

′	0°		1°		2°		3°		′
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.00000	Infinite.	.01746	57.2900	.03492	28.6363	.05241	19.0811	60
1	.00029	3437.75	.01775	56.3506	.03521	28.3994	.05270	18.9755	59
2	.00058	1718.87	.01804	55.4415	.03550	28.1664	.05299	18.8711	58
3	.00087	1145.92	.01833	54.5613	.03579	27.9372	.05328	18.7678	57
4	.00116	859.436	.01862	53.7086	.03609	27.7117	.05357	18.6656	56
5	.00145	687.549	.01891	52.8821	.03638	27.4899	.05387	18.5645	55
6	.00175	572.957	.01920	52.0807	.03667	27.2715	.05416	18.4645	54
7	.00204	491.106	.01949	51.3032	.03696	27.0566	.05445	18.3655	53
8	.00233	429.718	.01978	50.5485	.03725	26.8450	.05474	18.2677	52
9	.00262	381.971	.02007	49.8157	.03754	26.6367	.05503	18.1708	51
10	.00291	343.774	.02036	49.1039	.03783	26.4316	.05533	18.0750	50
11	.00320	312.521	.02066	48.4121	.03812	26.2296	.05562	17.9802	49
12	.00349	286.478	.02095	47.7395	.03842	26.0307	.05591	17.8863	48
13	.00378	264.441	.02124	47.0853	.03871	25.8348	.05620	17.7934	47
14	.00407	245.552	.02153	46.4489	.03900	25.6418	.05649	17.7015	46
15	.00436	229.182	.02182	45.8294	.03929	25.4517	.05678	17.6106	45
16	.00465	214.858	.02211	45.2261	.03958	25.2644	.05708	17.5205	44
17	.00495	202.219	.02240	44.6386	.03987	25.0798	.05737	17.4314	43
18	.00524	190.984	.02269	44.0661	.04016	24.8978	.05766	17.3432	42
19	.00553	180.932	.02298	43.5081	.04046	24.7185	.05795	17.2558	41
20	.00582	171.885	.02328	42.9641	.04075	24.5418	.05824	17.1693	40
21	.00611	163.700	.02357	42.4335	.04104	24.3675	.05854	17.0837	39
22	.00640	156.259	.02386	41.9158	.04133	24.1957	.05883	16.9990	38
23	.00669	149.465	.02415	41.4106	.04162	24.0263	.05912	16.9150	37
24	.00698	143.237	.02444	40.9174	.04191	23.8593	.05941	16.8319	36
25	.00727	137.507	.02473	40.4358	.04220	23.6945	.05970	16.7496	35
26	.00756	132.219	.02502	39.9655	.04250	23.5321	.05999	16.6681	34
27	.00785	137.321	.02531	39.5059	.04279	23.3718	.06029	16.5874	33
28	.00815	122.774	.02560	39.0568	.04308	23.2137	.06058	16.5075	32
29	.00844	118.540	.02589	38.6177	.04337	23.0577	.06087	16.4283	31
30	.00873	114.589	.02619	38.1885	.04366	22.9038	.06116	16.3499	30
31	.00902	110.892	.02648	37.7686	.04395	22.7519	.06145	16.2722	29
32	.00931	107.426	.02677	37.3579	.04424	22.6020	.06175	16.1952	28
33	.00960	104.171	.02706	36.9560	.04454	22.4541	.06204	16.1190	27
34	.00989	101.107	.02735	36.5627	.04483	22.3081	.06233	16.0435	26
35	.01018	98.2179	.02764	36.1776	.04512	22.1640	.06262	15.9687	25
36	.01047	95.4895	.02793	35.8006	.04541	22.0217	.06291	15.8945	24
37	.01076	92.9085	.02822	35.4313	.04570	21.8813	.06321	15.8211	23
38	.01105	90.4633	.02851	35.0695	.04599	21.7426	.06350	15.7483	22
39	.01135	88.1436	.02881	34.7151	.04628	21.6056	.06379	15.6762	21
40	.01164	85.9398	.02910	34.3678	.04658	21.4704	.06408	15.6048	20
41	.01193	83.8435	.02939	34.0273	.04687	21.3369	.06437	15.5340	19
42	.01222	81.8470	.02968	33.6935	.04716	21.2049	.06467	15.4638	18
43	.01251	79.9434	.02997	33.3662	.04745	21.0747	.06496	15.3943	17
44	.01280	78.1263	.03026	33.0452	.04774	20.9460	.06525	15.3254	16
45	.01309	76.3900	.03055	32.7303	.04803	20.8188	.06554	15.2571	15
46	.01338	74.7292	.03084	32.4213	.04833	20.6932	.06584	15.1893	14
47	.01367	73.1390	.03114	32.1181	.04862	20.5691	.06613	15.1222	13
48	.01396	71.6151	.03143	31.8205	.04891	20.4465	.06642	15.0557	12
49	.01425	70.1533	.03172	31.5284	.04920	20.3253	.06671	14.9898	11
50	.01455	68.7501	.03201	31.2416	.04949	20.2056	.06700	14.9244	10
51	.01484	67.4019	.03230	30.9599	.04978	20.0872	.06730	14.8596	9
52	.01513	66.1055	.03259	30.6833	.05007	19.9702	.06759	14.7954	8
53	.01542	64.8580	.03288	30.4116	.05037	19.8546	.06788	14.7317	7
54	.01571	63.6567	.03317	30.1446	.05066	19.7403	.06817	14.6685	6
55	.01600	62.4992	.03346	29.8823	.05095	19.6273	.06847	14.6059	5
56	.01629	61.3829	.03376	29.6245	.05124	19.5156	.06876	14.5438	4
57	.01658	60.3058	.03405	29.3711	.05153	19.4051	.06905	14.4823	3
58	.01687	59.2659	.03434	29.1220	.05182	19.2959	.06934	14.4212	2
59	.01716	58.2612	.03463	28.8771	.05212	19.1879	.06963	14.3607	1
60	.01746	57.2900	.03492	28.6363	.05241	19.0811	.06993	14.3007	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	89°		88°		87°		86°		

′	4°		5°		6°		7°		′
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.06993	14.3007	.08749	11.4301	.10510	9.51436	.12278	8.14435	60
1	.07022	14.2411	.08778	11.3919	.10540	9.48781	.12308	8.12481	59
2	.07051	14.1821	.08807	11.3540	.10569	9.46141	.12338	8.10536	58
3	.07080	14.1235	.08837	11.3163	.10599	9.43515	.12367	8.08600	57
4	.07110	14.0655	.08866	11.2789	.10628	9.40904	.12397	8.06674	56
5	.07139	14.0079	.08895	11.2417	.10657	9.38307	.12426	8.04756	55
6	.07168	13.9507	.08925	11.2048	.10687	9.35724	.12456	8.02848	54
7	.07197	13.8940	.08954	11.1681	.10716	9.33155	.12485	8.00948	53
8	.07227	13.8378	.08983	11.1316	.10746	9.30599	.12515	7.99058	52
9	.07256	13.7821	.09013	11.0954	.10775	9.28058	.12544	7.97176	51
10	.07285	13.7267	.09042	11.0594	.10805	9.25530	.12574	7.95302	50
11	.07314	13.6719	.09071	11.0237	.10834	9.23016	.12603	7.93438	49
12	.07344	13.6174	.09101	10.9882	.10863	9.20516	.12633	7.91582	48
13	.07373	13.5634	.09130	10.9529	.10893	9.18028	.12662	7.89734	47
14	.07402	13.5098	.09159	10.9178	.10922	9.15554	.12692	7.87895	46
15	.07431	13.4566	.09189	10.8829	.10952	9.13093	.12722	7.86064	45
16	.07461	13.4039	.09218	10.8483	.10981	9.10646	.12751	7.84242	44
17	.07490	13.3515	.09247	10.8139	.11011	9.08211	.12781	7.82428	43
18	.07519	13.2996	.09277	10.7797	.11040	9.05789	.12810	7.80622	42
19	.07548	13.2480	.09306	10.7457	.11070	9.03379	.12840	7.78825	41
20	.07578	13.1969	.09335	10.7119	.11099	9.00983	.12869	7.77035	40
21	.07607	13.1461	.09365	10.6783	.11128	8.98598	.12899	7.75254	39
22	.07636	13.0958	.09394	10.6450	.11158	8.96227	.12929	7.73480	38
23	.07665	13.0458	.09423	10.6118	.11187	8.93867	.12958	7.71715	37
24	.07695	12.9962	.09453	10.5789	.11217	8.01520	.12988	7.69957	36
25	.07724	12.9469	.09482	10.5462	.11246	8.89185	.13017	7.68208	35
26	.07753	12.8981	.09511	10.5136	.11276	8.86862	.13047	7.66466	34
27	.07782	12.8496	.09541	10.4813	.11305	8.84551	.13076	7.64732	33
28	.07812	12.8014	.09570	10.4491	.11335	8.82252	.13106	7.63005	32
29	.07841	12.7536	.09600	10.4172	.11364	8.79964	.13136	7.61287	31
30	.07870	12.7062	.09629	10.3854	.11394	8.77689	.13165	7.59575	30
31	.07899	12.6591	.09658	10.3538	.11423	8.75425	.13195	7.57872	29
32	.07929	12.6124	.09688	10.3224	.11452	8.73172	.13224	7.56176	28
33	.07958	12.5660	.09717	10.2913	.11482	8.70931	.13254	7.54487	27
34	.07987	12.5199	.09746	10.2602	.11511	8.68701	.13284	7.52806	26
35	.08017	12.4742	.09776	10.2294	.11541	8.66482	.13313	7.51132	25
36	.08046	12.4288	.09805	10.1988	.11570	8.64275	.13343	7.49465	24
37	.08075	12.3838	.09834	10.1683	.11600	8.62078	.13372	7.47806	23
38	.08104	12.3390	.09864	10.1381	.11629	8.59893	.13402	7.46154	22
39	.08134	12.2946	.09893	10.1080	.11659	8.57718	.13432	7.44509	21
40	.08163	12.2505	.09923	10.0780	.11688	8.55555	.13461	7.42871	20
41	.08192	12.2067	.09952	10.0483	.11718	8.53402	.13491	7.41240	19
42	.08221	12.1632	.09981	10.0187	.11747	8.51259	.13521	7.39616	18
43	.08251	12.1201	.10011	9.98931	.11777	8.49128	.13550	7.37999	17
44	.08280	12.0772	.10040	9.96007	.11806	8.47007	.13580	7.36389	16
45	.08309	12.0346	.10069	9.93101	.11836	8.44896	.13609	7.34786	15
46	.08339	11.9923	.10099	9.90211	.11865	8.42795	.13639	7.23190	14
47	.08368	11.9504	.10128	9.87338	.11895	8.40705	.13669	7.31600	13
48	.08397	11.9087	.10158	9.84482	.11924	8.38625	.13698	7.30018	12
49	.08427	11.8673	.10187	9.81641	.11954	8.36555	.13728	7.28442	11
50	.08456	11.8262	.10216	9.78817	.11983	8.34496	.13758	7.26873	10
51	.08485	11.7853	.10246	9.76009	.12013	8.32446	.13787	7.25310	9
52	.08514	11.7448	.10275	9.73217	.12042	8.30406	.13817	7.23754	8
53	.08544	11.7045	.10305	9.70441	.12072	8.28376	.13846	7.22204	7
54	.08573	11.6645	.10334	9.67680	.12101	8.26355	.13876	7.20661	6
55	.08602	11.6248	.10363	9.64935	.12131	8.24345	.13906	7.19125	5
56	.08632	11.5853	.10393	9.62205	.12160	8.22344	.13935	7.17594	4
57	.08661	11.5461	.10422	9.59490	.12190	8.20352	.13965	7.16071	3
58	.08690	11.5072	.10452	9.56791	.12219	8.18370	.13995	7.14553	2
59	.08720	11.4685	.10481	9.54106	.12249	8.16398	.14024	7.13042	1
60	.08749	11.4301	.10510	9.51436	.12278	8.14435	.14054	7.11537	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	85°		84°		83°		82°		

′	8°		9°		10°		11°		′
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.14054	7.11537	.15838	6.31375	.17633	5.67128	.19438	5.14455	60
1	.14084	7.10038	.15868	6.30189	.17663	5.66165	.19468	5.13658	59
2	.14113	7.08546	.15898	6.29007	.17693	5.65205	.19498	5.12862	58
3	.14143	7.07059	.15928	6.27829	.17723	5.64248	.19520	5.12069	57
4	.14173	7.05579	.15958	6.26655	.17753	5.63295	.19559	5.11279	56
5	.14202	7.04105	.15988	6.25486	.17783	5.62344	.19589	5.10490	55
6	.14232	7.02637	.16017	6.24321	.17813	5.61397	.19619	5.09704	54
7	.14262	6.91174	.16047	6.23160	.17843	5.60452	.19649	5.08921	53
8	.14291	6.99718	.16077	6.22003	.17873	5.59511	.19680	5.08139	52
9	.14321	6.98268	.16107	6.20851	.17903	5.58573	.19710	5.07360	51
10	.14351	6.96823	.16137	6.19703	.17933	5.57638	.19740	5.06584	50
11	.14381	6.95385	.16167	6.18559	.17963	5.56706	.19770	5.05809	49
12	.14410	6.93952	.16196	6.17419	.17993	5.55777	.19801	5.05037	48
13	.14440	6.92525	.16226	6.16283	.18023	5.54851	.19831	5.04267	47
14	.14470	6.91104	.16256	6.15151	.18053	5.53927	.19861	5.03499	46
15	.14499	6.89688	.16286	6.14023	.18083	5.53007	.19891	5.02734	45
16	.14529	6.88278	.16316	6.12899	.18113	5.52090	.19921	5.01971	44
17	.14559	6.86874	.16346	6.11779	.18143	5.51176	.19952	5.01210	43
18	.14588	6.85475	.16376	6.10664	.18173	5.50264	.19982	5.00451	42
19	.14618	6.84082	.16405	6.09552	.18203	5.49356	.20012	4.99695	41
20	.14648	6.82694	.16435	6.08444	.18233	5.48451	.20042	4.98940	40
21	.14678	6.81312	.16465	6.07340	.18263	5.47548	.20073	4.98188	39
22	.14707	6.79936	.16495	6.06240	.18293	5.46648	.20103	4.97438	38
23	.14737	6.78564	.16525	6.05143	.18323	5.45751	.20133	4.96690	37
24	.14767	6.77199	.16555	6.04051	.18353	5.44857	.20164	4.95945	36
25	.14796	6.75838	.16585	6.02962	.18384	5.43966	.20194	4.95201	35
26	.14826	6.74483	.16615	6.01878	.18414	5.43077	.20224	4.94460	34
27	.14856	6.73133	.16645	6.00797	.18444	5.42192	.20254	4.93721	33
28	.14886	6.71789	.16674	5.99720	.18474	5.41309	.20285	4.92984	32
29	.14915	6.70450	.16704	5.98646	.18504	5.40429	.20315	4.92249	31
30	.14945	6.69116	.16734	5.97576	.18534	5.39552	.20345	4.91516	30
31	.14975	6.67787	.16764	5.96510	.18564	5.38677	.20376	4.90785	29
32	.15005	6.66463	.16794	5.95448	.18594	5.37805	.20406	4.90056	28
33	.15034	6.65144	.16824	5.94390	.18624	5.36936	.20436	4.89330	27
34	.15064	6.63831	.16854	5.93335	.18654	5.36070	.20466	4.88605	26
35	.15094	6.62523	.16884	5.92283	.18684	5.35206	.20497	4.87882	25
36	.15124	6.61219	.16914	5.91236	.18714	5.34345	.20527	4.87162	24
37	.15153	6.59921	.16944	5.90191	.18745	5.33487	.20557	4.86444	23
38	.15183	6.58627	.16974	5.89151	.18775	5.32631	.20588	4.85727	22
39	.15213	6.57339	.17004	5.88114	.18805	5.31778	.20618	4.85013	21
40	.15243	6.56055	.17033	5.87080	.18835	5.30928	.20648	4.84300	20
41	.15272	6.54777	.17063	5.86051	.18865	5.30080	.20679	4.83590	19
42	.15302	6.53503	.17093	5.85024	.18895	5.29235	.20709	4.82882	18
43	.15332	6.52234	.17123	5.84001	.18925	5.28393	.20739	4.82175	17
44	.15362	6.50970	.17153	5.82982	.18955	5.27553	.20770	4.81471	16
45	.15391	6.49710	.17183	5.81966	.18986	5.26715	.20800	4.80769	15
46	.15421	6.48456	.17213	5.80953	.19016	5.25880	.20830	4.80068	14
47	.15451	6.47206	.17243	5.79944	.19046	5.25048	.20861	4.70370	13
48	.15481	6.45961	.17273	5.78938	.19076	5.24218	.20891	4.78673	12
49	.15511	6.44720	.17303	5.77936	.19106	5.23391	.20921	4.77978	11
50	.15540	6.43484	.17333	5.73937	.19136	5.22566	.20952	4.77286	10
51	.15570	6.42253	.17363	5.75941	.19166	5.21744	.20982	4.76595	9
52	.15600	6.41026	.17393	5.74949	.19197	5.20925	.21013	4.75906	8
53	.15630	6.39804	.17423	5.73960	.19227	5.20107	.21043	4.75219	7
54	.15660	6.38587	.17453	5.72974	.19257	5.19293	.21073	4.74534	6
55	.15689	6.37374	.17483	5.71992	.19287	5.18480	.21104	4.73851	5
56	.15719	6.36165	.17513	5.71013	.19317	5.17671	.21134	4.73170	4
57	.15749	6.34961	.17543	5.70037	.19347	5.16863	.21164	4.72490	3
58	.15779	6.33761	.17573	5.69064	.19378	5.16058	.21195	4.71813	2
59	.15809	6.32566	.17603	5.68094	.19408	5.15256	.21225	4.71137	1
60	.15838	6.31375	.17633	5.67128	.19438	5.14455	.21256	4.70463	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	81°		80°		79°		78°		

′	12°		13°		14°		15°		′
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.21256	4.70463	.23087	4.33148	.24933	4.01078	.26795	3.73205	60
1	.21286	4.69791	.23117	4.32573	.24964	4.00582	.26826	3.72771	59
2	.21316	4.69121	.23148	4.32001	.24995	4.00086	.26857	3.72338	58
3	.21347	4.68452	.23179	4.31430	.25026	3.99592	.26888	3.71907	57
4	.21377	4.67786	.23209	4.30860	.25056	3.99099	.26920	3.71476	56
5	.21408	4.67121	.23240	4.30291	.25087	3.98607	.26951	3.71046	55
6	.21438	4.66458	.23271	4.29724	.25118	3.98117	.26982	3.70616	54
7	.21469	4.65797	.23301	4.29159	.25149	3.97627	.27013	3.70188	53
8	.21499	4.65138	.23332	4.28595	.25180	3.97139	.27044	3.69761	52
9	.21529	4.64480	.23363	4.28032	.25211	3.96651	.27076	3.69335	51
10	.21560	4.63825	.23393	4.27471	.25242	3.96165	.27107	3.68909	50
11	.21590	4.63171	.23424	4.26911	.25273	3.95680	.27138	3.68485	49
12	.21621	4.62518	.23455	4.26352	.25304	3.95196	.27169	3.68061	48
13	.21651	4.61868	.23485	4.25795	.25335	3.94713	.27201	3.67638	47
14	.21682	4.61219	.23516	4.25239	.25366	3.94232	.27232	3.67217	46
15	.21712	4.60572	.23547	4.24685	.25397	3.93751	.27263	3.66796	45
16	.21743	4.59927	.23578	4.24132	.25428	3.93271	.27294	3.66376	44
17	.21773	4.59283	.23608	4.23580	.25459	3.92793	.27326	3.65957	43
18	.21804	4.58641	.23639	4.23030	.25490	3.92316	.27357	3.65538	42
19	.21834	4.58001	.23670	4.22481	.25521	3.91839	.27388	3.65121	41
20	.21864	4.57363	.23700	4.21933	.25552	3.91364	.27419	3.64705	40
21	.21895	4.56726	.23731	4.21387	.25583	3.90890	.27451	3.64289	39
22	.21925	4.56091	.23762	4.20842	.25614	3.90417	.27482	3.63874	38
23	.21956	4.55458	.23793	4.20298	.25645	3.89945	.27513	3.63461	37
24	.21986	4.54826	.23823	4.19756	.25676	3.89474	.27545	3.63048	36
25	.22017	4.54196	.23854	4.19215	.25707	3.89004	.27576	3.62636	35
26	.22047	4.53568	.23885	4.18675	.25738	3.88536	.27607	3.62224	34
27	.22078	4.52941	.23916	4.18137	.25769	3.88068	.27638	3.61814	33
28	.22108	4.52316	.23946	4.17600	.25800	3.87601	.27670	3.61405	32
29	.22139	4.51693	.23977	4.17064	.25831	3.87136	.27701	3.60996	31
30	.22169	4.51071	.24008	4.16530	.25862	3.86671	.27732	3.60588	30
31	.22200	4.50451	.24039	4.15997	.25893	3.86208	.27764	3.60181	29
32	.22231	4.49832	.24069	4.15465	.25924	3.85745	.27795	3.59775	28
33	.22261	4.49215	.24100	4.14934	.25955	3.85284	.27826	3.59370	27
34	.22292	4.48600	.24131	4.14405	.25986	3.84824	.27858	3.58966	26
35	.22322	4.47986	.24162	4.13877	.26017	3.84364	.27889	3.58562	25
36	.22353	4.47374	.24193	4.13350	.26048	3.83906	.27921	3.58160	24
37	.22383	4.46764	.24223	4.12825	.26079	3.83449	.27952	3.57758	23
38	.22414	4.46155	.24254	4.12301	.26110	3.82992	.27983	3.57357	22
39	.22444	4.45548	.24285	4.11778	.26141	3.82537	.28015	3.56957	21
40	.22475	4.44942	.24316	4.11256	.26172	3.82083	.28046	3.56557	20
41	.22505	4.44338	.24347	4.10736	.26203	3.81630	.28077	3.56159	19
42	.22536	4.43735	.24377	4.10216	.26235	3.81177	.28109	3.55761	18
43	.22567	4.43134	.24408	4.09699	.26266	3.80726	.28140	3.55364	17
44	.22597	4.42534	.24439	4.09182	.26297	3.80276	.28172	3.54968	16
45	.22628	4.41936	.24470	4.08666	.26328	3.79827	.28203	3.54573	15
46	.22658	4.41340	.24501	4.08152	.26359	3.79378	.28234	3.54179	14
47	.22689	4.40745	.24532	4.07639	.26390	3.78931	.28266	3.53785	13
48	.22719	4.40152	.24562	4.07127	.26421	3.78485	.28297	3.53393	12
49	.22750	4.39560	.24593	4.06616	.26452	3.78040	.28329	3.53001	11
50	.22781	4.38969	.24624	4.06107	.26483	3.77595	.28360	3.52609	10
51	.22811	4.38381	.24655	4.05599	.26515	3.77152	.28391	3.52219	9
52	.22842	4.37793	.24686	4.05092	.26546	3.76709	.28423	3.51829	8
53	.22872	4.37207	.24717	4.04586	.26577	3.76268	.28454	3.51441	7
54	.22903	4.36623	.24747	4.04081	.26608	3.75828	.28486	3.51053	6
55	.22934	4.36040	.24778	4.03578	.26639	3.75388	.28517	3.50666	5
56	.22964	4.35459	.24809	4.03076	.26670	3.74950	.28549	3.50279	4
57	.22995	4.34879	.24840	4.02574	.26701	3.74512	.28580	3.49894	3
58	.23026	4.34300	.24871	4.02074	.26733	3.74075	.28612	3.49509	2
59	.23056	4.33723	.24902	4.01576	.26764	3.73640	.28643	3.49125	1
60	.23087	4.33148	.24933	4.01078	.26795	3.73205	.28675	3.48741	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	77°		76°		75°		74°		

′	16°		17°		18°		19°		′
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.28675	3.48741	.30573	3.27085	.32492	3.07768	.34433	2.90421	60
1	.28706	3.48359	.30605	3.26745	.32524	3.07464	.34465	2.90147	59
2	.28738	3.47977	.30637	3.26406	.32556	3.07160	.34498	2.89873	58
3	.28769	3.47596	.30669	3.26067	.32588	3.06857	.34530	2.89600	57
4	.28800	3.47216	.30700	3.25729	.32621	3.06554	.34563	2.89327	56
5	.28832	3.46837	.30732	3.25392	.32653	3.06252	.34596	2.89055	55
6	.28864	3.46458	.30764	3.25055	.32685	3.05950	.34628	2.88783	54
7	.28895	3.46080	.30796	3.24719	.32717	3.05649	.34661	2.88511	53
8	.28927	3.45703	.30828	3.24383	.32749	3.05349	.34693	2.88240	52
9	.28958	3.45327	.30860	3.24049	.32782	3.05049	.34726	2.87970	51
10	.28990	3.44951	.30891	3.23714	.32814	3.04749	.34758	2.87700	50
11	.29021	3.44576	.30923	3.23381	.32846	3.04450	.34791	2.87430	49
12	.29053	3.44202	.30955	3.23048	.32878	3.04152	.34824	2.87161	48
13	.29084	3.43829	.30987	3.22715	.32911	3.03854	.34856	2.86892	47
14	.29116	3.43456	.31019	3.22384	.32943	3.03556	.34889	2.86624	46
15	.29147	3.43084	.31051	3.22053	.32975	3.03260	.34922	2.86356	45
16	.29179	3.42713	.31083	3.21722	.33007	3.02963	.34954	2.86089	44
17	.29210	3.42343	.31115	3.21392	.33040	3.02667	.34987	2.85822	43
18	.29242	3.41973	.31147	3.21063	.33072	3.02372	.35020	2.85555	42
19	.29274	3.41604	.31178	3.20734	.33104	3.02077	.35052	2.85289	41
20	.29305	3.41236	.31210	3.20406	.33136	3.01783	.35085	2.85023	40
21	.29337	3.40869	.31242	3.20079	.33169	3.01489	.35118	2.84758	39
22	.29368	3.40502	.31274	3.19752	.33201	3.01196	.35150	2.84494	38
23	.29400	3.40136	.31306	3.19426	.33233	3.00903	.35183	2.84229	37
24	.29432	3.39771	.31338	3.19100	.33266	3.00611	.35216	2.83965	36
25	.29463	3.39406	.31370	3.18775	.33298	3.00319	.35248	2.83702	35
26	.29495	3.39042	.31402	3.18451	.33330	3.00028	.35281	2.83439	34
27	.29526	3.38679	.31434	3.18127	.33363	2.99738	.35314	2.83176	33
28	.29558	3.38317	.31466	3.17804	.33395	2.09447	.35346	2.82914	32
29	.29590	3.37955	.31498	3.17481	.33427	2.99158	.35379	2.82653	31
30	.29621	3.37594	.31530	3.17159	.33460	2.98868	.35412	2.82391	30
31	.29653	3.37234	.31562	3.16838	.33492	2.98580	.35445	2.82130	29
32	.29685	3.36875	.31594	3.16517	.33524	2.98292	.35477	2.81870	28
33	.29716	3.36516	.31626	3.16197	.33557	2.98004	.35510	2.81610	27
34	.29748	3.36158	.31658	3.15877	.33589	2.97717	.35543	2.81350	26
35	.29780	3.35800	.31690	3.15558	.33621	2.97430	.35576	2.81091	25
36	.29811	3.35443	.31722	3.15240	.33654	2.97144	.35608	2.80833	24
37	.29843	3.35087	.31754	3.14922	.33686	2.96858	.35641	2.80574	23
38	.29875	3.34732	.31786	2.14605	.33718	2.96573	.35674	2.80316	22
39	.29906	3.34377	.31818	3.14288	.33751	2.96288	.35707	2.80059	21
40	.29938	3.34023	.31850	3.13972	.33783	2.96004	.35740	2.79802	20
41	.29970	3.33670	.31882	3.13656	.33816	2.95721	.35772	2.79545	19
42	.30001	3.33317	.31914	3.13341	.33848	2.95437	.35805	2.79289	18
43	.30033	3.32965	.31946	3.13027	.33881	2.95155	.35838	2.79033	17
44	.30065	3.32614	.31978	3.12713	.33913	2.94872	.35871	2.78778	16
45	.30097	3.32264	.32010	3.12400	.33945	2.94591	.35904	2.78523	15
46	.30128	3.31914	.32042	3.12087	.33978	2.94309	.35937	2.78269	14
47	.30160	3.31565	.32074	3.11775	.34010	2.94028	.35969	2.78014	13
48	.30192	3.31216	.32106	3.11464	.34043	2.93748	.36002	2.77761	12
49	.30224	3.30868	.32139	3.11153	.34075	2.93468	.36035	2.77507	11
50	.30255	3.30521	.32171	3.10842	.34108	2.93189	.36068	2.77254	10
51	.30287	3.30174	.32203	3.10532	.34140	2.92910	.36101	2.77002	9
52	.30319	3.29829	.32235	3.10223	.34173	2.92632	.36134	2.76750	8
53	.30351	3.29483	.32267	3.09914	.34205	2.92354	.36167	2.76498	7
54	.30382	3.29139	.32299	3.09606	.34238	2.92076	.36199	2.76247	6
55	.30414	3.28795	.32331	3.09298	.34270	2.91799	.36232	2.75996	5
56	.30446	3.28452	.32363	3.08991	.34303	2.91523	.36265	2.75746	4
57	.30478	3.28109	.32396	3.08685	.34335	2.91246	.36298	2.75496	3
58	.30509	3.27767	.32428	3.08379	.34368	2.90971	.36331	2.75246	1
59	.30541	3.27426	.22460	3.08073	.34400	2.90696	.36364	2.74997	0
60	.30573	3.27085	.32492	3.07768	.34433	2.90421	.36397	2.74748	2
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	73°		72°		71°		70°		

′	20°		21°		22°		23°		′
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.36397	2.74748	.38386	2.60509	.40403	2.47509	.42447	2.35585	60
1	.36430	2.74499	.38420	2.60283	.40436	2.47302	.42482	2.35395	59
2	.36463	2.74251	.38453	2.60057	.40470	2.47095	.42516	2.35205	58
3	.36496	2.74004	.38487	2.59831	.40504	2.46888	.42551	2.35015	57
4	.36529	2.73756	.38520	2.59606	.40538	2.46682	.42585	2.34825	56
5	.36562	2.73509	.38553	2.59381	.40572	2.46476	.42619	2.34636	55
6	.36595	2.73263	.38587	2.59156	.40606	2.46270	.42654	2.34447	54
7	.36628	2.73017	.38620	2.58932	.40640	2.46065	.42688	2.34258	53
8	.36661	2.72771	.38654	2.58708	.40674	2.45860	.42722	2.34069	52
9	.36694	2.72526	.38687	2.58484	.40707	2.45655	.42757	2.33881	51
10	.36727	2.72281	.38721	2.58261	.40741	2.45451	.42791	2.33693	50
11	.36760	2.72036	.38754	2.58038	.40775	2.45246	.42826	2.33505	49
12	.36793	2.71792	.38787	2.57815	.40809	2.45043	.42860	2.33317	48
13	.36826	2.71548	.38821	2.57593	.40843	2.44839	.42894	2.33130	47
14	.36859	2.71305	.38854	2.57371	.40877	2.44636	.42929	2.32943	46
15	.36892	2.71062	.38888	2.57150	.40911	2.44433	.42963	2.32756	45
16	.36925	2.70819	.38921	2.56928	.40945	2.44230	.42998	2.32570	44
17	.36958	2.70577	.38955	2.56707	.40979	2.44027	.43032	2.32383	43
18	.36991	2.70335	.38988	2.56487	.41013	2.43825	.43067	2.32197	42
19	.37024	2.70094	.39022	2.56266	.41047	2.43623	.43101	2.32012	41
20	.37057	2.69853	.39055	2.56046	.41081	2.43422	.43136	2.31826	40
21	.37090	2.69612	.39089	2.55827	.41115	2.43220	.43170	2.31641	39
22	.37123	2.69371	.39122	2.55608	.41149	2.43019	.43205	2.31456	38
23	.37157	2.69131	.39156	2.55389	.41183	2.42819	.43239	2.31271	37
24	.37190	2.68892	.39190	2.55170	.41217	2.42618	.43274	2.31086	36
25	.37223	2.68653	.39223	2.54952	.41251	2.42418	.43308	2.30902	35
26	.37256	2.68414	.39257	2.54734	.41285	2.42218	.43343	2.30718	34
27	.37289	2.68175	.39290	2.54516	.41319	2.42019	.43378	2.30534	33
28	.37322	2.67937	.39324	2.54299	.41353	2.41819	.43412	2.30351	32
29	.37355	2.67700	.39357	2.54082	.41387	2.41620	.43447	2.30167	31
30	.37388	2.67462	.39391	2.53865	.41421	2.41421	.43481	2.29984	30
31	.37422	2.67225	.39425	2.53648	.41455	2.41223	.43516	2.29801	29
32	.37455	2.66989	.39458	2.53432	.41490	2.41025	.43550	2.29619	28
33	.37488	2.66752	.39492	2.53217	.41524	2.40827	.43585	2.29437	27
34	.37521	2.66516	.39526	2.53001	.41558	2.40629	.43620	2.29254	26
35	.37554	2.66281	.39559	2.52786	.41592	2.40432	.43654	2.29073	25
36	.37588	2.66046	.39593	2.52571	.41626	2.40235	.43689	2.28891	24
37	.37621	2.65811	.39626	2.52357	.41660	2.40038	.43724	2.28710	23
38	.37654	2.65576	.39660	2.52142	.41694	2.39841	.43758	2.28528	22
39	.37687	2.65342	.39694	2.51929	.41728	2.39645	.43793	2.28348	21
40	.37720	2.65109	.39727	2.51715	.41763	2.39449	.43828	2.28167	20
41	.37754	2.64875	.39761	2.51502	.41797	2.39253	.43862	2.27987	19
42	.37787	2.64642	.39795	2.51289	.41831	2.39058	.43897	2.27806	18
43	.37820	2.64410	.39829	2.51076	.41865	2.38863	.43932	2.27626	17
44	.37853	2.64177	.39862	2.50864	.41899	2.38668	.43966	2.27447	16
45	.37887	2.63945	.39896	2.50652	.41933	2.38473	.44001	2.27267	15
46	.37920	2.63714	.39930	2.50440	.41968	2.38279	.44036	2.27088	14
47	.37953	2.63483	.39963	2.50229	.42002	2.38084	.44071	2.26909	13
48	.37986	2.63252	.39997	2.50018	.42036	2.37891	.44105	2.26730	12
49	.38020	2.63021	.40031	2.49807	.42070	2.37697	.44140	2.26552	11
50	.38053	2.62791	.40065	2.49597	.42105	2.37504	.44175	2.26374	10
51	.38086	2.62561	.40098	2.49386	.42139	2.37311	.44210	2.26196	9
52	.38120	2.62332	.40132	2.49177	.42173	2.37118	.44244	2.26018	8
53	.38153	2.62103	.40166	2.48967	.42207	2.36925	.44279	2.25840	7
54	.38186	2.61874	.40200	2.48758	.42242	2.36733	.44314	2.25663	6
55	.38220	2.61646	.40234	2.48549	.42276	2.36541	.44349	2.25486	5
56	.38253	2.61418	.40267	2.48340	.42310	2.36349	.44384	2.25309	4
57	.38286	2.61190	.40301	2.48132	.42345	2.36158	.44418	2.25132	3
58	.38320	2.60963	.40335	2.47924	.42379	2.35967	.44453	2.24956	2
59	.38353	2.60736	.40369	2.47716	.42413	2.35776	.44488	2.24780	1
60	.38386	2.60509	.40403	2.47509	.42447	2.35585	.44523	2.24604	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	69°		68°		67°		66°		

′	24°		25°		26°		27°		′
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.44523	2.24604	.46631	2.14451	.48773	2.05030	.50953	1.96261	60
1	.44558	2.24428	.46666	2.14288	.48809	2.04879	.50989	1.96120	59
2	.44593	2.24252	.46702	2.14125	.48845	2.04728	.51026	1.95979	58
3	.44627	2.24077	.46737	2.13963	.48881	2.04577	.51063	1.95838	57
4	.44662	2.23902	.46772	2.13801	.48917	2.04426	.51099	1.95698	56
5	.44697	2.23727	.46808	2.13639	.48953	2.04276	.51136	1.95557	55
6	.44732	2.23553	.46843	2.13477	.48989	2.04125	.51173	1.95417	54
7	.44767	2.23378	.46879	2.13316	.49026	2.03975	.51209	1.95277	53
8	.44802	2.23204	.46914	2.13154	.49062	2.03825	.51246	1.95127	52
9	.44837	2.23030	.46950	2.12993	.49098	2.03675	.51283	1.94997	51
10	.44872	2.22857	.46985	2.12832	.49134	2.03526	.51319	1.94858	50
11	.44907	2.22683	.47021	2.12671	.49170	2.03376	.51356	1.94718	49
12	.44942	2.22510	.47056	2.12511	.49206	2.03227	.51393	1.94579	48
13	.44977	2.22337	.47092	2.12350	.49242	2.03078	.51430	1.94440	47
14	.45012	2.22164	.47128	2.12190	.49278	2.02929	.51467	1.94301	46
15	.45047	2.21992	.47163	2.12030	.49315	2.02780	.51503	1.94162	45
16	.45082	2.21819	.47199	2.11871	.49351	2.02631	.51540	1.94023	44
17	.45117	2.21647	.47234	2.11711	.49387	2.02483	.51577	1.93885	43
18	.45152	2.21475	.47270	2.11552	.49423	2.02335	.51614	1.93746	42
19	.45187	2.21304	.47305	2.11392	.48459	2.02187	.51651	1.93608	41
20	.45222	2.21132	.47341	2.11233	.49495	2.02039	51688	1.93470	40
21	.45257	2.20961	.47377	2.11075	.49532	2.01891	.51724	1.93332	39
22	.45292	2.20790	.47412	2.10916	.49568	2.01743	.51761	1.93195	38
23	.45327	2.20619	.47448	2.10758	.49604	2.01596	.51798	1.93057	37
24	.45362	2.20449	.47483	2.10600	.49640	2.01449	.51835	1.92920	36
25	.45397	2.20278	.47519	2.10442	.49677	2.01302	.51872	1.92782	35
26	.45432	2.20108	.47555	2.10284	.49713	2.01155	.51909	1.92645	34
27	.45467	2.19938	.47590	2.10126	.49749	2.01008	.51946	1.92508	33
28	.45502	2.19769	.47626	2.09969	.49786	2.00862	.51983	1.92371	32
29	.45538	2.19599	.47662	2.09811	.49822	2.00715	.52020	1.92235	31
30	.45573	2.19430	.47698	2.09654	.49858	2.00569	.52057	1.92098	30
31	.45608	2.19261	.47733	2.09498	.49894	2.00423	.52094	1.91962	29
32	.45643	2.19092	.47769	2.09341	.49931	2.00277	.52131	1.91826	28
33	.45678	2.18923	.47805	2.09184	.49967	2.00131	.52168	1.91690	27
34	.45713	2.18755	.47840	2.09028	.50004	1.99986	.52205	1.91552	26
35	.45748	2.18587	.47876	2.08872	.50040	1.99841	.52242	1.91414	25
36	.45784	2.18419	.47912	2.08716	.50076	1.99695	.52279	1.91288	24
37	.45819	2.18251	.47948	2.08560	.50113	1.99550	.52316	1.91142	23
38	.45854	2.18084	.47984	2.08405	.50149	1.99406	.52353	1.91017	22
39	.45889	2.17916	.48019	2.08250	.50185	1.99261	.52390	1.90876	21
40	.45924	2.17749	.48055	2.08094	.50222	1.99116	.52427	1.90741	20
41	.45960	2.17582	.48091	2.07939	.50258	1.98972	.52464	1.90607	19
42	.45995	2.17416	.48127	2.07785	.50295	1.98828	.52501	1.90472	18
43	.46030	2.17249	.48163	2.07630	.50331	1.98684	.52538	1.90337	17
44	.46065	2.17083	.48198	2.07476	.50368	1.98540	.52575	1.90203	16
45	.46101	2.16917	.48234	2.07321	.50404	1.98396	.52613	1.90069	15
46	.46136	2.16751	.48270	2.07167	.50441	1.98253	.52650	1.89935	14
47	.46171	2.16585	.48306	2.07014	.50477	1.98110	.52687	1.89801	13
48	.46206	2.16420	.48342	2.06860	.50514	1.97966	.52724	1.89667	12
49	.46242	2.16255	.48378	2.06706	.50550	1.97823	.52761	1.89533	11
50	.46277	2.16090	.48414	2.06553	.50587	1.97681	.52798	1.89400	10
51	.46312	2.15925	.48450	2.06400	.50623	1.97538	.52836	1.89266	9
52	.46348	2.15760	.48486	2.06247	.50660	1.97395	.52873	1.89133	8
53	.46383	2.15596	.48521	2.06094	.50696	1.97253	.52910	1.89000	7
54	.46418	2.15432	.48557	2.05942	.50733	1.97111	.52947	1.88867	6
55	.46454	2.15268	.48593	2.05790	.50769	1.96969	.52985	1.88734	5
56	.46489	2.15104	.48629	2.05637	.50806	1.96827	.53022	1.88602	4
57	.46525	2.14940	.48665	2.05485	.50843	1.96685	.53059	1.88469	3
58	.46560	2.14777	.48701	2.05333	.50879	1.96544	.53096	1.88337	2
59	.46595	2.14614	.48737	2.05182	.50916	1.96402	.53134	1.88205	1
60	.46631	2.14451	.48773	2.05030	.50953	1.96261	.53171	1.88073	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	65°		64°		63°		62°		

Table of Natural Tangents and Cotangents

′	28°		29°		30°		31°		
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.53171	1.88073	.55431	1.80405	.57735	1.73205	.60086	1.66428	60
1	.53208	1.87941	.55469	1.80281	.57774	1.73089	.60126	1.66318	59
2	.53246	1.87809	.55507	1.80158	.57813	1.72973	.60165	1.66209	58
3	.53283	1.87677	.55545	1.80034	.57851	1.72857	.60205	1.66099	57
4	.53320	1.87546	.55583	1.79911	.57890	1.72741	.60245	1.65990	56
5	.53358	1.87415	.55621	1.79788	.57929	1.72625	.60284	1.65881	55
6	.53395	1.87283	.55659	1.79665	.57968	1.72509	.60324	1.65772	54
7	.53432	1.87152	.55697	1.79542	.58007	1.72393	.60364	1.65663	53
8	.53470	1.87021	.55736	1.79419	.58046	1.72278	.60403	1.65554	52
9	.53507	1.86891	.55774	1.79296	.58085	1.72163	.60443	1.65445	51
10	.53545	1.86760	.55812	1.79174	.58124	1.72047	.60483	1.65337	50
11	.53582	1.86630	.55850	1.79051	.58162	1.71932	.60522	1.65228	49
12	.53620	1.86499	.55888	1.78929	.58201	1.71817	.60562	1.65120	48
13	.53657	1.86369	.55926	1.78807	.58240	1.71702	.60602	1.65011	47
14	.53694	1.86239	.55964	1.78685	.58279	1.71588	.60642	1.64903	46
15	.53732	1.86109	.56003	1.78563	.58318	1.71473	.60681	1.64795	45
16	.53769	1.85979	.56041	1.78441	.58357	1.71358	.60721	1.64687	44
17	.53807	1.85850	.56079	1.78319	.58396	1.71244	.60761	1.64579	43
18	.53844	1.85720	.56117	1.78198	.58435	1.71129	.60801	1.64471	42
19	.53882	1.85591	.56156	1.78077	.58474	1.71015	.60841	1.64363	41
20	.53920	1.85462	.56194	1.77955	.58513	1.70901	.60881	1.64256	40
21	.53957	1.85333	.56232	1.77834	.58552	1.70787	.60921	1.64148	39
22	.53995	1.85204	.56270	1.77713	.58591	1.70673	.60960	1.64041	38
23	.54032	1.85075	.56309	1.77592	.58631	1.70560	.61000	1.63934	37
24	.54070	1.84946	.56347	1.77471	.58670	1.70446	.61040	1.63826	36
25	.54107	1.84818	.56385	1.77351	.58709	1.70332	.61080	1.63719	35
26	.54145	1.84689	.56424	1.77230	.58748	1.70219	.61120	1.63612	34
27	.54183	1.84561	.56462	1.77110	.58787	1.70106	.61160	1.63505	33
28	.54220	1.84433	.56501	1.76990	.58826	1.69992	.61200	1.63398	32
29	.54258	1.84305	.56539	1.76869	.58865	1.69879	.61240	1.63292	31
30	.54296	1.84177	.56577	1.76749	.58905	1.69766	.61280	1.63185	30
31	.54333	1.84049	.56616	1.76629	.58944	1.69653	.61320	1.63079	29
32	.54371	1.83922	.56654	1.76510	.58983	1.69541	.61360	1.62972	28
33	.54409	1.83794	.56693	1.76390	.59022	1.69428	.61400	1.62866	27
34	.54446	1.83667	.56731	1.76271	.59061	1.69316	.61440	1.62760	26
35	.54484	1.83540	.56769	1.76151	.59101	1.69203	.61480	1.62654	25
36	.54522	1.83413	.56808	1.76032	.59140	1.69091	.61520	1.62548	24
37	.54560	1.83286	.56846	1.75913	.59179	1.68979	.61561	1.62442	23
38	.54597	1.83159	.56885	1.75794	.59218	1.68866	.61601	1.62336	22
39	.54635	1.83033	.56923	1.75675	.59258	1.68754	.61641	1.62230	21
40	.54673	1.82906	.56962	1.75556	.59297	1.68643	.61681	1.62125	20
41	.54711	1.82780	.57000	1.75437	.59336	1.68531	.61721	1.62019	19
42	.54748	1.82654	.57039	1.75319	.59376	1.68419	.61761	1.61914	18
43	.54786	1.82528	.57078	1.75200	.59415	1.68308	.61801	1.61808	17
44	.54824	1.82402	.57116	1.75082	.59454	1.68196	.61842	1.61703	16
45	.54862	1.82276	.57155	1.74964	.59494	1.68085	.61882	1.61598	15
46	.54900	1.82150	.57193	1.74846	.59533	1.67974	.61922	1.61493	14
47	.54938	1.82025	.57232	1.74728	.59573	1.67863	.61962	1.61388	13
48	.54975	1.81899	.57271	1.74610	.59612	1.67752	.62003	1.61283	12
49	.55013	1.81774	.57309	1.74492	.59651	1.67641	.62043	1.61179	11
50	.55051	1.81649	.57348	1.74375	.59601	1.67530	.62083	1.61074	10
51	.55089	1.81524	.57386	1.74257	.59730	1.67419	.62124	1.60970	9
52	.55127	1.81399	.57425	1.74140	.59770	1.67309	.62164	1.60865	8
53	.55165	1.81274	.57464	1.74022	.59809	1.67198	.62204	1.60761	7
54	.55203	1.81150	.57503	1.73905	.59849	1.67088	.62245	1.60657	6
55	.55241	1.81025	.57541	1.73788	.59888	1.66978	.62285	1.60553	5
56	.55279	1.80901	.57580	1.73671	.59928	1.66867	.62325	1.60449	4
57	.55317	1.80777	.57619	1.73555	.59957	1.66757	.62366	1.60345	3
58	.55355	1.80653	.57657	1.73438	.60007	1.66647	.62406	1.60241	2
59	.55393	1.80529	.57696	1.73321	.60046	1.66538	.62446	1.60137	1
60	.55431	1.80405	.57735	1.73205	.60086	1.66428	.62187	1.60033	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	
	61°		60°		59°		58°		

′	32°		33°		34°		35°		′
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.62487	1.60033	.64941	1.53986	.67451	1.48256	.70021	1.42815	60
1	.62527	1.59930	.64982	1.53888	.67493	1.48163	.70064	1.42726	59
2	.62568	1.59826	.65024	1.53791	.67536	1.48070	.70170	1.42638	58
3	.62608	1.59723	.65065	1.53693	.67578	1.47977	.70151	1.42550	57
4	.62649	1.59620	.65106	1.53595	.67620	1.47885	.70194	1.42462	56
5	.62689	1.59517	.65148	1.53497	.67663	1.47792	.70238	1.42374	55
6	.62730	1.59414	.65189	1.53400	.67705	1.47699	.70281	1.42286	54
7	.62770	1.59311	.65231	1.53302	.67748	1.47607	.70325	1.42198	53
8	.62811	1.59208	.65272	1.53205	.67790	1.47514	.70368	1.42110	52
9	.62852	1.59105	.65314	1.53107	.67832	1.47422	.70412	1.42022	51
10	.62892	1.59002	.65355	1.53010	.67875	1.47330	.70455	1.41934	50
11	.62933	1.58900	.65397	1.52913	.67917	1.47238	.70499	1.41847	49
12	.62973	1.58797	.65438	1.52816	.67960	1.47146	.70542	1.41759	48
13	.63014	1.58695	.65480	1.52719	.68002	1.47053	.70586	1.41672	47
14	.63055	1.58593	.65521	1.52622	.68045	1.46962	.70629	1.41584	46
15	.63095	1.58490	.65563	1.52525	.68088	1.46870	.70673	1.41497	45
16	.63136	1.58388	.65604	1.52429	.68130	1.46778	.70717	1.41409	44
17	.63177	1.58286	.65646	1.52332	.68173	1.46686	.70760	1.41322	43
18	.63217	1.58184	.65688	1.52235	.68215	1.46595	.70804	1.41235	42
19	.63258	1.58083	.65729	1.52139	.68258	1.46503	.70848	1.41148	41
20	.63299	1.57981	.65771	1.52043	.68301	1.46411	.70891	1.41061	40
21	.63340	1.57879	.65813	1.51946	.68343	1.46320	.70935	1.40974	39
22	.63380	1.57778	.65854	1.51850	.68386	1.46229	.70979	1.40887	38
23	.63421	1.57676	.65896	1.51754	.68429	1.46137	.71023	1.40800	37
24	.63462	1.57575	.65938	1.51658	.68471	1.46046	.71066	1.40714	36
25	.63503	1.57474	.65980	1.51562	.68514	1.45955	.71110	1.40627	35
26	.63544	1.57372	.66021	1.51466	.68557	1.45864	.71154	1.40540	34
27	.63584	1.57271	.66063	1.51370	.68600	1.45773	.71198	1.40454	33
28	.63625	1.57170	.66105	1.51275	.68642	1.45682	.71242	1.40367	32
29	.63666	1.57069	.66147	1.51179	.68685	1.45592	.71285	1.40281	31
30	.63707	1.56969	.66189	1.51084	.68728	1.45501	.71329	1.40195	30
31	.63748	1.56868	.66230	1.50988	.68771	1.45410	.71373	1.40109	29
32	.63789	1.56767	.66272	1.50893	.68814	1.45320	.71417	1.40022	28
33	.63830	1.56667	.63314	1.50797	.68857	1.45229	.71461	1.39936	27
34	.63871	1.56566	.66356	1.50702	.68900	1.45139	.71505	1.39850	26
35	.63912	1.56466	.66398	1.50607	.68942	1.45049	.71549	1.39764	25
36	.63953	1.56366	.66440	1.50512	.68985	1.44958	.71593	1.39679	24
37	.63994	1.56265	.66482	1.50417	.69028	1.44868	.71637	1.39593	23
38	.64035	1.56165	.66524	1.50322	.69071	1.44778	.71681	1.39507	22
39	.64076	1.56065	.66566	1.50228	.69114	1.44688	.71725	1.39421	21
40	.64117	1.55966	.66608	1.50133	.69157	1.44598	.71769	1.39336	20
41	.64158	1.55866	.66650	1.50038	.69200	1.44508	.71813	1.39250	19
42	.64199	1.55766	.66692	1.49944	.69243	1.44418	.71857	1.39165	18
43	.64240	1.55666	.66734	1.49849	.69286	1.44329	.71901	1.39079	17
44	.64281	1.55567	.66776	1.49755	.69329	1.44239	.71946	1.38994	16
45	.64322	1.55467	.66818	1.49661	.69372	1.44149	.71990	1.38909	15
46	.64363	1.55368	.66860	1.49566	.69416	1.44060	.72034	1.38824	14
47	.64404	1.55269	.66902	1.49472	.69459	1.43970	.72078	1.38738	13
48	.64446	1.55170	.66944	1.49378	.69502	1.43881	.72122	1.38653	12
49	.64487	1.55071	.66986	1.49284	.69545	1.43792	.72167	1.38568	11
50	.64528	1.54972	.67028	1.49190	.69588	1.43703	.72211	1.38484	10
51	.64569	1.54873	.67071	1.49097	.69631	1.43614	.72255	1.38399	9
52	.64610	1.54774	.67113	1.49003	.69675	1.43525	.72299	1.38314	8
53	.64652	1.54675	.67155	1.48909	.69718	1.43436	.72344	1.38229	7
54	.64693	1.54576	.67197	1.48816	.69761	1.43347	.72388	1.38145	6
55	.64734	1.54478	.67239	1.48722	.69804	1.43258	.72432	1.38060	5
56	.64775	1.54379	.67282	1.48629	.69847	1.43169	.72477	1.37976	4
57	.64817	1.54281	.67324	1.48536	.69891	1.43080	.72521	1.37891	3
58	.64858	1.54183	.67366	1.48442	.69934	1.42992	.72565	1.37807	2
59	.64899	1.54085	.67409	1.48349	.69977	1.42903	.72610	1.37722	1
60	.64941	1.53986	.67451	1.48256	.70021	1.42815	.72654	1.37638	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	57°		56°		55°		54°		

′	36°		37°		38°		39°		′
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.72654	1.37638	.75355	1.32704	.78129	1.27994	.80978	1.23490	60
1	.72699	1.37554	.75401	1.32624	.78175	1.27917	.81027	1.23416	59
2	.72743	1.37470	.75447	1.32544	.78222	1.27841	.81075	1.23343	58
3	.72788	1.37386	.75492	1.32464	.78269	1.27764	.81123	1.23270	57
4	.72832	1.37302	.75538	1.32384	.78316	1.27688	.81171	1.23196	56
5	.72877	1.37218	.75584	1.32304	.78363	1.27611	.81220	1.23123	55
6	.72921	1.37134	.75629	1.32224	.78410	1.27535	.81268	1.23050	54
7	.72966	1.37050	.75675	1.32144	.78457	1.27458	.81316	1.22977	53
8	.73010	1.36967	.75721	1.32064	.78504	1.27382	.81364	1.22904	52
9	.73055	1.36883	.75767	1.31984	.78551	1.27306	.81413	1.22831	51
10	.73100	1.36800	.75812	1.31904	.78598	1.27230	.81461	1.22758	50
11	.73144	1.36716	.75858	1.31825	.78645	1.27153	.81510	1.22685	49
12	.73189	1.36633	.75904	1.31745	.78692	1.27077	.81558	1.22612	48
13	.73234	1.36549	.75950	1.31666	.78739	1.27001	.81606	1.22539	47
14	.73278	1.36466	.75996	1.31586	.78786	1.26925	.81655	1.22467	46
15	.73323	1.36383	.76042	1.31507	.78834	1.26849	.81703	1.22394	45
16	.73368	1.36300	.76088	1.31427	.78881	1.26774	.81752	1.22321	44
17	.73412	1.36217	.76134	1.31348	.78928	1.26698	.81800	1.22249	43
18	.73457	1.36134	.76180	1.31269	.78975	1.26622	.81849	1.22176	42
19	.73502	1.36051	.76226	1.31190	.79022	1.26546	.81898	1.22104	41
20	.73547	1.35968	.76272	1.31110	.79070	1.26471	.81946	1.22031	40
21	.73592	1.35885	.76318	1.31031	.79117	1.26395	.81995	1.21959	39
22	.73637	1.35802	.76364	1.30952	.79164	1.26319	.82044	1.21886	38
23	.73681	1.35719	.76410	1.30873	.79212	1.26244	.82092	1.21814	37
24	.73726	1.35637	.76456	1.30795	.79259	1.26169	.82141	1.21742	36
25	.73771	1.35554	.76502	1.30716	.79306	1.26093	.82190	1.21670	35
26	.73816	1.35472	.76548	1.30637	.79354	1.26018	.82238	1.21598	34
27	.73861	1.35389	.76594	1.30558	.79401	1.25943	.82287	1.21526	33
28	.73906	1.35307	.76640	1.30480	.79449	1.25867	.82336	1.21454	32
29	.73951	1.35224	.76686	1.30401	.79496	1.25792	.82385	1.21382	31
30	.73996	1.35142	.76733	1.30323	.79544	1.25717	.82434	1.21310	30
31	.74041	1.35060	.76779	1.30244	.79591	1.25642	.82483	1.21238	29
32	.74086	1.34978	.76825	1.30166	.79639	1.25567	.82531	1.21166	28
33	.74131	1.34896	.76871	1.30087	.79686	1.25492	.82580	1.21094	27
34	.74176	1.34814	.76918	1.30009	.79734	1.25417	.82629	1.21023	26
35	.74221	1.34732	.76964	1.29931	.79781	1.25343	.82678	1.20951	25
36	.74267	1.34650	.77010	1.29853	.79829	1.25268	.82727	1.20879	24
37	.74312	1.34568	.77057	1.29775	.79877	1.25193	.82776	1.20808	23
38	.74357	1.34487	.77103	1.29696	.79924	1.25118	.82825	1.20736	22
39	.74402	1.34405	.77149	1.29618	.79972	1.25044	.82874	1.20665	21
40	.74447	1.34323	.77196	1.29541	.80020	1.24969	.82923	1.20593	20
41	.74492	1.34242	.77242	1.29463	.80067	1.24895	.82972	1.20522	19
42	.74538	1.34160	.77289	1.29385	.80115	1.24820	.83022	1.20451	18
43	.74583	1.34079	.77335	1.29307	.80163	1.24746	.83071	1.20379	17
44	.74628	1.33998	.77382	1.29229	.80211	1.24672	.83120	1.20308	16
45	.74674	1.33916	.77428	1.29152	.80258	1.24597	.83169	1.20237	15
46	.74719	1.33835	.77475	1.29074	.80306	1.24523	.83218	1.20166	14
47	.74764	1.33754	.77521	1.28997	.80354	1.24449	.83268	1.20095	13
48	.74810	1.33673	.77568	1.28919	.80402	1.24375	.83317	1.20024	12
49	.74855	1.33592	.77615	1.28842	.80450	1.24301	.83366	1.19953	11
50	.74900	1.33511	.77661	1.28764	.80498	1.24227	.83415	1.19882	10
51	.74946	1.33430	.77708	1.28687	.80546	1.24153	.83465	1.19811	9
52	.74991	1.33349	.77754	1.28610	.80594	1.24079	.83514	1.19740	8
53	.75037	1.33268	.77801	1.28533	.80642	1.24005	.83564	1.19669	7
54	.75082	1.33187	.77848	1.28456	.80690	1.23931	.83613	1.19599	6
55	.75128	1.33107	.77895	1.28379	.80738	1.23858	.83662	1.19528	5
56	.75173	1.33026	.77941	1.28302	.80786	1.23784	.83712	1.19457	4
57	.75219	1.32946	.77988	1.28225	.80834	1.23710	.83761	1.19387	3
58	.75264	1.32865	.78035	1.28148	.80882	1.23637	.83811	1.19316	2
59	.75310	1.32785	.78082	1.28071	.80930	1.23563	.83860	1.19246	1
60	.75355	1.32704	.78129	1.27994	.80978	1.23490	.83910	1.19175	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	53°		52°		51°		50°		

′	40°		41°		42°		43°		′
	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	
0	.83910	1.19175	.86929	1.15037	.90040	1.11061	.93252	1.07237	60
1	.83960	1.19105	.86980	1.14969	.90093	1.10996	.93306	1.07174	59
2	.84009	1.19035	.87031	1.14902	.90146	1.10931	.93360	1.07112	58
3	.84059	1.18964	.87082	1.14834	.90199	1.10867	.93415	1.07049	57
4	.84108	1.18894	.87133	1.14767	.90251	1.10802	.93469	1.06987	56
5	.84158	1.18824	.87184	1.14699	.90304	1.10737	.93524	1.06925	55
6	.84208	1.18754	.87236	1.14632	.90357	1.10672	.93578	1.06862	54
7	.84258	1.18684	.87287	1.14565	.90410	1.10607	.93633	1.06800	53
8	.84307	1.18614	.87338	1.14498	.90463	1.10543	.93688	1.06738	52
9	.84357	1.18544	.87389	1.14430	.90516	1.10478	.93742	1.06676	51
10	.84407	1.18474	.87441	1.14363	.90569	1.10414	.93797	1.06613	50
11	.84457	1.18404	.87492	1.14296	.90621	1.10349	.93852	1.06551	49
12	.84507	1.18334	.87543	1.14229	.90674	1.10285	.93906	1.06489	48
13	.84556	1.18264	.87595	1.14162	.90727	1.10220	.93961	1.06427	47
14	.84606	1.18194	.87646	1.14095	.90781	1.10156	.94016	1.06365	46
15	.84656	1.18125	.87698	1.14028	.90834	1.10091	.94071	1.06303	45
16	.84706	1.18055	.87749	1.13961	.90887	1.10027	.94125	1.06241	44
17	.84756	1.17986	.87801	1.13894	.90940	1.09963	.94180	1.06179	43
18	.84806	1.17916	.87852	1.13828	.90993	1.09899	.94235	1.06117	42
19	.84856	1.17846	.87904	1.13761	.91046	1.09834	.94290	1.06056	41
20	.84906	1.17777	.87955	1.13694	.91099	1.09770	.94345	1.05994	40
21	.84956	1.17708	.88007	1.13627	.91153	1.09706	.94400	1.05932	39
22	.85006	1.17638	.88059	1.13561	.91206	1.09642	.94455	1.05870	38
23	.85057	1.17569	.88110	1.13404	.91259	1.09578	.94510	1.05809	37
24	.85107	1.17500	.88162	1.13428	.91313	1.09514	.94565	1.05747	36
25	.85157	1.17430	.88214	1.13361	.91366	1.09450	.94620	1.05685	35
26	.85207	1.17361	.88265	1.13295	.91419	1.09386	.94676	1.05624	34
27	.85257	1.17292	.88317	1.13228	.91473	1.09322	.94731	1.05562	33
28	.85308	1.17223	.88369	1.13162	.91526	1.09258	.94786	1.05501	32
29	.85358	1.17154	.88421	1.13096	.91580	1.09195	.94841	1.05439	31
30	.85408	1.17085	.88473	1.13029	.91633	1.09131	.94896	1.05378	30
31	.85458	1.17016	.88524	1.12963	.91687	1.09067	.94952	1.05317	29
32	.85509	1.16947	.88576	1.12897	.91740	1.09003	.95007	1.05255	28
33	.85559	1.16878	.88628	1.12831	.91794	1.08940	.95062	1.05194	27
34	.85609	1.16809	.88680	1.12765	.91847	1.08876	.95118	1.05133	26
35	.85660	1.16741	.88732	1.12699	.91901	1.08813	.95173	1.05072	25
36	.85710	1.16672	.88784	1.12633	.91955	1.08749	.95229	1.05010	24
37	.85761	1.16603	.88836	1.12657	.92008	1.08686	.95284	1.04949	23
38	.85811	1.16535	.88888	1.12501	.92062	1.08622	.95340	1.04888	22
39	.85862	1.16466	.88940	1.12435	.92116	1.08559	.95395	1.04827	21
40	.85912	1.16398	.88992	1.12369	.92170	1.08496	.95451	1.04766	20
41	.85963	1.16329	.89045	1.12303	.92224	1.08432	.95506	1.04705	19
42	.86014	1.16261	.89097	1.12238	.92277	1.08369	.95562	1.04644	18
43	.86064	1.16192	.89149	1.12172	.92331	1.08306	.95618	1.04583	17
44	.86115	1.16124	.89201	1.12106	.92385	1.08243	.95673	1.04522	16
45	.86166	1.16056	.89253	1.12041	.92439	1.08179	.95729	1.04461	15
46	.86216	1.15987	.89306	1.11975	.92493	1.08116	.95785	1.04401	14
47	.86267	1.15919	.89358	1.11909	.92547	1.08053	.95841	1.04340	13
48	.86318	1.15851	.89410	1.11844	.92601	1.07990	.95897	1.04279	12
49	.86368	1.15783	.89463	1.11778	.92655	1.07927	.95952	1.04218	11
50	.86419	1.15715	.89515	1.11713	.92709	1.07864	.96008	1.04158	10
51	.86470	1.15647	.89567	1.11648	.92763	1.07801	.96064	1.04097	9
52	.86521	1.15579	.89620	1.11582	.92817	1.07738	.96120	1.04036	8
53	.86572	1.15511	.89672	1.11517	.92872	1.07676	.96176	1.03976	7
54	.86623	1.15443	.89725	1.11452	.92926	1.07613	.96232	1.03915	6
55	.86674	1.15375	.89777	1.11387	.92980	1.07550	.96288	1.03855	5
56	.86725	1.15308	.89830	1.11321	.93034	1.07487	.96344	1.03794	4
57	.86776	1.15240	.89883	1.11256	.93088	1.07425	.96400	1.03734	3
58	.86827	1.15172	.89935	1.11191	.93143	1.07362	.96457	1.03674	2
59	.86878	1.15104	.89988	1.11126	.93197	1.07299	.96513	1.03613	1
60	.86929	1.15037	.90040	1.11061	.93252	1.07237	.96569	1.03553	0
′	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	Cotang	Tang	′
	49°		48°		47°		46°		

′	44°		′	′	44°		′	′	44°		′
	Tang	Cotang			Tang	Cotang			Tang	Cotang	
0	.96569	1.03553	60	20	.97700	1.02355	40	40	.98843	1.01170	20
1	.96625	1.03493	59	21	.97756	1.02295	39	41	.98901	1.01112	19
2	.96681	1.03433	58	22	.97813	1.02236	38	42	.98958	1.01053	18
3	.96738	1.03372	57	23	.97870	1.02176	37	43	.99016	1.00994	17
4	.96794	1.03312	56	24	.97927	1.02117	36	44	.99073	1.00935	16
5	.96850	1.03252	55	25	.97984	1.02057	35	45	.99131	1.00876	15
6	.96907	1.03192	54	26	.98041	1.01998	34	46	.99189	1.00818	14
7	.96963	1.03132	53	27	.98098	1.01939	33	47	.99247	1.00759	13
8	.97020	1.03072	52	28	.98155	1.01879	32	48	.99304	1.00701	12
9	.97076	1.03012	51	29	.98213	1.01820	31	49	.99362	1.00642	11
10	.97133	1.02952	50	30	.98270	1.01761	30	50	.99420	1.00583	10
11	.97189	1.02892	49	31	.98327	1.01702	29	51	.99478	1.00525	9
12	.97246	1.02832	48	32	.98384	1.01642	28	52	.99536	1.00467	8
13	.97302	1.02772	47	33	.98441	1.01583	27	53	.99594	1.00408	7
14	.97359	1.02713	46	34	.98499	1.01524	26	54	.99652	1.00350	6
15	.97416	1.02653	45	35	.98556	1.01465	25	55	.99710	1.00291	5
16	.97472	1.02593	44	36	.98613	1.01406	24	56	.99768	1.00233	4
17	.97529	1.02533	43	37	.98671	1.01347	23	57	.99826	1.00175	3
18	.97586	1.02474	42	38	.98728	1.01288	22	58	.99884	1.00116	2
19	.97643	1.02414	41	39	.98786	1.01229	21	59	.99942	1.00058	1
20	.97700	1.02355	40	40	.98843	1.01170	20	60	1.00000	1.00000	0
	Cotang	Tang			Cotang	Tang			Cotang	Tang	
′	45°		′	′	45°		′	′	45°		′

Natural Secants and Cosecants

Degrees	Secants							
	0′	10′	20′	30′	40′	50′	60′	
0	1.00000	1.00001	1.00002	1.00004	1.00007	1.00011	1.00015	89
1	1.00015	1.00021	1.00027	1.00034	1.00042	1.00051	1.00061	88
2	1.00061	1.00072	1.00083	1.00095	1.00108	1.00122	1.00137	87
3	1.00137	1.00153	1.00169	1.00187	1.00205	1.00224	1.00244	86
4	1.00244	1.00265	1.00287	1.00309	1.00333	1.00357	1.00382	85
5	1.00382	1.00408	1.00435	1.00463	1.00491	1.00521	1.00551	84
6	1.00551	1.00582	1.00614	1.00647	1.00681	1.00715	1.00751	83
7	1.00751	1.00787	1.00825	1.00863	1.00902	1.00942	1.00983	82
8	1.00983	1.01024	1.01067	1.01111	1.01155	1.01200	1.01247	81
9	1.01247	1.01294	1.01342	1.01391	1.01440	1.01491	1.01543	80
10	1.01543	1.01595	1.01649	1.01703	1.01758	1.01815	1.01872	79
11	1.01872	1.01930	1.01989	1.02049	1.02110	1.02171	1.02234	78
12	1.02234	1.02298	1.02362	1.02428	1.02494	1.02562	1.02630	77
13	1.02630	1.02700	1.02770	1.02842	1.02914	1.02987	1.03061	76
14	1.03061	1.03137	1.03213	1.03290	1.03368	1.03447	1.03528	75
15	1.03528	1.03609	1 03691	1.03774	1.03858	1.03944	1.04030	74
16	1.04030	1.04117	1.04206	1.04295	1.04385	1.04477	1.04569	73
17	1.04569	1.04663	1.04757	1.04853	1.04950	1.05047	1.05146	72
18	1.05146	1.05246	1.05347	1.05449	1.05552	1.05657	1.05762	71
19	1.05762	1.05869	1.05976	1.06085	1.06195	1.06306	1.06418	70
20	1.06418	1.06531	1.06645	1.06761	1.06878	1.06995	1.07115	69
21	1.07115	1.07235	1.07356	1.07479	1.07602	1.07727	1.07853	68
22	1.07853	1.07981	1.08109	1.08239	1.08370	1.08503	1.08636	67
23	1.08636	1.08771	1.08907	1.09044	1.09183	1.09323	1.09464	66
24	1.09464	1.09606	1.09750	1.09895	1.10041	1.10189	1.10338	65
25	1.10338	1.10488	1.10640	1.10793	1.10947	1.11103	1.11260	64
26	1.11260	1.11419	1.11579	1 11740	1.11903	1.12067	1.12233	63
27	1.12233	1.12400	1.12568	1.12738	1.12910	1.13083	1.13257	62
28	1.13257	1.13433	1.13610	1.13789	1.13970	1.14152	1.14335	61
29	1.14335	1.14521	1.14707	1.14806	1.15085	1.15277	1.15470	60
30	1.15470	1.15665	1.15861	1.16059	1.16259	1.16460	1.16663	59
31	1.16663	1.16868	1.17075	1 17283	1.17493	1.17704	1.17918	58
32	1.17918	1.18133	1.18350	1.18569	1.18790	1.19012	1.19236	57
33	1.19236	1.19463	1.19691	1.19920	1.20152	1.20386	1.20622	56
34	1.20622	1.20859	1.21099	1.21341	1.21584	1.21830	1.22077	55
35	1.22077	1.22327	1.22579	1 22833	1.23089	1.23347	1.23607	54
36	1.23607	1.23869	1.24134	1.24400	1.24669	1.24940	1.25214	53
37	1.25214	1.25489	1.25767	1.26047	1.26330	1.26615	1.26902	52
38	1.26902	1.27191	1.27483	1.27778	1.28075	1.28374	1.28676	51
39	1.28676	1.28980	1.29287	1.29597	1.29909	1.30223	1.30541	50
40	1.30541	1.30861	1 31183	1 31509	1.31837	1.32168	1.32501	49
41	1.32501	1.32838	1 33177	1 33519	1.33864	1.34212	1.34563	48
42	1.34563	1.34917	1.35274	1.35634	1.35997	1.36363	1.36733	47
43	1.36733	1.37105	1.37481	1.37860	1.38242	1.38628	1.39016	46
44	1.39016	1.39409	1.39804	1.40203	1.40606	1.41012	1.41421	45
	60′	50′	40′	30′	20′	10′	0′	Degrees
	Cosecants							

Natural Secants and Cosecants (Continued)

Degrees	Cosecants							
	0′	10′	20′	30′	40′	50′	60′	
0	∞	343.77516	171.88831	114.59301	85.94561	68.75736	57.29869	89
1	57.29869	49.11406	42.97571	38.20155	34.38232	31.25758	28.65371	88
2	28.65371	26.45051	24.56212	22.92559	21.49368	20.23028	19.10732	87
3	19.10732	18.10262	17.19843	16.38041	15.63679	14.95788	14.33559	86
4	14.33559	13.76312	13.23472	12.74550	12.29125	11.86837	11.47371	85
5	11.47371	11.10455	10.75849	10.43343	10.12752	9.83912	9.56677	84
6	9.56677	9.30917	9.06515	8.83367	8.61379	8.40466	8.20551	83
7	8.20551	8.01565	7.83443	7.66130	7.49571	7.33719	7.18530	82
8	7.18530	7.03962	6.89979	6.76547	6.63633	6.51208	6.39245	81
9	6.39245	6.27719	6.16607	6.05886	5.95536	5.85539	5.75877	80
10	5.75877	5.66533	5.57493	5.48740	5.40263	5.32049	5.24084	79
11	5.24084	5.16359	5.08863	5.01585	4.94517	4.87649	4.80973	78
12	4.80973	4.74482	4.68167	4.62023	4.56041	4.50216	4.44541	77
13	4.44541	4.39012	4.33622	4.28366	4.23239	4.18238	4.13357	76
14	4.13357	4.08591	4.03938	3.99393	3.94952	3.90613	3.86370	75
15	3.86370	3.82223	3.78166	3.74198	3.70315	3.66515	3.62796	74
16	3.62796	3.59154	3.55587	3.52094	3.48671	3.45317	3.42030	73
17	3.42030	3.38808	3.35649	3.32551	3.29512	3.26531	3.23607	72
18	3.23607	3.20737	3.17920	3.15155	3.12440	3.09774	3.07155	71
19	3.07155	3.04584	3.02057	2.99574	2.97135	2.94737	2.92380	70
20	2.92380	2.90063	2.87785	2.85545	2.83342	2.81175	2.79043	69
21	2.79043	2.76945	2.74881	2.72850	2.70851	2.68884	2.66947	68
22	2.66947	2.65040	2.63162	2.61313	2.59491	2.57698	2.55930	67
23	2.55930	2.54190	2.52474	2.50784	2.49119	2.47477	2.45859	66
24	2.45859	2.44264	2.42692	2.41142	2.39614	2.38107	2.36620	65
25	2.36620	2.35154	2.33708	2.32282	2.30875	2.29487	2.28117	64
26	2.28117	2.26766	2.25432	2.24116	2.22817	2.21535	2.20269	63
27	2.20269	2.19019	2.17786	2.16568	2.15366	2.14178	2.13005	62
28	2.13005	2.11847	2.10704	2.09574	2.08458	2.07356	2.06267	61
29	2.06267	2.05191	2.04128	2.03077	2.02039	2.01014	2.00000	60
30	2.00000	1.98998	1.98008	1.97029	1.96062	1.95106	1.94160	59
31	1.94160	1.93226	1.92302	1.91388	1.90485	1.89591	1.88708	58
32	1.88708	1.87834	1.86990	1.86116	1.85271	1.84435	1.83608	57
33	1.83608	1.82790	1.81981	1.81180	1.80388	1.79604	1.78829	56
34	1.78829	1.78062	1.77303	1.76552	1.75808	1.75073	1.74345	55
35	1.74345	1.73624	1.72911	1.72205	1.71506	1.70815	1.70130	54
36	1.70130	1.69452	1.68782	1.68117	1.67460	1.66809	1.66164	53
37	1.66164	1.65526	1.64894	1.64268	1.63648	1.63035	1.62427	52
38	1.62427	1.61825	1.61229	1.60639	1.60054	1.59475	1.58902	51
39	1.58902	1.58333	1.57771	1.57213	1.56661	1.56114	1.55572	50
40	1.55572	1.55036	1.54504	1.53977	1.53455	1.52938	1.52425	49
41	1.52425	1.51918	1.51415	1.50916	1.50422	1.49933	1.49448	48
42	1.49448	1.48967	1.48491	1.48019	1.47551	1.47087	1.46628	47
43	1.46628	1.46173	1.45721	1.45274	1.44831	1.44391	1.43956	46
44	1.43956	1.43524	1.43096	1.42672	1 42251	1.41835	1.41421	45
	60′	50′	40′	30′	20′	10′	0′	Degrees
	Secants							

PART II

STRENGTH OF MATERIALS AND STABILITY OF STRUCTURES

INTRODUCTION

EXPLANATION OF SUBJECT-MATTER AND NOTATION

1. Introduction to Part II

Subject-Matter of Part II. In the twenty-nine chapters of Part II are given the necessary rules, formulas and data for computing the strength and stability of all ordinary forms of building-construction, whether of wood, steel, concrete or masonry, and in fact of all but the more intricate problems of steel construction, with which few architects care to cope, and which, indeed, are more especially within the province of the engineer.

The Rules and Formulas have been reduced to their simplest forms, and, in general, require only an elementary knowledge of mathematics to understand them. The application of the formulas is explained and in most cases their derivation, and it is believed that the formulas, constants and working stresses are representative of conservative and approved contemporary practice.

Constants and Working Stresses. In the use of constants for the strength of materials, the authors and editors have been guided by the practice of leading structural engineers, by the available records of tests and by their own experience of many years as practicing and consulting architects and engineers. The varying conditions of building-construction have been taken into account and an attempt made to adapt the values to the practical conditions usually governing such construction. Every possible precaution has been taken to prevent the misapplication of rules and formulas and to insure absolute safety without undue waste of materials.

Tables. Much thought and labor have been expended on the preparation of the numerous tables, to insure their accuracy and to arrange them in the most convenient form for use by architects and builders. Many of these tables were computed by the authors and editors, all have been carefully verified, and it is believed that they may be used with perfect confidence. In all cases, unless otherwise noted, they give the same values that would be obtained by using the formulas specially referred to, while they afford a great saving of time and labor and reduce to a minimum the danger of errors in making the necessary computations.

Treatment of the Subject. Owing to the nature of the subjects treated and the large number of pages required to include them all in one book of reference, some forms of construction, such as foundations, masonry and fire-proof construction, roof-trusses, etc., are treated rather briefly. The intention is to give the data needed for immediate use rather than a complete discussion of all the principles involved. Those who wish a more complete treatise on masons' work in general are referred to the ninth edition of Kidder's Building-Construction and Superintendence, Part I, Masons' Work.* References are made in the different chapters to various other books and periodicals containing more complete information on some of the subjects.

* This has been recently completely rewritten, by Professor Thomas Nolan, and the data in it supplements the matter of Kidder's Pocket-Book.

2. Explanation of the Notation or Symbols used in Part II*

Besides the usual mathematical signs and characters in general use, the following abbreviations and symbols are frequently used:

A area of cross-section; also, a constant used in Chapter XVI and equal to $\frac{1}{8}$ the safe unit fiber-stress;
$a, b, c, \ldots m$, etc., known or given distances;
b breadth, as of beams;
C coefficient of strength;
c normal distance from neutral axis of cross-section of beam to most distant fiber in same;
d diameter, as of rivets; exterior diameter; depth, as of beams;
d_1 interior diameter;
E modulus of elasticity;
E_s, E_c modulus of elasticity for concrete and steel respectively (as in reinforced concrete);
e total deformation or change in length, as in a bar;
F shearing-modulus of elasticity;
f maximum deflection for a beam;
h distance between parallel axes for moments of inertia;
I moment of inertia about a line;
I/c section-modulus or section-factor;
J polar moment of inertia;
J' polar moment of inertia of bolts about shaft-axis;
K total elastic resistance of a bar; resilience, work; also, a factor or constant used in formulas for reinforced concrete;
l length; span of a beam;
M bending moment;
$M_{\max}$ maximum bending moment;
M_1, M_2 bending moments at supports;
M_r or SI/c moment of resistance;
n number of loads, spans, etc.;
P external force; concentrated load;
P_1, P_2, P_3, etc., concentrated loads on beams;
p pitch of rivets; eccentricity of load on column; ratio of cross-section of steel to cross-section of beam (reinforced concrete);
r radius of curvature; radius; radius of gyration; ratio of E_s for steel to E_c for concrete (reinforced concrete);
R_1, R_2, R_3, etc., reactions at the supports of a beam;
S unit stress, with subscripts t, c and s for unit stress in tension, compression and shear, respectively;
S_b buckling resistance in webs of steel beams;
S_h horizontal unit shearing-stress in beams;
S_e elastic limit;
S_f modulus of rupture, or computed flexural strength;
t_1, t_2, etc., thicknesses;
V vertical shear;
W weight of a bar or beam; total uniform load on beam (may include weight of beam);
wl total uniform load on a beam (may include weight of beam);
w weight of a cubic unit of material; uniform load on beam, per linear unit of length;

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* See, also, page 3 of Part I.

x, y, z, variable distances;
α, β, etc., material constants;
ϕ constant depending upon material;
θ an angle.

Greek letters are used generally for signs of operation, for abstract numbers and for angles. Σ is employed as a symbol of summation.

The following are the Greek letters most in use:

α Alpha,	β Beta,	ϵ Epsilon,	η Eta,
θ Theta,	κ Kappa,	λ Lambda,	μ Mu,
ν Nu,	π Pi,	ρ Rho,	σ Sigma,
τ Tau,	ϕ Phi,	ψ Psi,	ω Omega.

Note. In a few places in the book it has been considered necessary or advisable by some of the associate editors to give a different meaning to one or more of the above symbols or to introduce different symbols for the meanings given in the list, but in all such cases the new symbols or meanings have been very clearly indicated.

The term BREADTH is used to denote the horizontal thickness of a beam or the smaller dimension of the cross-section of a rectangular column, post or strut, and is always measured in inches unless expressly stated otherwise.

The term DEPTH denotes the vertical height of a beam or girder, and is always measured in inches unless expressly stated otherwise.

The term LENGTH denotes the distance between supports and is always measured in feet unless expressly stated otherwise.

Abbreviations. In order to shorten the formulas, the tabulations of computations, etc., and throughout the text generally, to economize space, the units of measurement are generally abbreviated. For example, foot and feet are abbreviated, ft; inch and inches, in; pound and pounds, lb; square, sq; cubic, cu; linear, lin; inch-pound or inch-pounds, in-lb; foot-pound or foot-pounds, ft-lb; ounces, oz; horse-power, h.p.; gallons, gal; etc.; and no periods are placed after these abbreviations, except at the ends of sentences. Where the word TON is used in this volume, it always means the net ton of 2 000 lb.

CHAPTER I

EXPLANATION OF TERMS USED IN ARCHITECTURAL ENGINEERING

By

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1. Definitions of Some of the Terms Used in the Mechanics of Materials *

Terms Used in Architectural Engineering. The following terms frequently occur in discussions of the principles of architectural engineering and an understanding of their meaning is essential.

Mechanics is the branch of physics that treats of the phenomena caused by the action of forces on material bodies.

Applied Mechanics treats of the laws of mechanics as applied to construction in the useful arts, as in beams, trusses, arches, etc.

Mechanics of Materials treats of the effects of forces in causing changes in the size and shape of bodies.

Rest is the relation that exists between two points when the straight line joining them does not change in length or direction. A body is at rest relatively to a point when any point in the body is at rest relatively to the first-mentioned point.

Motion is the relation that exists between two points when the straight line joining them changes in length or direction, or in both. A body moves relatively to a point when any point in the body moves relatively to the first-mentioned point.

Force is that which changes, or tends to change, the state of rest or motion of the body acted upon. It is a cause regarding the essential nature of which we are ignorant. In the mechanics of materials we do not deal with the nature of forces, but only with the laws of their action.

Equilibrium is that condition of a body in which the forces acting upon it balance or neutralize each other; or, it is that condition of a force-system in which the resultant of the force-system is zero.

Statics is the branch of Mechanics that treats of the conditions of equilibrium. It is divided into:

(1) Statics of rigid bodies.
(2) Statics of practically incompressible fluids.

In building-construction we have to deal only with the former.

Structures are artificial constructions in which all the parts are intended to be in equilibrium and at rest relatively to each other, as in the case of a bridge-truss or roof-truss. They consist of two or more solid bodies, generally called PIECES or MEMBERS, which are connected at different parts of their surfaces called JOINTS.

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* In addition to the terms defined here, many others are defined in the chapters of Part II, and especially in Chapters VI, IX, X, XIV, XV, XVI, XX and XXIV.

In general there are three conditions of equilibrium in a structure.

(1) The external forces acting upon the whole structure must balance each other. These forces are:

(*a*) The weight of the structure;

(*b*) The loads it carries;

(*c*) The upward supporting forces, reactions or resistances under or around the foundations.

(2) The forces acting upon each piece of the structure must balance each other. These forces are, for each piece:

(*a*) The weight of the piece;

(*b*) The loads it carries;

(*c*) The resistances or reactions at its joints.

(3) The forces acting upon each of the parts into which any piece may be supposed to be divided must balance each other.

The Stability of a Structure requires the fulfilment of conditions (1) and (2), that is, the ability of the structure to resist the DISPLACEMENT of any of its parts.

The Strength of a Piece or Member consists in the fulfilment of condition (3), that is, the ability of a piece to resist BREAKING.

The Stiffness of a Piece or Member consists in the ability of a piece to resist BENDING.

The Theory of Structures is divided into two parts:

(1) That which treats of strength and stiffness, dealing only with single pieces and generally known as the STRENGTH OF MATERIALS or the MECHANICS OF MATERIALS, before defined.

(2) That which treats of stability, dealing with the structures themselves.

Stress is an internal force that resists a change in shape or size caused by external forces. When the applied external forces reach certain intensities the internal stresses hold them in equilibrium.

The Intensity of a Stress is measured by the UNIT STRESS. (See Unit Stress.) The INTENSITY OF THE STRESS per square inch on any normal surface of a solid is the total stress divided by the area of the section in square inches. Thus, if a bar 10 ft long and 2 in square has a load of 8 000 lb pulling in the direction of its length, the stress on any normal section of the bar is 8 000 lb; and the intensity of the stress per square inch is 8 000 lb/4 sq in = 2 000 lb per sq in.

Deformation.* When a solid body is acted upon by an external force an alteration takes place in the volume and shape of the body, and this alteration is called the DEFORMATION. In the case of the bar given above, the deformation is the amount that the bar stretches under its load.

The Ultimate Strength is the highest unit stress a piece of material can sustain and it is the unit stress at or just before rupture.

The Working Unit Stress is the ultimate stress divided by the factor of safety.

The Safe Load is the load that a piece can support without exceeding the working unit stresses.

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* In mechanics the term STRAIN is now synonymous with the term DEFORMATION. On account of the tendency to confuse the terms STRAIN and STRESS the term DEFORMATION, is used to denote change in shape and the term STRAIN is omitted in all discussions in the Pocket-Book.

The Factor of Safety * of a piece of material under stress is the rati the ultimate strength of the material to the actual unit stress on the secti area; or it is the number by which the ultimate unit stress must be divided give the working unit stress. In designing a piece of material to sustain a c tain load, it is required that it shall be perfectly safe under all circumstanc and hence it is necessary to make an allowance for any defects in the materi workmanship, etc. It is obvious, that, for materials of different compositi different factors of safety are required. Thus, steel being more homogeneo than wood and less liable to defects, does not require as high a factor of safet Again, different kinds of stresses require different factors of safety. Thus, long wooden column or strut requires a higher factor of safety than a woode beam. As the factors of safety thus vary for different kinds of stresses an materials, the proper factors for the different kinds of stresses and conditions a given in considering the resistance of the various materials to those stress under varying conditions.

The Unit Stress is the stress on a unit of section-area, and is usually expresse in pounds per square inch. (See Intensity of Stress.)

Dead Loads and Live Loads. The term DEAD LOAD means a load that i applied and increased gradually and that finally remains constant, such as th weight of a structure itself.

The term LIVE LOAD means a load that is applied suddenly and causes vibra tions, such as a train traveling over a railway bridge. It has been found b experience that the effect of a live load on a beam or other piece of materia has twice the destructive tendency of a dead load of the same magnitude o intensity. Hence a piece of material designed to carry a live load should have a factor of safety twice as large as one designed to carry a dead load. The load due to a crowd of people walking on a floor is usually considered to produce an effect which is a mean between that of a dead load and a live load, and a suitable factor of safety is adopted accordingly. In municipal ordinances and laws relating to the allowable loads for floors, the loads to be supported by the floors, exclusive of their inherent construction and stationary fixtures, are generally referred to as the LIVE LOADS no matter of what they may consist; but the term does not have the exact significance given to it by many engineers and as explained in the paragraph above.

The Modulus of Rupture or Computed Flexural Strength is the value of the UNIT FIBER-STRESS S, computed from the flexure-formula $M = SI/c$, when a beam is ruptured under a transverse load. Its value is intermediate between the ultimate tensile and compressive strengths of a material.

The Elastic Limit is that unit stress at which the deformation of a piece of material begins to increase in a faster ratio than the applied loads. It is sometimes called the ELASTIC STRENGTH.

The Modulus of Elasticity or Coefficient of Elasticity. In treatises on physics this is often called YOUNG'S MODULUS. It we take a bar of any elastic material, say one inch square, of any length, and secured at one end, and to the other apply a force, say a certain number of pounds P, pulling in the direction of its length, we shall find by careful measurement that the bar has been stretched or elongated by the action of the force. If we divide the TOTAL ELONGATION e, in inches, by the original length l of the bar, in inches, we shall have e/l, the UNIT ELONGATION ϵ, or the elongation of the bar per unit of length; and if we divide the unit stress S, developed (that is, in this case, the external force P, divided by the area of the cross-section A, or P/A) by this ratio we shall have what is known as the MODULUS OF ELASTICITY, E. Expressed in symbols and by equations, $E = S/\epsilon = \dfrac{P/A}{e/l}$. Hence, we may define the MODULUS OF ELASTICITY as the ratio of the unit stress to the unit deformation. Another definition is, the force which would elongate a bar of 1 sq in in cross-section to double its original length, if that could be done without exceeding the ELASTIC LIMIT of the material. This is evident from the above equation; for if $A = 1$ and $e = l$, E will equal P. These formulas apply only when the unit stress S or P/A is less than the ELASTIC LIMIT of the material. ϵ is an ABSTRACT NUMBER, because e and l are both linear quantities, and hence E is expressed in the same unit as S, that is, in POUNDS PER SQUARE INCH.

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* The ELASTIC LIMITS of materials must be considered in deciding upon working unit stresses and in forming a judgment of the security of materials under stress. When the elastic limit is considered the actual allowable unit stress is made a certain percentage of it, as 35 or 50%, according to varying conditions. Both ULTIMATE STRENGTHS and ELASTIC LIMITS must be taken into account in practice. But the use of the FACTOR OF SAFETY, as determined by the old method, is still a great help in the study and application of the principles of the mechanics of materials, and is used frequently in the Pocket-Book.

As an example of one method of determining the modulus of elasticity of any material the following illustration is given:

Suppose we have a bar of wrought iron, 2 in square and 10 ft long, securely fastened at one end, and to the other end we apply a tensile force of 40 000 lb. This force causes the bar to stretch, and by careful measurement we find the elongation to be 0.0414 in. As the bar is 10 ft, or 120 in long, if we divide 0.0414 by 120, we shall have the elongation of the bar per unit of length. Performing this operation, we have as the result, 0.00034 in. As the bar is 2 in square, the area of cross-section is 4 sq in, and hence the stress per square inch is 10 000 lb. Dividing 10 000 by 0.00034, we have, as the MODULUS OF ELASTICITY of the bar, 29 400 000 lb per sq in. This is the method generally employed to determine the MODULUS OF ELASTICITY of iron ties; but E can also be determined from the DEFLECTION of beams, and it is in that way that its values for most woods have been found. The modulus of elasticity is used in the determination of the STIFFNESS of beams.

The Moment of a Force with respect to an axis is the product obtained by multiplying the magnitude of the force by the shortest distance from the axis to its line of action. The shortest distance is called the LEVER-ARM of the force. The moment of the force is the measure of the tendency of the force to cause ROTATION about the axis. (See Chapter VI and IX.)

The Center of Gravity of a body is the point in the body through which the RESULTANT of the forces exerted by gravity upon all the particles of the body passes. A body may be balanced upon a point placed above or below the center of gravity, because the RESULTANT of any number of forces may be held in equilibrium by an equal and opposite force. Another definition of the CENTER OF GRAVITY of a body or bodies is: a point such that there is NO TENDENCY TO ROTATION about any axis drawn through it. (For center of gravity of surfaces, lines and solids, see Chapter VI.)

2. Classification of the Principal Stresses Caused in Bodies by External Forces

Tension is the stress that resists the tendency of two forces acting away from each other to PULL APART two adjoining planes of a body.

Compression is the stress that resists the tendency of two forces acting toward each other to PUSH TOGETHER two adjoining planes of a body.

Shear is the stress that resists the tendency of two equal parallel forces ing in opposite directions to cause two adjoining planes of a body to SLIDE on the other.

Torsion is the stress that resists the tendency of forces to TWIST a body.

Combined Stresses. Parts of structures are often acted upon by sev external forces which develop stresses of different character, such as combi flexure and compression, flexure and tension, flexure and torsion, shear and a compression or tension, torsion and compression, etc.

CHAPTER II

FOUNDATIONS

By

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1. Definition of the Word and Terms Used

Definitions. The word FOUNDATION is derived from the Latin verb FUNDARE meaning to establish or lay the base, bottom, keel or foundation of anything. The English word is used in the broadest possible way to describe the base, physical or otherwise, on which anything is supported, and in technical language it may be used to describe any part of a structure on which a subsequent operation or construction is superimposed. Thus a plaster wall may be called the FOUNDATION for a fabric to be stretched thereon and the fabric in turn becomes the FOUNDATION for various coats of paint or other decorations. More specifically and in relation to a building or other complete structure the word FOUNDATION is unfortunately applied indiscriminately (1) to construction below grade, such as footing courses, cellar walls, etc., forming the lower section of the structure; (2) to the natural material, the particular part of the earth's surface on which the construction rests; and (3) to special construction such as piling or piers used to transmit the loads of the building to firm substrata. In view of the indefinite meaning of the word it is advisable to use it either to distinguish work below grade, or below the tier of beams nearest to grade, from work above grade. In even a still more restricted sense, it might include only the work below the cellar or basement-floor to rock or other solid foundation-bed. (See Chapter II, Subdivision 29, Chapter III, Subdivision 2, and Waterproofing for Foundations, Part III.)

The Foundation-Bed. The natural material on which the construction rests is called the FOUNDATION-BED. Walls, piers and columns below grade are called, in general, FOUNDATION WALLS, PIERS AND COLUMNS to distinguish them from similar construction above grade and occasionally those only below the basement-floor are so called; the lower portions of walls, piers or columns which are spread to provide a safe base will be called FOOTING COURSES.

2. General Requirements

The Object of Foundations. The object to be borne in mind in designing any foundation is to provide a safe and permanent base for the superstructure such that the movement of the base and of the superimposed structure shall be the least possible and shall result in the least possible damage to the structure. To fully meet the above requirements the design and construction should fulfill the following conditions:

(1) **The Materials of Construction** should be proof against all deteriorating influences, or, if any of the materials are liable to deterioration they should be permanently protected.

(2) **Stresses and Future Changes.** No part of the foundation-structure should, under any combination of loadings, be stressed beyond safe limits, and the possibility of future additions or changes in the superstructure, or of a change in the use of the building, should be kept in mind.

(3) **The Load on the Natural Bed** should be kept within the safe limit for such material, under the worst conditions to which it may be exposed. In fixing this limit the amount of settlement allowable will in many cases determine the limit rather than the safe ultimate bearing capacity.

(4) **Adjoining Excavations.** The possible danger to the structure or to the stability of the foundation-bed from adjoining excavations or other disturbing causes should be guarded against as far as possible.

Physical Conditions of the Site. In order to meet the above requirements, the design should be suited to the physical conditions existing at the location. The architect or engineer should personally examine the site. He should secure all available information relative thereto and, if necessary, should make borings and tests so as to secure reliable information on which to base his design for the foundation. The first step is, therefore, a detailed and exhaustive study of the site to determine the characteristics of the foundation-bed on which the structure is to rest.

3. Geological Considerations

Character of the Foundation-Bed. A knowledge of geology is of material assistance in many cases in making a proper estimate of the character of the foundation-bed. While it is not proposed in the limits of this chapter to go into any general geological discussion the following notes may be of value in assisting the architect to determine whether any given deposits can be relied upon as affording a stable foundation-bed. Broadly speaking, as the location of the building may be in any part of the world, so the materials encountered may belong to any one of the many geological formations forming the surface of the earth. For practical purposes, however, the materials met with are roughly divided into ROCK, or materials other than rock, roughly defined as EARTH.

4. Composition and Classification of Rocks

Composition of Rocks. Rocks, and the earthy deposits derived from rocks, are composed of various minerals of which many hundred kinds are known, each varying from the others in some particular of chemical composition, form of crystallization or other characteristic. A rock or an earthy deposit may consist almost entirely of a single mineral, but it is usually composed of several distinct minerals or of mixtures of minerals. The principal classes of rock-forming minerals are:

(1) **The Silica Minerals,** composed of silica (SiO_2) in different forms;

(2) **Silicates** or combinations of silica, with various metallic bases;

(3) **Calcareous Minerals** composed of calcite or carbonate of lime ($CaCO_3$) and its combinations.

(1) **Silica Minerals** are different forms of the oxide of silicon, known as SILICA. In the crystalline state silica is known as

Quartz. This is the most abundant of all minerals. Owing to its hardness and insolubility it resists decomposition and abrasion better than the minerals with which it is associated and grains of it form the principal constituent of sandy deposits. In finely comminuted particles it forms a part of most of the clays.

Flint, Chert, Agate, etc., are non-crystalline varieties of silica. SILICA also forms the cementing material in many sandstones and other rocks.

(2) **Silicates** or combinations of silica with various bases are second in importance only to quartz.

Feldspar, an important constituent of granite and other igneous rocks, is a silicate of alumina with potash, soda or lime. When exposed to the action of water it slowly decomposes, forming silicate of alumina, the base of clay. The decomposition of granite results in the formation of clay and crystals of quartz and mica. The mica is very slowly affected and the quartz is practically unchanged.

Mica. The various mica minerals are silicates of alumina, with potash and other constituents. All varieties are soft and split into thin elastic plates. Small particles of mica are frequently found in sand.

Hornblende and Augite are silicates of lime, magnesia, iron and alumina and are of frequent occurrence.

Chlorite, Talc and Soapstone Travertine are hydrated silicates formed from other silicates by a chemical change in which a certain amount of water is absorbed. These minerals are soft and have a SOAPY FEEL. Special care should be taken in building foundations on rock of this character to guard against any sliding on the foundation-bed or between parts of the foundation-bed.

(3) **Calcareous Minerals.** The following are the principal calcareous minerals:

Calcite ($CaCO_3$), carbonate of lime, when pure and crystallized, is known as ICELAND SPAR. It is soluble in water containing CO_2. Calcite in varying degrees of purity forms limestone and marbles. As a result of its solubility caverns and voids are frequently found in limestone.

Dolomite is a carbonate of lime and magnesia. It forms the so-called DOLOMITIC LIMESTONES, which are less soluble than the calcite limestone.

Selenite, Lypsum, Alabaster, Anhydrite, Aragonite and Apatite are other and less important lime-minerals.

Classification of Rocks. Rocks are classified not only according to the minerals of which they are composed, but also according to the way in which they have been formed, as:

(1) **Igneous Rocks,** which have solidified from a molten condition;

(2) **Sedimentary Rocks,** which have been formed under water by mechanical pressure or by cementation due to chemical or organic proceesses;

(3) **Metamorphic or Plutonic Rocks,** which have changed from their original character as igneous or sedimentary rocks.

(1) **Igneous or Plutonic Rocks** are not truly stratified. They may be granular, crystalline or glassy in texture. GRANITE, SYENITE, BASALT, TRAP, etc., are examples. LAVA, PUMICE and OBSIDIAN are volcanic products, as are also certain deposits of mud and ash. With the exception of volcanic ash and mud, the igneous rocks are enduring and are not liable to present any unforeseen weakness as foundation-beds.

(2) **Sedimentary Rocks** are composed of sand, clay and other materials resulting from the breaking down of the original igneous rocks. These materials were deposited in horizontal beds generally by settling from water, and the consolidation into rock was generally affected under water by chemical, mechanical or organic action. The resultant rock-masses are stratified as a result of their constituent materials having been deposited in layers. As sand and clay are the most abundant products of rock-decomposition, so the sedimentary rocks are most frequently SILICEOUS (sandy) or ARGILLACEOUS (clayey).

Sandstone is composed of grains of sand cemented together by silica, oxides of iron, or carbonate of lime. The durability of sandstone depends on the solubility of the cementing material. Carbonate of lime being soluble, sandstones containing it as cementing material yield to the weather and are not as reliable as sandstones having silica or iron oxide as cementing material.

Argillaceous Rocks contain clay with fine sand, mud, etc., and while SHALE and some other varieties are compact and hard when first uncovered, they are liable to deterioration when exposed to frost, water and other disintegrating agencies.

Limestone is composed more or less of carbonate of lime derived from the calcareous skeletons of marine animal and vegetable organisms. The character of limestone varies greatly. In so-called FOSSILIFEROUS LIMESTONES, fossils of shells or corals indicate clearly its origin, but in other limestones there are no fossils or other indications of the organic origin of the calcareous material. Admixtures of sand, clay, or other impurities may make it difficult to distinguish certain limestones from sandstones or shales.

Dolomite is a limestone containing a high percentage of magnesia.

Hydraulic Limestone is a limestone containing clay.

Chalk is a soft limestone composed of the fine shells of minute marine organisms. In general, the purer the limestone the more soluble it is and the greater the danger from fissures or caverns due to the action of water.

(3) **Metamorphic or Plutonic Rocks** are rocks which have been formed from sedimentary or igneous rocks by heat, compression, or moisture, acting alone or in combination. Thus by heat from a nearby intrusion of molten rock, limestone is changed into a crystalline marble. The general effect of METAMORPHISM is to produce a hard or durable rock.

Quartzite, a metamorphosed sandstone, is a crystalline rock of great hardness and durability.

Slate is a hard dense rock, sometimes with a well-defined tendency to split into thin plates. It has been formed by metamorphic action from clayey shales and is generally durable, but liable to slide along planes which are sometimes parallel to the cleavage, or along seams which are not parallel to the cleavage.

Gneiss is a "laminated metamorphic rock that usually corresponds mineralogically to some one of the plutonic types." * There are many varieties, best classified in accordance with the igneous rocks to which they most nearly correspond in composition. Some varieties resemble granite, but the laminated or striped aspect is generally characteristic. They are generally compact and durable.

Schists are similar to gneiss but are more finely foliated or striped. In MICA-SCHIST there are layers or foliations composed of fine grains or plates of mica. Mica-schists are liable to decomposition and it frequently happens that excavations have to be carried to great depths through decomposed rock of this character before solid rock is encountered. The material resulting from the decomposition of this rock contains fine grains of mica and other fine material and, when wet, acts as QUICKSAND.

Rock as a Foundation. All rock, if sound and not liable to slippage, is proverbially a solid foundation and capable of supporting any weight which a building is likely to impose on it. Care should be taken that rock liable to disintegration is protected from the weather, water-action, or other disintegrating influences.

5. Geology of Earthy Material

Earth and Soil. Materials other than rock, resulting from the disintegration of rock-masses, are broadly classed as EARTH. The word SOIL, when used to designate any earthy material not rock, is a misnomer, in that the idea of FERTILITY, or the lack of it, is conveyed when the word SOIL is used.

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* Kemp.

The agencies producing the disintegration of the rock masses which form or underlie the entire surface of the earth, are various, but for the purpose of this chapter they may be defined as (1) CHEMICAL and (2) MECHANICAL.

(1) **Chemical Agencies.** By CHEMICAL ACTION or DECOMPOSITION, a rock-mass of great strength and hardness and of complicated mineralogical structure may disintegrate into a noncoherent mass of elementary minerals. Thus a feldspathic granite under the combined action of water and varying temperature disintegrates, the crystals of feldspar changing chemically and forming the hydrated silicate of aluminum known as CLAY, while the crystals of quartz, mica or hornblende, being more resistant to chemical action, retain their chemical identity but become detached particles of SAND.

(2) **Mechanical Agencies.** By the MECHANICAL AGENCIES, such as the action of frost, moving water or ice, fragments of rock are detached from the ledge of which they originally formed part and are subsequently transported, by the action of glaciers or streams, or by the wave-action in bodies of water. The attrition between the materials thus roughly thrown about breaks up the rock-masses into smaller and smaller pieces without altering the composition of the rock-material.

Flowing Water. As flowing water more readily transports small particles than large ones, the larger pieces of rock move intermittently during periods of storm or flood and are deposited as soon as the velocity of the water falls; while the smaller particles are held in suspension longer and, as the velocity of the stream falls, are deposited in the order of their size, the largest first. The rapid upper courses of streams and rivers in mountainous regions constantly roll and grind together the materials in their rocky beds, the heavy masses being moved slowly. The attrition between the fragments forms GRAVEL and SAND which are washed down stream to be deposited, as the current slackens, first as BEDS OF GRAVEL, then as SAND-BARS, and finally, in the slow-moving lower levels, as BEDS OF SILT and ALLUVIUM.

Glaciers and Glacial Deposits. The action of glaciers is similar to the action of streams. Glacial deposits, the so-called GLACIAL DRIFTS, are composed of sand, clay, gravel and boulders but, in general, there is a noticeable difference between glacial deposits and deposits made by rivers or streams. In glacial deposits the boulders frequently exhibit groovings or scratches on their faces and the edges and surfaces of the boulders are generally sharp, so that a boulder may appear as if it had been recently fractured. They rarely exhibit the smooth, water-worn and rounded surfaces found on boulders formed by water-action. Moreover, the glacial boulders may be found singly, or unassociated with other boulders in a deposit of sand or gravel. The deposit differs from a river-deposit in that there is no classification as to size; the boulders may occur on the surface or may be disseminated as if by accident through the sand and gravel forming the body of the deposit. Such glacial deposits partake of the character of a rough artificial fill without the stratification or classification as to size which is characteristic of river-deposits. In glacial moraines or dumping grounds it not infrequently happens that the surface-water finds underground passages forming so-called SINK-HOLES. A line of glacial deposits extends across the continent of North America from Long Island westward. The southern limits can be determined by reference to geological maps.

Glacial and River-Deposits Distinguished. It is important to distinguish between GLACIAL and RIVER-DEPOSITS, because, while the occurrence of glacial boulders gives, in general, little or no information as to the character and value of the surrounding deposits, the occurrence of boulders, on the other hand, in river-deposits is generally an indication that the bed of which they form a part has been thoroughly consolidated as a result of the river-action which formed it; and, also, because such deposits generally extend down to rock or to some compact material which at the time the deposit was made was capable of resisting the action of rapidly flowing water.

Wave-Action on Lakes and Along Coast-Lines is constantly working on the materials composing the beach. Rock-masses are broken away from cliffs and ground together, producing boulders, gravel and sand. The sand, being carried more readily by the tidal currents, is deposited in the more sheltered locations and forms BEACHES, while the larger rock-masses remain near the point of origin in BARS and REEFS.

Beds of Sand, Gravel and Boulders deposited by the action of waves on the SHORES OF SEAS OR LAKES are not necessarily constant in character and tests should be made to determine the character of the material underlying such BEACH-FORMATIONS. In large river-valleys where the general formation is composed of silt or other fine material little reliance should be placed on the occurrence of BEDS OF GRAVEL, even if such beds extend over large areas. Tests should be made to determine that such beds are not underlain by less trustworthy materials. Where tributary streams discharge into large valleys they may deposit BARS OF SAND, GRAVEL and BOULDERS on top of the silt, peat, or other materials formerly deposited by the main river. (See page 136.) The general topographical conditions should serve as an indication of danger in such cases.

Results of Chemical and Mechanical Action. As a result of the foregoing brief description of the agencies at work it may be seen that ICE, WAVE and STREAM-ACTION alike tend to disrupt rock-masses and to produce boulders, gravel, sand and finer materials. The ultimate result of the combination of CHEMICAL ACTION and MECHANICAL ACTION is to reduce the hardest rocks to the finest sand, the most impalpable clays, silts and muds; and the ACTION OF WIND, WAVE and MOVING WATER is to classify such materials in deposits of grains of uniform size.

6. Materials Composing Foundation-Beds

Classification and Definitions. The following list includes the materials which are most frequently encountered, with their definitions.

Rock (solid rock, bed-rock, or ledge). Undisturbed rock-masses forming an undisturbed part of the original rock-formation.

Decayed Rock (rotten rock). Sand, clays and other materials resulting from the disintegration of rock-masses, lacking the coherent qualities but occupying the space formerly occupied by the original rock.

Loose Rock. Rock-masses detached from the ledge of which they originally formed a part.

Boulders. Detached rock-masses larger than gravel, generally rounded and worn as a result of having been transported by water or ice a considerable distance from the ledges of which they originally formed a part.

Gravel. Detached rock-particles, generally water-worn, rounded and intermediate in size between sand-particles and boulders.

Sand. Non-coherent rock-particles smaller than ¼ in in maximum dimension.

Clay. The material resulting from the decomposition and hydration of feldspathic rocks, being hydrated silicate of alumina, generally mixed with powdered feldspar, quartz and other materals.

Hard-Pan. Any strongly coherent mixture of clay or other cementing material with sand, gravel, or boulders.

Silt. A finely divided earthy material deposited from running water.

Mud. Finely divided earthy material generally containing vegetable matter and deposited from still or slowly moving water.

Dirt. Loosely used to describe any earthy material.

Soil. Earthy material capable of supporting vegetable life and generally limited to material containing decayed vegetable or animal matter.

Mould. Earthy material containing a large proportion of humus or vegetable matter.

Loam. Earthy material containing a proportion of vegetable matter.

Peat. Compressed and partially carbonized vegetable matter.

7. Characteristics of the Materials of Foundation-Beds

Solid Rock, or, as it is locally known, BED-ROCK, or LEDGE, is proverbially a solid foundation. The harder rocks, such as granite, trap, slate, sandstone, limestone, etc., are all capable of carrying the load of any ordinary structure. The softer rocks, among which may be classed the shales, shaley slates and certain marley limestones and clay stones, should not be loaded with more than 15 tons per sq ft unless they are tested for greater loads. In all cases where foundations are to be placed on what is supposed to be solid rock, care should be taken to determine whether or not the supposed solid consists of a detached portion and, also, in case the bedding-planes of the rock are inclined, if there is danger from a slip of the layer forming the foundation-bed. (See pages 139 and 146 as to side-slope locations.)

Decayed Rock. Certain igneous or metamorphic rocks such as granites, gneisses, etc., frequently disintegrate, forming so-called ROTTEN ROCK or DECAYED ROCK. The decayed rock is generally found in conformity with the ledge of which it originally formed a part. It may retain the stratification, color and markings of the solid rock, but as a result of the disintegrating effect of water or other agents, it has lost the solid character of the original rock. When struck with a hammer it does not give the characteristic ringing sound of solid rock. It may be fairly compact and hard, or so soft as to be readily excavated with pick and shovel. The amount of such disintegrated rock overlying the solid rock varies greatly; in some cases the removal of a few inches will disclose the solid rock, in other cases the layer of decayed rock may be many feet in thickness. Test-borings in rotten rock give samples similar to the samples from solid rock; so that it frequently happens that while the foundations are planned for solid rock the excavations disclose a thick layer of rotten rock. In such cases, if it is impracticable to carry the footings down to solid rock, it may be necessary to increase the size of the footings or to adopt some other expedient.

Loose Rock. Where a rock-mass detached from the ledge of which it originally formed a part is encountered it must not be loaded in excess of the safe capacity of the material by which it is surrounded. If the voids between adjoining pieces of loose rock are completely filled in with hard-pan, compact gravel, sand, or clay, the loading may be the same as for the filling-in material, but care should be taken to determine that no voids exist. In natural rock-fills, as in artificial rock-fills, it may happen that large voids exist between th rock-masses, forming passageways for streams of water, in which case there i extreme danger of settlements.

Boulders, Gravel and Sand. Boulders are rock-masses which have bee transported by water or ice-action. Boulders are sometimes found dissemin ated through sand and clay and in such cases the load should be limited by th safe load of the material in which they are found. At other times boulders ar found in beds, packed closely together, with the interstices filled in with gravel sand, or clay. In such cases it is usually safe to assume that no further con solidation of the mass is likely to take place. If the bed of boulders extends t rock, they will safely sustain any load which will not crush them.

Gravel. The name GRAVEL is given to rock-particles larger than sand an smaller than the rock-masses known as BOULDERS. If compact, and if n underlying bed of poorer material exists, gravel forms a most desirable foundation-bed, equal to sand or boulders in supporting power and not as liable t be disturbed by adjoining excavations or pumping operations. If cemented it may partake of the quality of hard-pan or rock. Care, however, should be taken to determine whether or not the bed of gravel has been deposited over a layer of silt or quicksand. It is possible for this dangerous condition to exist. (See page 134.)

Sand. Sand is composed of comminuted rock-material. As quartz is the most abundant rock-mineral and as its hardness and insolubility make it highly resistant to disintegrating action, it will be found to be the principal constituent of most deposits of sand or sandy material. Grains of mica, feldspar, garnet and other minerals are frequently found. Sand is described as being FINE, MEDIUM, or COARSE, according to the size of the grains of which it is composed.

Coarse Sand may contain particles of gravel, but after eliminating all particles which will not pass a screen with 4 meshes to the inch it will be found that a large proportion of the remaining material is too coarse to pass a 40-mesh sieve.

Fine Sand, on the other hand, may contain no particles which will not pass a 20-mesh sieve, and a considerable proportion which will pass a 100-mesh sieve.

Very Fine Sand is frequently mistaken for clay and, indeed, generally does contain some clay, as clay generally contains fine sand.

Uniform Sand is sand in which there is relatively a small variation in the size of the particles.

Balanced Sand is sand in which the size of the particles varies from large to small and in which there is no great difference in the numbers of particles of each size.

Clean Sand contains no clay or loam, but a pure sand containing a large percentage of fine particles is often considered to be NOT CLEAN.

Sharp Sand is clean sand containing coarse, angular grains. When firmly grasped in the hand it gives a NOTE, due to the particles slipping over each other. Sharp sand is generally esteemed for use in mortar, although it requires more cement to fill the voids and, in the writer's opinion, is not as desirable as a clean, rounded sand.

Rounded or Buckshot Sand is composed of rounded grains not cemented together.

Quicksand. This term is popularly used to describe any fine sand, or mixture of fine sand and clay, which, when wet, forms a soft, unstable material.

popular mind quicksand is supposed to have some mysterious and peculiar which result in a tendency to FLOW LIKE WATER and to SUCK IN animate animate objects. These manifestations are connected with various as to the composition of quicksand, some persons insisting that quick-must contain flakes of mica or some slippery mineral, others that the les must be extremely fine or spherical in shape, while others contend there must be a certain proportion of fine clay with the sand. The fact at any uncemented sand, when subjected to the action of moving water, ve and that any sand moving as the result of the action of water becomes sand. The finer the sand the more readily it is affected by a current of so that fine sands are more troublesome than coarse sands. A coarse having large voids, permits the flow of a certain amount of water through if this flow has not sufficient velocity to disturb the particles of the sand, and can be drained without moving it. In a fine sand, having very small a similar flow of water will cause the whole mass to move and there is difficulty in draining it without producing a current sufficient to cause it ve or flow.

avations in Quicksand are made difficult by the tendency of the sand g the sides of the excavation to flow into the excavation; and even if the of the excavation are protected, it not infrequently happens that the of the excavation will LIFT, that is, there will be a movement of material points outside of the line into the excavation, the movement in general g a curved line, and carrying the sand, under the protected side walls e excavation. In such cases some advantage may be gained by surround-e excavation with driven wells and draining the soil by continued pumping h sand; in other cases, wooden or steel sheeting may be driven to a point the depth to which the excavation is to be carried, or to some underlying f impervious material, in which case the sheeting will act as a coffer-dam off the flow of material. Such sheeting, however, must be practically ght, as extremely fine sand, when in the condition of quicksand, will through very small apertures.

uicksand as a Foundation-Bed is objectionable on account of the danger moving or flowing, in case it finds any outlet such as would be afforded by ining excavation. Cases are known where excavations have permitted ape of quicksand and resulted in the settlement of buildings at a very erable distance. Such settlements have occurred not only when the s themselves rested on quicksand, but also when they were on a stratum se sand, gravel or clay of good quality which rested on an underlying m of quicksand.

ckets of Quicksand. It frequently happens that pockets of fine sand are in deposits of mixed character. Where such pockets are small in extent e sand may be removed and the spaces filled with concrete. Where the ts are larger it may be necessary to carry piers through them to a better ation-bed, to drive piles, or to resort to other expedients.

ne Dry Sand is readily converted into quicksand by the addition of water fact should be carefully borne in mind in considering the load on fine sa material which in dry weather is apparently safe, may be, in wet tremely dangerous one. It is frequently stated that confined erfectly reliable material on which to found a building. W y, cannot be controverted, it is a dangerous assumption to e impossibility of providing that the fine sand shall be al

da- eglect during, or n the site of a wele of affording a

riation in the Size of Grains of Sand. The accom of wooden piles, 1) shows graphically the results of sieve-tests on ch rata. Such special

The dash-line curve (1) is an average, giving the results of sieve-tests on severa so-called quicksands; the full-line curve (2) gives the result of sieve-tests on natural sand which would be classed as a good building sand; the dot-and-das curve (3) gives the result of sieve-tests on a fine beach sand remarkable for th

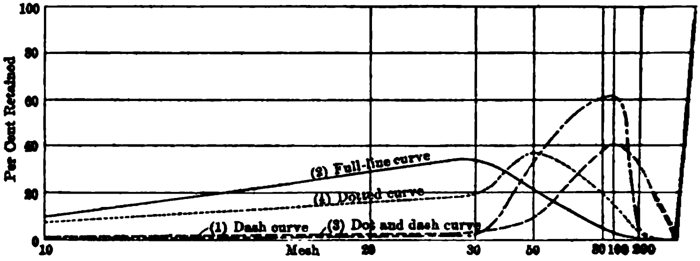


Fig. 1. Graphical Illustration of Results of Sieve-tests on Sands

uniformity of the size of its grains. For purposes of comparison and in order to show the variation in sands which appear to be substantially the same, the dotted curve (4) has been added. This shows the result of tests on a bank sand apparently as coarse as sand (2), but containing a much larger percentage of fine particles between 0.015 and 0.0055 in in diameter. Fine sand frequently contains a considerable proportion of clay. A chemical analysis of a so-called QUICKSAND from the down-town section of New York City, reported on to the writer by Dr. C. F. McKenna, is as follows:

Mark: "Commercial Cable"

Silica	73.76%
Alumina and oxide of iron	18.52%
Lime	1.60%
Magnesia	1.48%
Loss on ignition	2.26%

A rational analysis shows the following composition:

Quartz, as given	39.38%
Clay and mica, as given	23.94%
Feldspathic detritus	36.68%

On the other hand, a sample of extremely fine sand from Michigan, of which 75% passed a 200-mesh sieve, appears to be absolutely pure quartz.

Clay. When pure, clay consists of hydrated silica of alumina, the product of decomposition of feldspar. Ordinarily, various impurities are mixed with the clay, so that, in general, clay may be considered a mixture of hydrated silica
g alumina with other finely divided minerals. Mixtures of clay and sand are
Shal varying from beds of nearly pure clay to beds of nearly pure sand, and
cement classification can be made.
rounded sant **of Moisture on Clay.** Clay as generally found in excavations
Rounded condition due to the presence of moisture, the amount of water
together. greatly. On drying, the clay shrinks in volume and loses its
Quicksand. ng a firm and coherent mass resembling in consistency a sun-
ture of fine sand? masses of clay are liable to crack into a number of small

fragments during the process of drying, as the result of the shrinkage in volume. When these lumps are crushed or ground the clay becomes an extremely fine or impalpable powder. The loss in volume due to the change in the condition of the clay from a moist, plastic state to a thoroughly air-dried condition may amount to from 10% to 20% of the original volume. Compact, moist clay is impervious to water in the sense that water cannot pass through it as it would through porous sand; but when clay is exposed to water the clay gradually absorbs the water, so that eventually the entire mass becomes saturated and softened by the water.

Clay as a Foundation-Bed. Clay is not a reliable material on which to found a building; first, because of the PLASTICITY of the clay when wet, and secondly, because of its TENDENCY TO SHRINK on losing its contained moisture. The plasticity of clay increases with the percentage of contained water, so that a firm, hard clay may be converted into a liquid puddle by being agitated in the presence of a sufficient amount of water. The plasticity is also increased by pressure, as is shown by the action of clay in a brick-machine. Clay, in a foundation-bed under moderate pressure imposed on it by the footings of a structure, frequently develops this QUALITY OF PLASTICITY, the clay moving out from beneath the footing and causing serious settlements and displacements of the footings. This movement of the clay may be a local movement, as referred to each footing, in which case the clay flows from beneath the footing laterally toward the side and then upward, causing the surface of the adjacent material to rise and to form so-called BULGES or WAVES. If this motion is uniform from the center toward the sides, the footing may settle vertically, but more frequently the movement will not be symmetrical and the footing will settle more on one side than on the other. Such movements of the clay may be reduced or prevented in some cases by the simple device of loading the surrounding soil, as, for example, by a concrete floor.

Movements of Clay Foundation-Beds. The movement of the clay may be on a larger scale, amounting to a general flow of the clay underlying the entire building toward some point where the pressure on the clay is less than the pressure resulting from the load of the building. Such general movements are more likely to happen if the building is located on the side of a hill, so that the clay finds some outlet at a point below the level of the footings. It frequently happens that adjoining excavations cause settlements to buildings at a considerable distance, by affording an outlet to a bed of clay. As noted elsewhere (pages 135 and 146), beds of clay resting on inclined strata of rock or other material are liable to move downward, sometimes with a slow, almost imperceptible movement, and at other times forming landslides of greater or less magnitude.

Protection of Clay Foundation-Beds. Where the foundation-bed is clay, or sand with a considerable amount of clay, it is advisable to protect it from water-action, so far as is possible, by a system of drains surrounding the site of the building and by diverting the surface-water from the building. Care should be taken in back-filling around exterior walls to prevent any accumulation of water which might affect the material under the footing. The neglect of such precaution has frequently resulted in serious settlements during, or immediately after, construction.

Mud, Silt, Peat and Other Unstable Materials. When the site of a structure is in a marsh or on materials which are not capable of affording a safe foundation, the only alternative is to resort to the use of wooden piles, concrete piles, or piers sunk to an underlying and firmer strata. Such special constructions will be described under Subdivisions 27, 28 and 29, which consider wooden piles, concrete piles and piers sunk by the coffer-dam or caisson methods.

Filled Ground. All artificial fills and some natural fills are liable to a more or less uniform but continuous settlement or shrinkage due to the gradual consolidation of the material of which the fill is composed. Where the fill is of solid rock this consolidation may amount to little, but where the fill is of earth, and especially where it is of mixed materials, the shrinkage will not only be large in amount but will continue for a very long period. For example, where dirt has been thrown on top of a rock-fill each rain-storm will wash some of the dirt into the voids in the rock-fill, and this action will be continuous until all of the voids are filled in. Any vegetable matter, or other matter liable to decay and shrinkage in volume, will increase the total shrinkage of the mass. Certain natural deposits, such as beds of peat or soils containing vegetable matter, are apt to shrink in volume from the same causes. When it is necessary to found a building on such material it is inevitable that the footings will settle with the mass, notwithstanding that the unit load on the foundation-bed is so small as to be negligible. In such cases the settlements may be vertical and uniform; but if the depth of the fill under one part of the building is greater than the depth under another part, the settlements will not be uniform, as the shrinkage in the fill will, in general, be in proportion to the depth of the fill. No important building should be founded on such material and, wherever possible, the footings should be carried down through the filled-in material to some more reliable underlying stratum.

8. Allowable Loads on Materials of Foundation-Beds

General Considerations. Owing to the infinite number of variations in the materials encountered and the conditions affecting the reliability of such materials, no general or definite rule can be given, and every case should be carefully investigated before determining the allowable unit load on the foundation-bed. If the material and conditions are uniform over the entire site of the building a uniform unit load may be used, but in practice it is frequently found that entirely different conditions exist under different portions of the same building and in such cases great care must be exercised in determining the unit loads. For instance, one section of a building may rest on rock and another section on a light compressible soil or on a clay of doubtful stability. In such cases the unit load on the compressible soil or on the clay must be reduced as much as possible so as to reduce the differences in settlements between the two sections of the building to a minimum. If the entire building were on a compressible soil a very considerable settlement might be allowable, provided it was uniform; but in this particular case it is known beforehand that the part of the building on rock will not settle at all and that any settlements of other parts of the building must be considered as unequal settlements, and, as such, liable to produce cracks and distortions in the building. It is also important to remember that a certain unit load on compressible soil may be safe, in that the soil will ultimately safely support that load; but the use of that load would nevertheless be inadvisable on account of the excessive settlements. In this connection it may be said that a considerable settlement, if uniform, in a detached building may be a matter of no importance; but that where a building is to be constructed in contact with adjoining buildings or where additions are to be made to an existing building, the total amount of settlement becomes a matter of prime importance. These and other considerations, such as the character of the proposed building and of the material composing it, should be borne in mind in selecting the unit load for any given foundation-bed, irrespective of the allowed pressure as given by building codes or by examples quoted in this chapter.

Safe Loads on Rock. The safe unit load on rock may often amount to more than the crushing strength of brickwork or stone masonry, and in nearly all cases any material worthy of the name of rock is capable of supporting from 15 to 30 tons per sq ft.

Safe Loads on Sand, Gravel and Boulders. When compact and confined laterally these materials are capable of supporting 10 tons per sq ft without appreciable settlement. It rarely happens, however, that it is advisable to load such materials with more than 5 tons per square foot.

Safe Loads on Loose Sand. By loose sand is meant sand which has not been thoroughly compacted and which may settle by its own weight independently of a superimposed load. All such materials should be tested and the unit load reduced in accordance with the result of such tests.

Loads on Fine Sand or Quicksand. It is probable that fine sand, if absolutely confined, will sustain as heavy a load as coarse sand, but in view of the fact that if afforded the slightest opportunity it is liable to lateral displacement, it is inadvisable to found any structure on such material. When it is imperative to place the footings on such material the unit load should be reduced as much as possible and preferably to less than 2 tons per sq ft, and great care should be taken to connect all footings with a continuous layer of concrete so as to prevent any flow of material into the cellar-excavation. Care should be taken, also, that any sumps, pump-pits, drainage-arrangements and sewer-connections for the building do not permit the escape of any quicksand..

Safe Loads on Hard-pan and certain cemented sands partaking of the nature of hard-pan may approximate rock in hardness and reliability. Such materials, however, are liable to soften if exposed to water. If these materials, when uncovered, are dry, experiments should be made to determine how they behave when wet, and if the level of the water in the ground is liable to change so as to reach the layer of hard-pan, the load should be correspondingly reduced. Cemented hard-pan containing gravel has been frequently loaded with more than 10 tons per sq ft. Care should be taken, however, to determine that the layer of hard-pan is continuous to a solid substratum, as it frequently happens that layers of hard-pan and fine sand or clay are deposited alternately.

Safe Loads on Clay. Ordinary clay should not be loaded with more than 2 tons per sq ft. If soft and plastic, a load of 2 tons per sq ft may produce inadmissible settlements. Clay containing so large a percentage of sand as to lose its plasticity has been loaded with from 4 to 6 tons per sq ft without undue settlements, and sand or gravel containing sufficient clay to act as a cementing material will partake of the qualities of hard-pan. In general, however, clay is the most dangerous of all the materials on which structures are founded and the unit load should be reduced to a minimum and every precaution taken to prevent the flow of material. Undue reliance should not be placed upon loading-tests of clayey soils. It is probable that a loading on a large area which will produce a movement of the clay will on a small area have no effect, so that it is unsafe to rely upon the results of a test-load applied to an area smaller than the actual supporting areas to be used. From the experience gained in the construction of large buildings in Chicago which were FLOATED on clay, the allowable unit load has been generally reduced to 2 tons per sq ft and, in the writer's experience, a load of less than 2 tons per sq ft on clay has produced settlements varying from nothing to 12 in.

9. Unit Loads on Foundation-Beds Allowed by Building Codes

Variations in Building Codes. Table I gives an outline of the requirements of different cities as to the allowable unit loads on different materials, as contained in their respective BUILDING CODES or REGULATIONS. While the allowed loads given may in some cases be based upon actual experience in the respective localities, it is more likely that they are based upon the individual experience of the authors of the codes, or are copied from other codes. The architect should, therefore, not place too much reliance on the unit loads allowed by the codes, but should investigate each case and determine for himself the proper allowance to be made.

Special Requirements of Some Building Codes. The Boston code provides that "the footing shall not overload the material on which it rests."

The New Orleans code limits the maximum load to 1 400 lb per sq ft, the entire city being on an alluvial-delta formation.

The Buffalo code limits the load on SOIL to 3½ tons per sq ft; if the SOIL is other than hard clay or gravel the supporting areas "shall be extended as directed."

The Cincinnati code limits the load on soils INFERIOR to those listed, to 1 ton per sq ft.

10. Investigation of the Site

General Considerations. To determine the character of the materials which will be encountered at the level of a foundation-bed, the architect should first get as definite information as possible from others as to their experience in making excavations and erecting buildings in that vicinity. In some localities the subsoil conditions are uniform over large areas, while in other localities important variations may occur within the limits of a city lot. Abrupt changes in surface-topography, changes in the character of the surface-soil or in the native vegetation, proximity to old or existing water-courses are suggestive of subsurface irregularities. In such cases, and in all cases where there is any doubt as to subsurface conditions, a sufficient number of exploratory borings or test-pits should be made to determine the facts. This exploratory work should go below the level of the proposed footings, should determine the ground-water level and insure that no unsuspected layer of quicksand or other unsuitable material underlies the foundation-bed. The methods in use for such explorations are as follows:

Testing in an Open Pit. For shallow work an open pit is the most satisfactory method as it allows actual inspection of the undisturbed material over a considerable area. If the excavation is in firm material, no sheet-piling or other protection may be required; but if in flowing material, or if carried deeper than adjoining footings, timber sheeting or steel sheeting should be employed. If the excavation is carried no deeper than the proposed footing-level, the underlying material should be tested by one of the methods hereinafter described.

Testing with Steel Bars. A steel bar with a pointed end or a steel pipe provided with a steel point is driven to the required depth by a maul or by a falling weight. While no samples can be obtained by this crude method, it may determine the ground-water level, and a little practice will enable one to distinguish sandy from clayey soils by the sound given out when the bar is twisted. The difficulty of driving is a rough index of the degree of the compressibility of the soil. It should be remembered, however, that any dry material will afford considerable resistance to the bar and that a small boulder will stop it; so that not much reliance can be placed on a report that the BAR DROVE HARD or that it REACHED ROCK.

Table I. Loads in Tons per Square Foot on Foundation-Beds Allowed by Building Codes

Character of foundation-bed	Richmond, Va.	Minneapolis, Minn.	Philadelphia, Pa.	Atlanta, Ga.	Portland, Ore.	Louisville, Ky.	New York City	St. Paul, Minn.	Cincinnati, O.	St. Louis, Mo.	Cleveland, O.
Alluvial soils					½						½
Firm dry loam		3		2–3		2½	3				
Soft clay	1	1		1			1	1			
Ordinary clay								2			
Moderately dry clay											2
Good solid natural clay										3	
Clay in thick beds, always dry									4		
Clay in thick beds, moderately dry									2		
Dry clay								3			
Firm dry clay	3	3		2–3		2½	3				
Hard clay	4	4		*8 3–4		4	4	4			
Dry hard clay			3½		4						4
Soft wet clay and sand					1½						
Dry sand mixed with clay								2			
Ordinary clay and sand together in layers; wet and springy	2	2		2			2				
Moderately dry clay and sand					3						
Stratified clay and stone									4		
Quicksand					½						½
Soft wet sand											1
Wet sand								1			
Fine sand, firm and dry	3	3		2–3	4	2½	3				
Clean dry fine sand									2		
Fine sand, compact and well cemented											4
Dry sand								3			
Coarse compact sand									4		
Firm coarse sand								4			
Very firm coarse sand	4	4		3–4		4	4				
Clean dry sand											2
Stiff gravel	4			3–4		4	4				
Firm gravel		4		*8							
Cemented gravel			6								
Sand and loose gravel			3½								
Compact sand and gravel									5		
Compact sand and gravel, well cemented									8		
Firm coarse sand and gravel								6			
Gravel and coarse sand, well cemented					8						8
Hard-pan							0–15				
Hard shale, unexposed											8
Rock				*15	8						8

* In caissons.

Testing with Post-Hole Diggers. For shallow explorations in easily excavated material, the ordinary post-hole digger used for fence-posts, or the longer and larger ones used for telegraph-poles, can be used to depths of from 6 to 8 ft.

Testing with Augers. In clay or similar material a single or double-twist carpenter's auger welded to a long rod, or the so-called POD-AUGER may give satisfactory samples. In gravel or loose and sandy material, the sides of the hole fall in, clogging the operation and destroying the samples.

Testing by Dry-Pipe Borings. A POD-AUGER or the above-described CARPENTER'S AUGER can be used inside a casing-pipe. The pipe should be driven so as to keep close to the bottom of the hole made by the auger. The pipe prevents the material falling from the sides of the hole and the auger excavates and loosens the material ahead of the pipe and facilitates driving. The above methods are not generally successful for deep holes or where gravel, boulders or compact material interferes with driving the pipe.

Testing with Wash-Pipes. For test-borings over 10 ft in depth the method in most frequent use is the WASH-PIPE METHOD. In this method a wrought-iron or steel pipe known as the CASING-PIPE or DRIVE-PIPE is driven into the earth in much the same way as in the DRY-PIPE METHOD, but the driving of the pipe is facilitated by the use of a JET OF WATER. The lower end of the casing-pipe is provided with a hollow SHOE or reinforcement, slightly larger in outside diameter than the casing. This serves to protect the pipe from injury in driving through gravel or hard-pan, and forms a hole slightly larger than the diameter of the casing. The upper end of the drive-pipe is protected from injury by an annular drive-head which has a threaded part fitting the thread on the casing-pipe and a central hole to admit the jet-pipe. The jet-pipe is small enough to permit it to freely enter the casing-pipe. The lower end is contracted so as to produce a jet-action. The upper end is connected with a water-supply which must be under considerable pressure. The driving-mechanism consists of a cast-iron weight with a central vertical hole large enough to admit the wash-pipe, and stationary verticals supporting a BLOCK-AND-FALL and an arrangement which releases the weight when it has reached a predetermined height. With this arrangement, water is continuously pumped through the jet-pipe, the length of which is regulated so that the jet-action loosens the material immediately below or AHEAD of the casing. Some of the jetting water returns to the surface outside of the casing and thus lubricates the surface in contact with the outside material. Another part of the water returns to the surface in the annular space between the wash-pipe and the casing, carrying with it particles of the material loosened by the jet. As the jet loosens and washes away the material immediately below the casing, the latter is driven deeper by repeated blows of the ram, the driving and washing being carried on at the same time. The operation is thus continuous until the top of the casing comes close to the surface of the ground, when the hammer drive-head and hose-connection are removed to permit additional lengths of pipe to be added to the casing and wash-pipes, after which the hose-connection, drive-head and hammer are replaced and the operation is resumed.

Borings can be made by this method to great depths in sand, clay or other suitable material. Samples of the material encountered are obtained by settlement from the water returning between the jet-pipe and wash-pipe. These samples are not accurate samples as the water separates the materials. The finer particles do not settle readily and the large and heavy particles may not be brought up at all. It is evident that such samples do not give any index as to the solidity of the original deposits. If large gravel, hard-pan or boulders are encountered there will be great difficulty in forcing the casing past such obstructions. In such cases a DRILL-ROD is sometimes substituted for the JET and the obstruction broken up into small pieces or pushed to one side; but in either case it is difficult to get any sample or real indication of the character of the obstruction. If solid rock or large boulders are encountered, no further progress can be made with the casing and no sample can be obtained by this method. Resort must then be had to one of the CORE-BORING METHODS described hereafter, to determine the character of the obstruction encountered.

Testing by Core-Borings. These borings can be made through rock or boulders and accurate samples obtained. In all core-boring methods the hole is made by rotating a pipe-like tool which makes an annular cut in the rock and leaves a cylindrical core which is afterwards detached and brought to the surface by a gripping-tool called the CORE-LIFTER. The cutting is done in different ways.

Diamond Bits are annular rings fitted on the lower end of the hollow pipe used as the rotating drill-rod and furnished with a number of small diamonds arranged so as to form cutting-edges, which, when rotated in contact with the rock, gradually wear away the required annular space. The diamonds employed are known as BORT, BLACK DIAMONDS, or CARBONS, and their only resemblance to the stones used by jewelers is the necessary hardness. The carbons are skillfully secured in a soft metal bed, in sockets drilled in the bit, and they project below the bit and also sufficiently inside and outside to insure the cutting of a groove large enough to provide clearance for the bit and the attached drill-rod or pipe.

Shot-Drills. The same result is arrived at by the SHOT-DRILL METHOD, by which particles of chilled cast iron called SHOT are used as the abrasive or cutting-agent. The shot is poured loose into the hole and forced against the rock by the rotating bit.

Efficiency of Drill-Methods. Both of the drill-methods mentioned are expensive, but as they are the only methods which will give an accurate sample in rock, one or the other must be employed where the accurate determination of rock is necessary. If the core corresponds to the known underlying rock-formation and the rock is continuous for a length of from 8 to 20 ft, it is safe to assume that solid rock has been reached. If, however, the core is of different rock from the known underlying formation, the probability is that a boulder has been encountered. If the core is not continuous it may indicate that there are seams in the rock or that there are detached rock-masses. The above-described methods are used after the overlying earth has been penetrated by one of the PIPE-SINKING METHODS previously described.

The Results of Pipe-Borings are frequently misleading and misinterpreted, and great care should be taken to compare the samples with samples obtained from other borings where the exact character of the materials tested is known.

11. Loading-Tests

General Considerations. Loading-tests of the materials forming the foundation-bed are made to assist in determining its safe bearing capacity. It is not known to what extent the supporting power of a given soil varies with the area subjected to the unit load, and tests on small areas are not a safe guide for the safe load on large areas. On account of the expense involved, tests on large areas are rarely made, the usual test being on an area of about 1 sq ft. The test should be made on an undisturbed portion of the foundation-bed, leveled to receive the test-load, and for a space around the area tested, so that the adjoining material is not reinforced or SURCHARGED by a bank of unexcavated material. The load should be applied with the least possible jar or movement of the surface in contact with the material of the foundation-bed.

Explanation of Methods. A convenient arrangement for this purpose consists of a vertical timber or post carrying a platform to receive the test-load, and having four horizontal guys at the top to keep the post in a vertical position. The bottom of the post, forming the loading-area should be approximately 12 by 12 in and its exact area should be known. The platform, sufficiently strong to support the load to be applied, should be concentric with the post and as close to the bottom of the post as practicable. The load may be pig iron, cement or sand in bags, or any other convenient material. The guys should be not less than four in number, should be attached to the top of the post and should lead horizontally so as not to pull up or down on it. Levels should be read to a point on the post above or below the load, as may be most convenient. The load should be applied gradually and with the least possible jar, care being taken, also, to keep the loading uniform on opposite sides of the post, which should be always vertical. Levels should be taken at frequent intervals during the application of the load. The level observed when the platform is first in position may be taken as zero and successive settlements referred to it. When the proposed unit load has been reached, no additional load should be added until no further settlement is observed. After this, first 50 and later 100% overload may be added and the total and periodic settlements observed. If the settlement under a test-load of twice the proposed load is not excessive, the test is considered satisfactory.

12. Topographical and Special Conditions

Excavations over Inclined Strata. In case the site of a proposed building is on a slope, and especially if the slope is steep, there may be danger from a slip of the material forming the foundation-bed. (See, also, page 135.) This may occur if there is an inclined plane of separation between layers of the underlying rock, or between the rock-surface and the material overlying the rock, or if inclined strata or beds of clay occur below the foundation-bed. Slips in such locations are the more likely to occur if water is present, as the water increases the weight of the soil and also reduces the COEFFICIENT OF FRICTION against sliding. Such conditions are frequently indicated by the appearance of springs or springy ground below the site. Where the base of the slope reaches a stream or river there may be danger from the washing away of banks which have been supporting the side slopes of the valley. In the case of deep valleys with steep clay banks, or in any location where landslides have been known to occur, great care should be taken to extend the footings to a bed that will not be affected by any landslide. It sometimes happens that there is a slow, continuous and general movement of the material forming the side slope of a valley toward the center of the valley; but such conditions are rare, fortunately, as, in general, no adequate protection is possible. In certain limestone formations there is danger from natural caves formed in the limestone by the action of water.

Excavations Near Navigable Waters. When buildings are located near navigable waters, it not infrequently happens that dredging-operations at a considerable distance induce a flow of fine sand or clay from strata underlying the adjoining banks. This has occurred where the existence of such strata was not suspected. This danger is especially to be guarded against in marshy localities adjoining waters which are, or may be, used as navigable streams, or in locations near the water-front where it is likely that docks will be constructed.

Damage from Adjoining Excavations. Common and statute laws make general provision for the protection of property-owners against damage resulting from the acts of others in making such excavations; but an owner has usually no control over such operations, whether on adjoining properties or streets, and in general will prefer the assurance of safety to the possibility of damage to his building and the expense and uncertainty of a lawsuit. While it is not always possible to guard fully against the effects of adjoining excavations, and while the expense of so doing is not always justifiable, due consideration should be given to the matter. The following suggestions, therefore, may be of value.

Depth of Adjoining Excavations. Footings adjacent to property-lines or situated where there is a probability of future additions to a building, or footings of a building which adjoins property liable to become the site of building-operations, should go down at least as deep as the maximum probable depth of the adjacent work. In estimating these probabilities, the character of the location should be taken into account. In medium-priced residential sections footings are rarely carried much deeper than 10 ft, a sufficient depth for a cellar of medium height below grade. In high-priced residential sections it is not unusual to have both a basement and a cellar, in which case a depth of cellar below grade up to 20 ft may be expected. Cellars for residences are rarely carried below 10 ft, if in reaching that depth the excavation goes below the water-level. In fact, a high water-level discourages deep excavation, not only on account of the increased difficulty and expense of excavation but also on account of the expense of waterproofing. In business sections, especially in sections of high ground-rents, there is an increasing tendency toward deep cellars, especially in boiler-rooms, where clear heights of 20 ft and over are desirable for modern water-tube boilers. The basements are frequently rentable at high figures for restaurants, vaults, stores, etc., so that in many instances the entire mechanical equipment of the building is housed below the basement in a subbasement and boiler-pit, the excavation for which extends down at least 30 ft and in special cases 60 ft below the curb; and this notwithstanding the fact that the water-level may be only from 10 to 20 ft below the curb.

Sewers and Trenches as Affecting Foundations. In cities and towns consideration should be given to the possibility of the construction of trenches in the streets. For the majority of localities it will be sufficient to consider the probable depth of a sewer of the proper depth to serve the street. In other localities it will be necessary to consider the broader question as to the probability of deeper excavations for trunk sewers, subways, etc. As such constructions are controlled by broad topographical considerations, no general rules can be given and the local city engineer should be consulted.

Foundations Near Mines, Shafts, Wells, Etc. In mining-districts local authorities should be consulted as to danger from the caving of OLD MINE-WORKINGS. No adequate provision can be made in the foundation against such widespread caving or subsidence as may result from mining-operations. In some cases, successive falls of rock-fragments from the roof may gradually fill the voids left by the mining-operations, as the loosely piled fragments of the roof will occupy more space as FILL than they did as part of the solid roof-mass. It sometimes happens that where the original working is deep, progressive falling of the roof fills all voids, and no surface-settlements result. In other cases the overburden may settle as a solid mass, causing a settlement at the surface equal to the thickness of the old working. Precautionary measures may involve the filling in of the workings, a subject outside the limits of this chapter. In the case of an important building a local mining engineer should be consulted or, if possible, the location of the building changed to a safer site. MINING-

SHAFTS, DEEP WELLS, SHAFTS FOR TUNNELS, etc., may cause disturbances of the soil, but in such cases the settlement is generally concentrated around the shaft or well, and buildings at a reasonable distance are slightly affected, if at all.

Foundations Near Tunnels and Trenches for Railroads and Subways. In large cities the necessities of transportation are increasingly calling for construction of underground RAILROADS, TUNNELS and SUBWAYS. Such constructions are generally planned to follow streets. Railroad tunnels for trunk lines can be expected to follow direct lines to centrally located stations or terminals along routes which avoid, as far as possible, difficulties of construction, condemnation of real estate and damage to high-priced properties. The depth of excavation will generally be as shallow as practicable. Where the tunnel has to dip to pass underneath some obstruction, the approach-grades will probably be at the maximum or limiting grade of the particular section.

Relation of Subways to Foundations of the Most Important Buildings. In SUBWAY-CONSTRUCTION for rapid-transit passenger service, the lines can be operated on sharper curves and with steeper grades than would be used in the case of a trunk-line railroad. This permits the lines to follow closely the lines of the city streets. For traffic-considerations the locations will, in general, follow the principal arteries of surface traffic, and stations will, in general, be located at intersections of important streets, where there is the greatest congestion of population. As such conditions are caused by the existence of trade-centers, and call for the construction of high buildings, it may readily be seen that the heaviest and most important buildings are most likely to have their foundations affected by the construction of a subway in their immediate vicinity. Where there is reason to apprehend the construction of such SUBWAYS or TUNNELS, information should be sought as to the probable depth of the excavation, the depth at which water is encountered, the character of the material, the probable width of the construction as affecting the use of sidewalk vaults, and the method to be employed in making excavations. Where the excavations for such tunnels and subways have been carried below the levels of the footings of adjoining buildings, as in Baltimore, Boston, Brooklyn, Chicago and New York City, buildings along the routes have been seriously affected. Such results have not been limited to any particular methods used in the construction of the tunnels, as even where the excavations were wholly, or partly, in rock, serious damage has been done.

13. Loads Coming on the Footings

The Loads to be Considered in the design of the footings of a structure are:

(1) **The Dead Loads,** or the loads due to the actual weight of the completed structure, ready for occupancy.

(2) **The Live Loads,** or the loads due to the occupancy of the building and also to the weight of snow on the roof.

(3) **The Wind-Loads,** or the vertical components of stresses in the structure, produced by wind-pressure.

(1) The Dead Load. The dead load of any structure can be accurately calculated. If the structure is properly designed the part of the dead load supported by each element of the foundation can be definitely stated. The total dead load becomes effective as soon as the building is completed, and remains constant thereafter unless additions or alterations are made to or in the structure.

(2) **The Live Load.** The live load of any structure is the sum of the roof-loads and floor-loads. In designing the roof and floors the calculations for strength are based on an assumed unit load which should be the maximum load, consistent with the probable use of the structure, to which any portion of the roof or floor may ever be subjected. The assumed live load is, therefore, probably greater than the average load for the entire area of a floor or the entire area of the roof. Moreover, as it is improbable that conditions of maximum loading will ever occur simultaneously on the roof and on all of the several floors, it is probable that the maximum load on the footings will be less than the sum of maximum loads on the roof and on the several floors.

The Minimum Live Load for an unloaded building is zero.

The Actual Live Load will vary from zero to a maximum, which maximum will generally be less than the total assumed live load.

The Ratio of the Probable Maximum Live Load to the Assumed Live Load varies in different buildings, so that no table or general rule can be given.

The Probable Maximum Live Load. As it is important to know, approximately at least, the maximum live loads to which the footings will be subjected, and as this maximum may be only a fraction of the assumed live loads, the architect should make a careful study of the conditions of loading to which the building will probably be subjected and estimate the probable maximum live load for the entire building.

Data for Estimating Live Loads. (See, also, Chapter XXI, pages 718 to 721.) In estimating the probable maximum live loads for different uses, the following notes may be of value. In certain buildings the assumed unit loading on the roof and on parts of each floor may be reached at various times, but it is unlikely that the maximum loading of all parts of the building will occur at the same time. In buildings of many stories the probability of having maximum loads on all of the floors at the same time decreases with the number of stories.

Ordinary Household and Office-Furniture weighs from 5 to 10 lb per sq ft of space occupied. While safes, bookcases or filing-cases may produce local loadings of from 10 to 100 lb per sq ft, the average load on office-floors rarely reaches 10 lb per sq ft.

Residences, Apartments and Parts of Hotels not used for public assemblies are rarely loaded with more than 5 lb per sq ft of floor-area.

Retail and Wholesale Stores require a large percentage of the floor-area for the use of salespeople and customers, and not over 50% of the floor-area is used for the storage of stock. In estimating the weight of miscellaneous stocks, an average between the lightest and heaviest classes should be taken for the weight per cubic foot, and also, in figuring the total space occupied by stock, an average should be taken between the maximum and minimum amount of stock carried. In RETAIL DRY-GOODS STORES the floor-load for the entire building may amount to not more than 25 lb per sq ft, but in WHOLESALE STORES, and especially in grocery and hardware stores, the average load may greatly exceed this figure.

In Workshops, Loft-Buildings and Buildings for Manufacturing, the actual live loads will, of course, vary with the class of material handled and the weight of the machinery used, and no general estimate can be made. Where the character of the occupancy to be expected is known it is possible to make a close approximation of the weights of machinery, fixtures and average stock on each floor.

Storehouses. In buildings used, in whole or in part, for STORAGE PURPOSES a floor may be used for light, bulky materials which, when stowed so as to leave gangways and working-spaces, will give a resultant load much below the assumed load. On the other hand, the heaviest materials may be compactly piled from floor to ceiling in defiance of building regulations, posted notices and common sense. Raw materials or crated or baled materials can be packed closer than miscellaneous articles, and are therefore liable to increase the loads.

The Ratio of the Total Probable Maximum Live Load to the Total Assumed Live Load having been determined for the entire building, the probable maximum live load for any element of the footing may be readily obtained by multiplying the assumed or calculated live load for that element by this ratio.

(3) **The Wind-Load** is generally calculated on the assumption that the wind may exert a uniform pressure, frequently taken at 30 lb per sq ft, on the entire external area of any side of the building. This assumption makes no deduction for the protecting influences of adjoining buildings. In a building of any size it is improbable that the maximum pressure will be reached over the entire exposed area at the same instant of time, and consequently, if the assumed pressure represents the maximum pressure, the average, at any time, will be less than the calculated total.

General Effect of Wind-Pressure. The horizontal pressure of the wind tends to increase the load on footings on the leaward side of the building and to decrease the load on footings on the windward side. In many buildings diagonal bracing, called wind-bracing, or other special construction, is used to prevent the building from being deformed by the wind-pressure and to convert the horizontal stresses due to the wind-pressure into vertical components, acting along defined lines of support, that is, into either uplifts or loads on certain walls, piers or columns. Where the uplift on any element of the structure is less than the dead load on the same element, the uplift is ignored. Where the vertical component increases the compression in any element it is called the WIND-LOAD IN THAT ELEMENT of construction and on the corresponding footing. The design is generally based upon concentrating all of the wind-load on certain external footings. If, on account of the general rigidity of the building, or on account of any other reason, the wind-stresses reach footings not designed to receive wind-loads, the amounts figured on the external footings will be reduced correspondingly. It is probable that the maximum effect of the wind results from a series of impulses of short duration and that the effect of such pulsations may be partially overcome by the inertia and elasticity of the buildings; so that the resultant load reaching the footing may be only a part of the theoretical load for the instant during which the maximum pressure is exerted. (See, also, Chapter XXIX, Wind-Bracing of Tall Buildings.)

The Probable Maximum Wind-Load acting on the footing is, therefore, less than the theoretical load due to the maximum wind-pressure. If the assumed wind-load represents approximately the maximum wind-pressure, as recorded by a wind-gauge, it would appear safe to assume that only 50% of the assumed wind-load would act to produce a settlement in the footings of a building. Some authors recommend that in proportioning footings all wind-loads be ignored; but this, especially in the case of high and narrow buildings, is manifestly improper. The minimum wind-load is negative, being actually an uplift from which the load may vary to the maximum, but the maximum will be reached only at rare intervals and will endure for a short period only.

The Combined Wind-Load and Live Load. It is improbable that the maximum wind-load and the maximum live load will occur at the same time, which consideration should be borne in mind when the estimate is being made as to the effective wind-load.

14. Assumed Loads Specified by Building Codes

able II. Requirements of Building Codes for Assumed Loads for Office-Buildings

City	Requirements
anta, Ga.	Live load, 75 lb per sq ft above 1st floor; 150 lb per sq ft on 1st floor Footings designed for dead load and 60% of live load and wind-load
ton, Mass.	Live load, 100 lb per sq ft. Wind-load, 30 lb per sq ft where erected in open spaces; in built-up districts, 25 lb at the 10th story, 2½ lb more for each succeeding upper story, up to a maximum of 35 lb to the 14th story and above
alo, N. Y.	Live load, 70 lb per sq ft. Wind-load, 30 lb per sq ft. Foundations designed for the acting average loads in the completed and occupied building and not the theoretical or occasional loads
neapolis, Minn.	Live load, 75 lb per sq ft above the first floor; 100 lb for first floor. Wind-load, 30 lb per sq ft. Roof and top floor, full live load. For each succeeding lower floor, a reduction of 5% until 50% is reached, such reduction being used for the remaining floors
hmond, Va.	Foundations designed for 60% of the live load
Louis, Mo.	Live load, 70 lb per sq ft; first floor, 150 lb. Loads carried by the soil, total dead load and 10 lb per sq ft of all the floor-area. Wind-load, 30 lb per sq ft
Paul, Minn.	Live load, 60 lb per sq ft above the first floor. First floor, 125 lb. Wind-load, 30 lb. Roof and top floor, full load; for each lower floor, a reduction of 5% until 50% of the full live load is reached, when such reduced load shall be used for the remaining floors. Footings designed for dead load and live load
ncinnati, O.	Live load, 50 lb per sq ft above first floor; 100 lb for first floor. Live load reduced by 5% for each floor below the top until 20% is reached, when such reduced loads shall be used for remaining floors. Wind-load, 20 lb per sq ft above surrounding buildings
icago, Ill.	Live load, 50 lb per sq ft. 50% of the live load used for piles. Piers designed for 85% of live load on top floor and reduced by 5% for each lower floor until 50% is reached, when such reduced loads shall be used for the remaining floors. Wind-load 20 lb per sq ft
ew York City	Footings designed for 60% of the live load
eveland, O.	Live load 60 lb per sq ft in offices proper. 100 lb per sq ft in halls, lobbies, etc. Footings for walls designed for 50% of live load. Free-standing columns designed for 80% of 100-lb load and 75% of 60-lb load. Wind-load 30 lb per sq ft for free-standing structures in built-up districts; 25 lb per sq ft at the 10th story and 2½ lb less for each lower story, and 2½ lb more for each higher story, until 35 lb is reached

Reduction in Assumed Loads. The building codes of various cities contain rules governing the assumptions to be made as to live loads and wind-loads, and these rules generally provide for some REDUCTION IN THE ASSUMED LOADS. Generally, it will be found possible to meet these requirements and at the same time arrange for the proper proportioning of the supporting areas. Table II, page 151, gives briefly the requirements of the building codes of several cities, as to assumed loads for office-buildings.

15. Proportioning the Supporting Areas for Equal Settlement

The Minimum Areas of Support. The actual dead loads and the assumed live loads and wind-loads for each lineal foot of wall and for each column, pier, or other supporting element of the building down to the level of the footings having been calculated, a foundation-plan should be prepared giving the amount and center of action of all loads. For safety under the worst possible combination of loads, each footing should be ample to support the total of the dead loads, live loads and wind-loads coming on it. The MINIMUM AREAS OF SUPPORT for any footing is obtained by dividing the total of the dead loads, live loads and wind-loads by the safe supporting power of the foundation-bed. If the foundation-bed is rock, or can be considered as incompressible under the unit load, the minimum areas so obtained may be used for the footings. On compressible materials, or generally on all materials other than rock, the use of these minimum areas will not result in uniform settlements owing to the fact that the actual live loads and wind-loads are not consistent with the assumed live loads and wind-loads.

The Actual Loads on the Footings. In accordance with what has been previously said, let us assume that the dead load is constant, and that for a building under consideration the probable maximum live load is 50% of the assumed live load, that the probable maximum wind-load is 40% of the assumed wind-load, and that on the completion of the building, for a short period, the live loads and wind-loads reduce to zero. The ACTUAL LOADS ON THE FOOTINGS would then be:

(1) Upon completion of the building, the dead load only;
(2) Under the maximum load due to occupancy and to snow on the roof, the dead load plus 50% of the assumed live load;
(3) When loaded as in (2) and subject, in addition, to the maximum probable wind-action,
  (*a*) The footings on the leaward side of the building will sustain the total dead load, plus 50% of the assumed live load, plus 40% of the assumed wind-load;
  (*b*) The footings on the windward side of a building will sustain the total dead load, plus 50% of the assumed live load, minus 40% of the assumed uplift;
  (*c*) Other footings will support the total dead load, plus 50% of the assumed live load, plus zero wind-load;
(4) Intermediate conditions as to live loads and wind-loads will produce loadings intermediate between (1) and (3).

Variations in Unit Loads on Foundation-Beds. With such known variations it is, therefore, impossible to proportion the supporting areas so that the unit load on the foundation-bed shall be uniform at all times. If the supporting areas are proportioned in the ratio of the dead load only, the building, on completion, and before occupancy, will uniformly load the supporting areas, and at that time all of the footings should show equal settlements; but subsequently, when the supporting areas have been subjected to the full effects of the live loads and wind-loads, certain supporting areas, having a high percentage of live loads, or of live loads and wind-loads, will be subject to a higher unit load, and the corresponding footings will consequently settle more than other footings supporting a low percentage of live loads, or live loads and wind-loads.

Non-Uniformity in Footing-Settlements. If, on the other hand, the supporting areas are proportioned on the basis of the dead loads, plus the maximum live loads, plus the maximum wind-loads, even if the MAXIMUM LOADS are the PROBABLE ACTUAL MAXIMUM LOADS, and not the FICTITIOUS ASSUMED LOADS, it is inevitable that upon the completion of the building and before occupancy, the supporting areas having a lower percentage of live loads and wind-loads will have a higher unit load, and the corresponding footings will have settled more than other footings supporting a high percentage of live loads and wind-loads. On this basis, the footings will not come to a uniform settlement until they have been subjected to the maximum live loads and wind-loads.

Arbitrary Rules for Proportioning Supporting Areas. Various ARBITRARY RULES have been recommended for the proportioning of the supporting areas to secure equal settlements. These rules generally provide for a reduction in the assumed live loads and wind-loads, but do not take into consideration the fact that a large proportion of the total settlement of certain footings may take place subsequently to the completion of the building and after other footings may have reached practically their full settlement.

Rational Rule for Proportioning Supporting Areas. The rule hereinafter recommended provides not only for a reduction of the assumed loads on a more rational basis, but also for the proportioning of the footings for the mean load, instead of for the ultimate load, and it is believed that the resulting settlements will be as nearly uniform as possible. The rule is based on the proportioning of the footings in accordance with the loads which will act on the footings at the time when all of the dead loads and one-half of the probable maximum live loads and wind-loads exist. The reason for taking one-half of the probable maximum wind-loads and live loads is that these loads vary from zero to a maximum, the average being one-half of the maximum.

Provision for Variations in Loads. On the completion of the building and before the live loads or wind-loads have gone on the footings, the settlements will not be uniform, because areas designed for a high percentage of live loads and wind-loads will have much less than their average load and will therefore have settled less than footings having a low percentage of live loads and wind-loads. When these same footings have been subjected to the maximum probable live loads and wind-loads, the settlements will again be unequal, because the areas have been proportioned for only one-half of the probable maximum live loads and wind-loads; but the footings which originally were the highest will now be the lowest. The inevitable movement due to the variation in the live loads and wind-loads will be equally divided, one-half of the settlement being required to bring the footing to the level of a footing having the dead loads only, and the other half of the settlement carrying it an equal distance below the same footing. In other words, the method provides for the least possible variation between footings having different proportions of live loads and wind-loads.

The Mean Load. For lack of a better name, the loads taken for the proportioning of the footings, consisting of the total dead loads, one-half of the probable maximum live loads and one-half of the probable wind-loads coming on each footing, will be called the MEAN LOAD.

The Mean Unit Load. The areas will be made such that the load on the foundation-bed due to the mean loads will be uniform, and this uniform load which, in general, will be considerably less than the allowable unit load on the foundation-bed will be called the MEAN UNIT LOAD.

The Minimum Unit Load. The necessity for providing for the worst possible condition of loading is satisfied if the supporting area for all footings is sufficiently large to support the total of the dead loads and the assumed live loads and wind-loads at the allowable unit pressure. The resulting areas of support are the MINIMUM AREAS, and any change in these areas necessary to make them proportionate to the mean loads must be effected by increasing some areas rather than by diminishing any. Any mean unit load which would give, when divided into the mean loads, areas, all of which would be larger than the minimum areas, would serve as the mean unit load, but it is more economical to determine the LOWEST POSSIBLE MEAN UNIT LOAD which, when applied to the mean loads, will give the least possible increase of the areas. This can be done by determining which one of the minimum areas carries the LEAST MEAN LOAD PER SQUARE FOOT. This area may be selected by calculating the mean load on each of the minimum areas, or more simply, by comparing the table of assumed loads and a table giving the mean loads, and noting which footing has the LARGEST PERCENTAGE OF REDUCTION between the assumed load and the mean load. The resulting mean load on this footing will be the MINIMUM UNIT LOAD which can be used as a MEAN UNIT LOAD.

The Method Reduced to Rule. The method can be reduced to rule as follows:

(1) Prepare a table giving in vertical columns or table-divisions for each footing, the dead loads, the assumed live loads, the assumed wind-loads and the total of these three loads. This table is called the TABLE OF ASSUMED LOADS.

(2) Prepare a similar table giving the dead loads, one-half of the maximum probable live loads, one-half the maximum probable wind-loads and the total of these three loads. This table will be called the TABLE OF MEAN LOADS.

(3) By a comparison of the two tables, find the supporting area which has suffered the greatest percentage of reduction between the total assumed loads and the total mean loads and find the unit load resulting from the mean load on this area. This unit load will be called the MEAN UNIT LOAD.

(4) Divide the total mean load as given in the table of mean loads for each footing by the mean unit load. The result will be the required AREA OF SUPPORT.

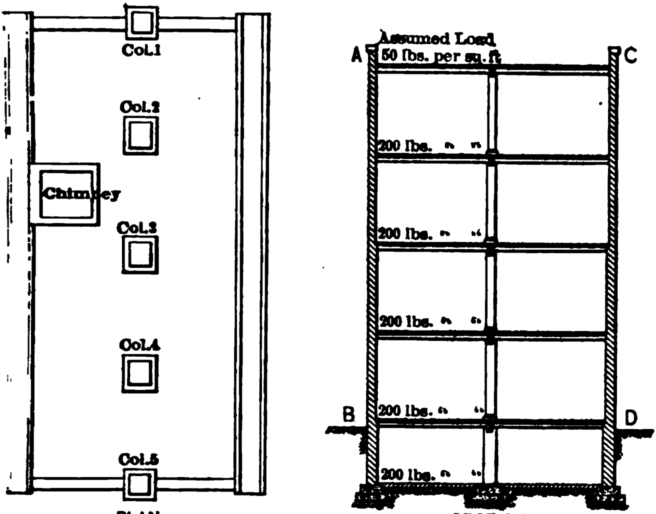
Short Method for Determining the Mean Unit Load. From the foregoing it follows that the MEAN UNIT LOAD can be obtained more directly by the following rule. Find the supporting area which has suffered the largest percentage of reduction between the total assumed load and the total mean load and multiply the allowable unit load on the foundation-bed by the ratio obtained by dividing the total mean load by the total assumed load.

Illustrative Example. The following example is figured out more fully than is necessary in practice in order to fully explain the method and also to compare the method with other methods frequently used and recommended. Ordinarily the wind-loads on a building of the size and type assumed in the example would be ignored, but they have been considered here to make the example complete.

A factory-building (Fig. 2) is to have four floors above the basement, each capable of supporting an assumed unit load of 200 lb per sq ft. The load on the flat roof is assumed at 50 lb per sq ft. The horizontal wind-pressure is assumed as a uniform pressure of 40 lb per sq ft, on the sides *AB* and *CD* only.

The vertical component of the wind-pressure is to be taken care of by the footings of the side walls. There is also an interior self-supporting chimney and ventilating shaft which is protected from the wind and which carries no floor-loads.

The foundation-bed is a uniform, sandy material which is expected to compress uniformly and at the rate of ½ in per ton of load per sq ft of supporting area.



PLAN SECTION

Fig. 2. Foundation-plan and Section of Factory-building

The MAXIMUM UNIT LOAD on the foundation-bed is taken at 4 tons, corresponding to a settlement of 2 in for the assumed load. The calculated dead loads of the building, including all construction down to the level of the footings, the summation of the assumed live loads and the vertical components of the assumed wind-loads are given in Table III.

Table III. Dead Loads and Assumed Live and Wind-Loads

Element of footing	Division 1, dead loads only, lb	Division 2, assumed live loads, lb	Division 3, assumed wind-loads, lb	Division 4, total dead, live and wind-loads, lb
Side walls per lin ft....	14 000	8 400	2 000	24 400
Columns 1 and 5......	137 500	160 000	....	297 500
Columns 2, 3 and 4....	90 000	340 000	....	430 000
Chimney.............	320 000	....	....	320 000

Table-columns are called divisions to avoid confusion with building-columns.

A careful study of the probable loading of the building shows that the maximum live-loads at any one time will not exceed 60% of the total assumed live loads, and that the maximum wind-loads will be less than 50% of the assumed wind-loads, for the reason that the assumed wind-pressure is based upon the highest recorded pressure on a limited area in an exposed situation, whereas the proposed building will be in a sheltered situation. Having, therefore, determined the probable maximum live loads and wind-loads at 60% and 50% respectively of the assumed loads, the so-called mean loads, corresponding to loads half-way between the minimum and maximum loads, will be one-half of the probable maximum loads, or 60% × ½ = 30% of the assumed live loads and 50% × ½ = 25% of the assumed wind-loads. Table IV gives the dead loads and the mean live loads and wind-loads separately, and the total of the dead loads and mean loads, which total is to be used in proportioning the areas for least variation in settlement. This is known as the total mean load.

Table IV. Dead Loads, Mean Live and Wind-Loads and Total Dead and Mean Loads

Element of footing	Division 5, dead loads, unchanged, lb	Division 6, one-half of 60% of assumed live loads, lb	Division 7, one-half of 50% of assumed wind-loads, lb	Division 8, total mean loads, lb
Side walls per lin ft....	14 000	2 520	500	17 020
Columns 1 and 5......	137 500	48 000	....	185 500
Columns 2, 3 and 4....	90 000	102 000	....	192 000
Chimney.............	320 000	....	....	320 000

Table-columns are called divisions to avoid confusion with building-columns.

Comparing the two tables it will be seen that the interior columns of the building, columns 2, 3 and 4, had originally the largest percentage of live loads plus wind-loads, and have consequently suffered the greatest reduction in the amount of total load. The minimum areas of support for columns 2, 3 and 4, and also for the other elements of the footings, are obtained by dividing the total assumed loads given in division 4, Table III, by 8 000, the allowable unit load in pounds on the foundation-bed. The resulting areas are given in division 9, Table V. No reduction can be made in these areas without exceeding the limitation that the most disadvantageous combinations of loading, however improbable, shall not exceed the safe unit load. The adjustment of the areas to the probable mean loading, as given in Table IV, the table of mean loads, must be accomplished solely by increasing the sizes of certain footings.

If we divide the total mean loads in division 8, Table IV, by the minimum areas given in division 9, Table V, we will get the mean load per square foot on the minimum areas for each element of the footing. The results given in division 10, Table V, show that the mean load for columns 2, 3 and 4 is only 3 568 lb per sq ft, while under the chimney the load is 8 000 lb per sq ft. As no reduction in area is permissible it is necessary to increase the footings under the chimney, side walls and columns 1 and 5 until the mean unit load corresponds to the mean unit load for columns 2, 3 and 5. This is done by dividing the mean loads given in division 8, Table IV, by 3 568, the mean unit load as determined for columns 2, 3 and 4. The resulting areas are given in division 11, Table V, and are the areas which should be used.

The method of calculation can be shortened and reduced to a rule as follows: Compare Table IV, the table of mean loads, with Table III, the table of assumed loads, and find the element of support which has suffered the highest percentage of reduction between the total assumed load and the total mean load, and note the corresponding minimum area of support at the allowable unit load on the foundation-bed. Divide the mean load for the same element of support by the number of square feet in the minimum area of support. The result will be the unit load for mean settlement. Then divide the mean loads for each element of support by the mean unit load. The results will be the required areas as given in Table V.

Table V. Mean Loads on Minimum Areas and Areas for Mean Loads

Element of footing	Division 9, minimum areas, sq ft	Division 10, mean loads on minimum areas, lb per sq ft	Division 11, areas for mean loads, sq ft
Side walls per lin ft	3.05	5 580	4.7
Columns 1 and 5	37.2	4 986	51.9
Columns 2, 3 and 4	53.8	3 568	53.8
Chimney	40.0	8 000	89.7

Table-columns are called divisions to avoid confusion with building-columns.

Or the mean unit load may be determined by multiplying the allowable unit load by the ratio obtained by dividing the mean load for the element of support having suffered the highest percentage of reduction by the assumed load for the same element.

Resulting Settlements. The following Tables VI, VII and VIII show the comparative settlements which may be expected if the supporting areas are proportioned in accordance with different assumptions as to load. In all the tables it is assumed that the foundation-bed will settle ½ in per ton of load, and that the total assumed load will never load the foundation-bed in excess of 4 tons per sq ft.

In Table VI the footings are proportioned in the ratio of the DEAD LOADS only.

In Table VII the footings are proportioned in the ratio of the TOTAL ASSUMED LOADS.

In Table VIII the footings are proportioned in the ratio of the MEAN LOADS.

In each table, division 1 gives the dead load coming on the footings on the completion of the building. Division 2 gives the load coming on the footings when the building is subjected to the maximum probable live loads and wind-loads. Division 3 gives the supporting areas in accordance with the assumed loading. Division 4 gives the settlements for the unloaded building. Division 5 gives the settlement after the addition of the maximum probable live loads and wind-loads.

Explanation of Table VI. The method of proportioning the areas in the ratio of dead loads only, as recommended by C. C. Schneider* may, in the form of a rule, be stated as follows:

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* See article on the Structural Design of Buildings, Trans. Am. Soc. C. E., vol. 54, June 1905.

Compare the table-division of dead loads, Table VI, with the division of assumed live loads, find the element of support which has the highest percentage of live loads to dead loads, and note the corresponding minimum area of support at the allowable unit load on the foundation-bed. Divide the dead load for the same element of support by the number of square feet in this minimum area of support, and the result will be the unit load due to the dead load only. Then divide the dead loads for all other elements of support by this unit load, and the results will be the areas required. Thus, in Table VI, it is seen by referring to Table III that columns 2, 3 and 4 have the greatest percentage of live load to dead load, and their minimum area of support, as in Table V, is 53.8 sq ft. Then, 90 000 ÷ 53.8 = 1 675 lb, the unit load due to the dead load only. The area for columns 1 and 5 is 137 500 ÷ 1 675 = 82.1 sq ft. The process is similar for the other elements.

Table VI. Footings Proportioned in the Ratio of the Dead Loads Only

Probable settlement where supporting areas are proportioned in the ratio of dead loads only

Element of footing	Division 1	Division 2	Division 3	Division 4	Division 5
	Dead loads only, lb	Maximum probable loads, lb	Areas, sq ft	Settlements	
				Empty, in	Loaded, in
Side walls per lin ft	14 000	20 040	8.3	0.42	0.60
Columns 1 and 5	137 500	233 500	82.1	0.42	0.71
Columns 2, 3 and 4	90 000	294 000	53.8	0.42	1.36
Chimney	320 000	320 000	191.0	0.42	0.42
Maximum variation, empty			....	0.00	....
Maximum variation, loaded			....	....	0.93

Table-columns are called divisions to avoid confusion with building-columns.

The calculations for settlements are readily made, when the amount of compressibility of the foundation-bed is known, by multiplying the unit load on the foundation-bed of each element of support by the amount of compressibility of the foundation-bed per unit of load. Thus, in the above example the amount of compressibility is given as ½ in per ton. In Table VI the unit loads, due to dead loads for each element of support, are the same, or 1 675 lb = 0.838 tons per sq ft, which, multiplied by ½ = 0.42 in. Similarly, the unit loads due to maximum probable loads for each element of support are determined, and these loads, in tons, multiplied by one-half, give the settlements in inches as given in division 5 of Table VI.

Explanation of Table VII. The areas given in Table VII are obtained by dividing the total maximum dead loads, live loads and wind-loads by the allowed unit, 8 000 lb per sq ft, and are the minimum areas given in Table V. The settlements for the loaded building are based on the maximum probable loads as given in division 2 of Table VII.

Table VII. Footings Proportioned in the Ratio of the Total Assumed Loads

Probable settlement where supporting areas are proportioned in the ratio of total assumed loads					
Element of footing	Division 1	Division 2	Division 3	Division 4	Division 5
	Dead loads only, lb	Maximum probable loads, lb	Areas, sq ft	Settlements Empty, in	Settlements Loaded, in
Side walls per lin ft	14 000	20 040	3.1	1.13	1.61
Columns 1 and 5	137 500	233 500	37.2	0.92	1.57
Columns 2, 3 and 4	90 000	294 000	53.8	0.42	1.36
Chimney	320 000	320 000	40.0	2.00	2.00
Maximum variation, empty			....	1.58	....
Maximum variation, loaded			....	....	0.64

Table-columns are called divisions to avoid confusion with building-columns.

Table VIII. Footings Proportioned in the Ratio of the Mean Loads

Probable settlement where supporting areas are proportioned in the ratio of total mean loads					
Element of footing	Division 1	Division 2	Division 3	Division 4	Division 5
	Dead loads only, lb	Maximum probable loads, lb	Areas, sq ft	Settlements Empty, in	Settlements Loaded, in
Side walls per lin ft	14 000	20 040	4.7	0.74	1.06
Columns 1 and 5	137 500	233 500	51.9	0.66	1.12
Columns 2, 3 and 4	90 000	294 000	53.8	0.42	1.36
Chimney	320 000	320 000	89.7	0.89	0.89
Maximum variation, empty			....	0.47	....
Maximum variation, loaded			....	....	0.47

Table-columns are called divisions to avoid confusion with building-columns.

Explanation of Table VIII. The areas in Table VIII are obtained as already explained and as given in division 11, Table V, and the methods used in determining the settlements are similar to those used for the preceding tables. In Table VIII it will be noted that columns 2, 3 and 4 have a settlement of 1.36 − 0.42 = 0.94 in, as a result of the addition of the live loads and wind-loads. Half of this settlement is required to bring these footings down to the level of the chimney-footing, and the other half of the settlement brings them below the chimney-footing. There is no way to prevent this settlement of 0.94 in, but its effect on the building is reduced to a minimum by having the settlement of the footings of columns 2, 3 and 4 start above the chimney-footing and finish below it. The chimney-footing does not change its elevation after the completion of the building, and compared with it, the variation in level of the other footings is the minimum. In their mean position, half-way in their movement, these other footings will be at the same level as the chimney-footing.

16. Determining the Supporting Areas

General Requirements. In laying out the AREAS OF SUPPORT for any structure it should be borne in mind, as previously explained, that (1) the total of the dead loads, assumed live loads and assumed wind-loads should not load the foundation-bed in excess of the allowable load on it; (2) when the foundation-bed is compressible the areas of support should be calculated by the method of mean loads; and (3) the center of gravity of the supporting area should coincide with the center of action of the load to be supported. To these may be added a further condition that (4) economy will be furthered by keeping the supporting areas simple in outline and by arranging each area as compactly as possible around the center of the load to be supported.

(1) The first condition is necessary in order to provide that no possible condition of loading will exceed the allowable pressure on the foundation-bed.

(2) The second condition provides for making the settlements of different footings as nearly equal as possible.

(3) The third condition provides that the settlements of each footing shall be uniform, that is, that the footing shall not settle out of level.

(4) The fourth condition provides for economy in design in the footing itself and for economy in making the excavation for the footing, especially in the case of deep excavations requiring sheathing for the protection of their sides.

In the case of a free-standing structure, the total load of which is not in excess of the supporting capacity of the entire area of the building at the safe unit load on the foundation-bed, it will generally be possible to arrange simple supporting areas whose centers will correspond with the centers of the loads. The disposition of such areas is considered in succeeding paragraphs in the discussions of CONCENTRIC LOADING. In buildings having restricted sites, where walls or columns are placed close to adjoining property-lines, it will frequently be impossible to arrange for simple concentric loadings and necessary to use offset footings, cantilevers or other devices to transfer the loads to supporting areas located on the property. Such supporting areas are discussed in succeeding paragraphs relating to ECCENTRIC FOOTINGS.

Footings with a Concentric Load. In order to have the load on the foundation-bed uniform under a footing it is necessary that the center of gravity of the supporting area should coincide with the center of gravity of the load, otherwise the area is said to be ECCENTRICALLY LOADED and the resulting load on the foundation-bed will not be uniform. Any variation in the loading of a compressible foundation-bed under a footing will result in an unequal settlement of the footing and this in turn will result in unequal stresses in the wall, pier, or column supported by the area.

Wall-Footings with Concentric Load. In the case of a WALL, the footing should project an equal distance on each side so that the center of gravity of the supporting area will coincide with the center of gravity of the wall and of the loads transmitted by the wall. The width of the supporting area should vary with the load on the wall, irrespectively of any change in the thickness of the wall

Footing for a Concentric Isolated Load. In the case of a simple concentrated load, as, for example, a load from a column or pier, the footing may be circular, square, rectangular, or irregular in outline, but the center of gravity of the area must coincide with the center of gravity of the load. Theoretically the circular shape gives the most economical footing, as the supporting areas extend radially the least possible distance from the center or axis of the load. Where deep excavation is necessary the circular form may lend itself to an economical method of excavation, as, for example, when cylindrical piers are sunk by the pneumatic method or by dredging. In general, however, for ordinary footings the rectangular form is preferable, in that it lends itself to an economical arrangement of grillage-beams. The square is the most economical rectangle as the sum of the bending movements in the grillage and bolsters is reduced to a minimum.

Elongated Supporting Areas. When the supporting area for an isolated load cannot be made a circle or a square, for example, when the square or the circle would overlap an adjoining property-line or interfere with an adjoining supporting area, the necessary area may frequently be made rectangular in form, as *ABDC* (Fig. 8), having a width *w*, twice the distance *a* between the center of the load *O* and the limiting line *AB*.

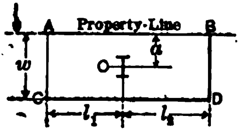

Fig. 3. Elongated Supporting Area. Concentric Load

The required length *l* equals the required area divided by *w* and the area should be centered on *O*, that is, l_1 must equal l_2.

Combinations of Simple Areas. Two Adjacent Isolated Areas. When adjoining supporting areas overlap or when, for other reasons, it is desirable to combine adjacent footings, the best arrangement may be obtained as follows: Knowing the supporting area required for each of two adjacent concentrated loads and the distance between the centers of the loads, the sum of the two areas should be divided by twice the distance between the load-centers. The quotient will be the width or the dimension of the required rectangle of support taken at right-angles to the line connecting the load-centers; and the other dimension of the rectangle will be twice the distance between the load-centers. The center of the area should be placed so as to coincide with the center of gravity of the two loads, when it will be found that each load will be concentric with its own area of support. Where a row of columns requires areas which nearly overlap, the combination of the areas frequently results in economy in excavation and form-work.

Supporting Area for a Concentrated Load in the Line of a Wall. If one or more concentrated loads are carried in the line of a wall the additional supporting areas required for such concentrated load may be provided in either of two ways.

(1) If the concentrated loads rest on the wall, as, for example, when the wall supports the ends of girders and when the conditions are such that the concentrated loads are distributed along given lengths of it, then, all that is necessary is to increase the width of the footing for the given lengths sufficiently to provide for the total of the uniformly distributed and concentrated loads.

(2) If a concentrated load is on the center line of the wall but cannot be distributed by the wall, as when a considerable load is carried by a pier or column to the level of the footings, then one-half the additional area for the concentrated load should be placed on either side of the wall-footing, so that a line connecting the centers of the two areas will pass through the center of the load. In general,

it is desirable that the additional areas, together with the area for the wall lying between them, should APPROXIMATE A SQUARE. Knowing the width of the footing required to support the wall and the additional area required to support the concentrated load, the length of the side of the required square can be determined by the following formula (Fig. 4):

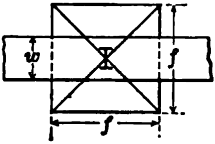

Fig. 4. Square Supporting Area. Wall and Concentric Isolated Load

Let w = the width of the footing;
A = the area required to support the concentrated load;
f = the side of the square which will support a length of wall equal to f, and also provide an additional area equal to A. Then

$$f = w/2 + \sqrt{A + w/2}$$

Supporting Area for Concentrated Load not in the Center Line of a Wall. The same additional supporting area is required for this as for a concentrated load on the center line of a wall, but the total area must be divided unequally between the two sides of the wall-footing, the larger portion being placed on the side of the eccentric load. The simplest way to determine the location of the supporting areas for this combination is to determine the size of the required square as if the concentrated load were concentric with the center line of the wall. The next step is to calculate the load due to the wall for the length of this square and determine the location of the center of gravity of the combined loads, that is, the center of gravity of this wall-load and the concentrated load. The center of the supporting area is then placed concentrically with the center of gravity of the combined loads. In Fig. 5 let

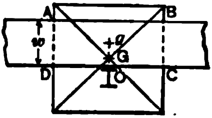

Fig. 5. Square Supporting Area. Wall and Eccentric Isolated Load

w = the required width of the wall-footing;
O = the concentrated load;
A = the area required for the support of the concentrated load. Then, as before, the length of the side of the required square will be

$$f = AB = ½w + \sqrt{A + ½w}$$

The center of gravity of the wall-load contained between the lines AD and BC is at g, and the amount of the load is evidently the load per foot multiplied by the distance $AB = f$. Knowing the position and amount of the loads at O and g, the center of gravity of the combined loads is determined, say at G. This fixes the center for the square.

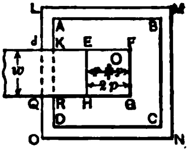

Fig. 6. Square Supporting Area. Isolated Load on End of Wall

Supporting Area for a Concentrated Load on the End of a Wall. A somewhat different treatment is required for this, but the supporting area may be best determined as follows (Fig. 6): Knowing the width w of the footing required for the support of the wall, the additional area required for the concentrated load O and the distance p from the center of the concentrated load from the end of the wall, proceed in this way. Determine the square whose area corresponds to the sum of the areas required for the support of the concentrated load and for a length of wall equal to twice the projection of the wall beyond the center of the concentrated load. Plot this square $ABCD$ on the foundation-plan and also the total area required for the support of the wall. The square *ABCD* includes an area sufficient for the support of the concentrated load and for a section of the wall *EFGH* corresponding to a length of wall equal to twice the projection *p*, multiplied by the width of the footing. It is evident that the area *KEHR* is loaded both by the wall and the concentrated load; in other words, that the square *ABCD* is too small by the amount of the rectangle *KEHR*. The required square *LMNO* will be approximately the square which will contain the original area *ABCD* plus the area *KEHR*, plus twice the area *JKRQ*. The length of the side $LM = MN$ will be approximately the length of the original square plus one-half of the area *KEHR* divided by the length of the original square. The resulting square should be moved from the position shown on the drawing so that its center coincides with the center of gravity of the combined concentrated load and the wall-load back as far as the square goes on the wall. A further approximation may be necessary where accuracy is required. The final result should be that the area of the square *LMNO* should be sufficient to support the concentrated load *O* and that portion of the wall-load *JFGQ* resting on the square, and that the center of gravity of the square should coincide with the center of gravity of the combined loads.

17. Offset Footings

Supporting Areas for Non-Concentric Loads. When walls, columns, or piers are placed close to property-lines the required supporting areas cannot be placed concentrically with the loads without overlapping the property-lines. In such cases recourse must be had to some method which will transfer the loads to supporting areas not concentric with the loads. An attempt to accomplish this result, the method known as OFFSETTING THE FOOTING has been largely used, especially for side walls adjoining property-lines. While theoretically faulty, if not useless, it is indisputable that OFFSET FOOTINGS have generally served the purpose for which they were designed. In the typical construction a cellar wall rests on a course of concrete or of flat stones forming a footing course considerably wider than the wall, the projection being entirely on one side of the wall. The load acting on one side of the center of the footing loads the supporting area unequally. The VARYING LOAD on the supporting area can be calculated as follows: In Fig. 7 let

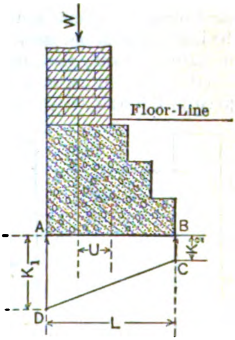

Fig. 7. Offset Footing. Varying Pressure on Foundation-bed

$W =$ the total load per unit of length coming on the supporting area;
$U =$ the eccentricity of load, that is, the distance between the center of the load and the center of the supporting area;
$L =$ the width of the footing = the width of the supporting area $= AB$;
$K_1 =$ the unit load, or pressure on the foundation-bed at *A*, the edge of the footing nearest the load;
$K_2 =$ the unit load, or pressure on the foundation-bed at *B*, the edge of the footing farthest from the load;
$y =$ any ordinate, from *A* to *B*.

Then the AVERAGE PRESSURE on the foundation-bed will evidently be W/L. The pressure at *A*, the edge nearest to the point of application of the load, will be $K_1 = W/L\,(1 + 6\,U/L)$, or the maximum load will equal the average load plus six times the average load multiplied by the ratio of the eccentricity divided by the width of the footing.

Similarly, the pressure at B, the edge farthest from the point of application of the load, will be $K_2 = W/L\,(1 - 6\,U/L)$, or the minimum load equals the average load minus six times the average load multiplied by the ratio of the eccentricity divided by the width of the footing.

When the eccentricity equals 1/6 the width, the pressure at B becomes zero. If the eccentricity exceeds 1/6 the width there will be an uplift at B, or the footing will have a tendency to overturn. This relation is generally expressed by saying that to avoid an upward reaction the center line of the load must fall within the middle third of the base.

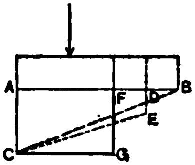

Fig. 8. Pressure-diagrams for Footings

Load-Diagrams for Offset Footings. If in the diagram (Fig. 8) the figure $ADEC$ represents the load-diagram on the foundation-bed for a width of footing AD and the load AC is the maximum permissible load, then the area $ADEC$ represents the maximum support afforded by the footing AD. If the width is increased until the load falls on the limit of the middle third or to the width AB, then the load at B is zero and the support is represented by the triangle ABC, the area of which is less than the area $ADEC$. Moreover, if the width of the footing is reduced until its center is concentric with the load-center, then the load-diagram becomes $AFGC$, the area of which is greater than either ABC or $ADEC$. From the foregoing it is evident that any advantage gained by offsetting the footing must be obtained at the cost of concentrating the support given to the wall away from the center line of the wall.

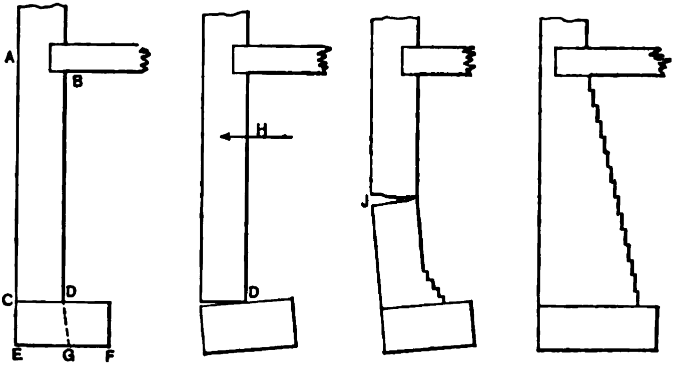

Fig. 9 Fig. 10 Fig. 11 Fig. 12

Figs. 9, 10 and 11. Eccentric Loading and Tendencies to Failure Due to Offset Footings; Fig. 12. Improved Type of Construction

Eccentric Loading Due to Offset Footings. In Fig. 9, representing a simple case of eccentric loading due to offset footings, the load on the foundation-bed at E is perhaps twice the average load and at F about zero. Under these conditions the projecting portion of the footing may shear, as indicated, along the line *DG*. If it does not shear and if there is any settlement due to the load, the settlement will be unequal and the footing course will tend to rotate into the position shown in Fig. 10. The entire load will then be transmitted through the inner lower corner *D* of the cellar wall, rendering the wall unstable and developing a tendency to move in the direction *H*.

The cellar wall may successfully resist this tendency by its own rigidity assisted by the first-floor beams acting as ties or by the external resistance afforded by an abutting wall or bank of earth, or it may partially or completely fail, developing a horizontal crack as indicated in Fig. 11 at *J*.

In this figure it will be noted that the base of the wall itself is offset. This is done to prevent the separate rotation of the footing course; but this construction does not diminish the TENDENCY TO ROTATION of the entire base of the wall and to the formation of a crack at *J*.

An improved type of construction is illustrated in Fig. 12; in which the floor-beams are anchored into the wall and the cellar wall has a continuous stepped batter from the level of the footing up to the level of the beams. The beams should evidently be arranged as tension-members, should run across the building and should be anchored in the opposite wall. While this method may have some effect it is of doubtful efficacy and should never be used for piers.

18. The Use of Cantilevers in Foundations*

Application of the Principle of the Lever. The use of the CANTILEVER, in transferring a load to a supporting area not concentric with the load, is based upon the PRINCIPLE OF THE LEVER and involves a girder or cantilever connecting the two loads, and a supporting area or areas the CENTER OF ACTION of which lies between the two loads. Part or all of the load on one side counterbalances the load on the other side of the center of the supporting area.

Illustrative Example. If an exterior column *A* (Fig. 13) carrying a load of 400 tons and requiring 100 sq ft of supporting area, at 4 tons per sq ft, the column-center being 18 in from a property-line *PP* which forms the limit of the building plot, it is evidently impractical to employ a concentric footing 3 by 33⅓ ft for its support. If, however, a sufficient counterweight can be found in the shape of an adjacent interior column-load, as at *B*, the exterior load can be transferred by a girder or cantilever construction *CDEF* to a supporting area *MN* lying between the two loads, and entirely within the limits of the property.

In Fig. 13 let *PP* represent the property-line, *A* the center of the load on column *A*, and *B* the center of the load on column *B*. Let the load on *A* be 400 tons, on *B*, 200 tons and the distance *AB* between centers, 20 ft. Assume that a rigid girder *CDEF* supports and connects the two columns. If now a FULCRUM or point of support *G* is provided for the girder at some point between *A* and *B*, the load on that point can be readily determined from the PRINCIPLE OF THE LEVER by multiplying the load on *A*, 400 tons, by the distance *AB*, 20 ft, and dividing the product by the distance *BG*, 19 ft; or, the load on $G = 400 \times 20/19 = 421$ tons +. The area required for the support of this load, at 4 tons per sq ft, is $421/4 = 105\frac{1}{4}$ sq ft. The uplift at *B*, or the part of the load *B* required to counterbalance the overhanging load *A* is, from the principle of the lever, the product of the load *A* by the lever-arm *AG* divided by the lever-arm *BG*. The load on the footing for *B* is the difference between the original load and the uplift; but in view of the possibility of a reduction in the load *A*, which would decrease the uplift at *B*, it is well to provide for a possible increase in the load *B*.

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* See, also, Chapter XIX, pages 678 to 680, for an example of a Continuous Girder in Grillage Foundation.

Determination of the Area of Support. In determining the AREA OF SUPPORT for *A*, having assumed one dimension of the supporting area to be twice the distance *GP*, or say 5 ft, the other dimension will be 105¼ sq ft/5 = 21 ft ½ in. If the length 21 ft ½ in, as determined, is found to be excessive, then the point *G* must be moved to the left and the corresponding length of the supporting area must be determined as before. When the length of the supporting area for the fulcrum of the cantilever is limited, so that the length parallel to the property-line is fixed, the width of the area can be determined experimentally or by the use of the formula

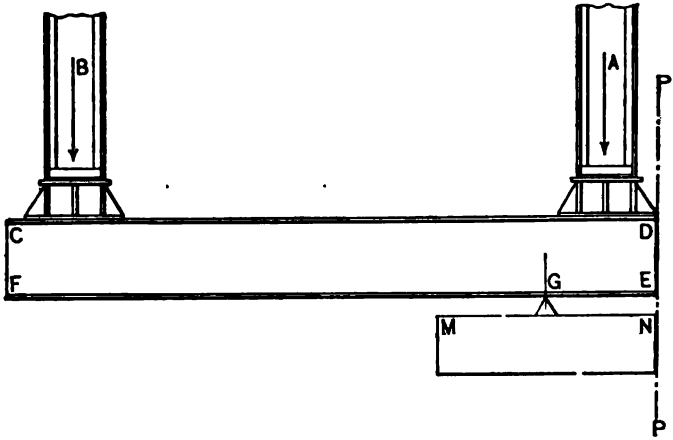

Fig. 13. Cantilever Foundation-construction

$$X = (L - u) - \sqrt{(L + u)^2 - 2\,WL/lS}$$

in which

L = the distance between centers of the two loads;
W = the load nearest to the property-line;
l = the length of the supporting area;
S = the unit load on the supporting area; and
u = the distance between the center of action of the load to be cantilevered and the edge of the supporting area nearest to the property-line.

If the position of the center of gravity of the load *A* combined with that part of the load on *B* which is borne by the cantilever is determined, it will be found to coincide with the fulcrum or point of support *G* of the cantilever, thus demonstrating that the use of the cantilever provides a means of combining two loads so that their center of gravity falls on the center of a supporting area not concentric with either load.

The Grillage Fulcrum. Of course in practice the KNIFE-EDGE FULCRUM shown in the diagram is not used. The bottom flange of the girder forming the cantilever rests on the DISTRIBUTING GRILLAGE directly, as is shown in Fig. 14, which may be considered a typical arrangement.

The Girdering-Method for Two Equal Loads. When it is desirable to support two or more adjacent concentrated loads on a single supporting area the method called GIRDERING is employed. In the case of two concentrated loads, let A and B (Fig. 15) represent two columns. Let W_1 represent the load on A and W_2 represent the load on B. Let D represent the distance between the centers of the two loads. Let G represent the center of gravity of the combined loads. Let r represent the allowable unit load on the foundation-bed. The required area of support will be $(W_1 + W_2)/r$. This area may be of any desired shape, provided that its center of gravity coincides with the center of gravity of the combined loads at G. In general, however, the most economical arrangement will result when each load is as nearly as possible over the center of gravity of its own required area. If, however, this is impracticable, as for example, when either column is near a property-line or an adjoining footing, it will be necessary to distribute the loads of both columns over the area lying between the two columns. In the case of two columns equally loaded, as in Fig. 15, the distance u, from the center of column A to the property-line PP, determines the maximum allowable extension beyond column A. The dimensions of the area are obtained by making the length L of the footing equal to

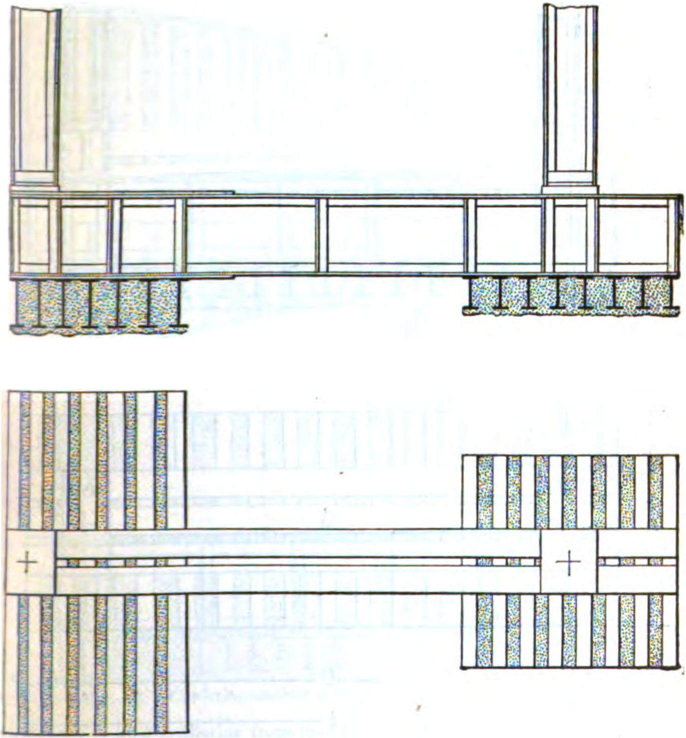

Fig. 14. Cantilever Foundation. Grillage Fulcrum

the distance D between the columns plus twice the extension u. Knowing the length of the required area the width w is determined by simple division.

The Girdering-Method for Two Unequal Loads. In the case of columns not equally loaded, the SUPPORTING AREA may be a TRAPEZOID, as in Fig. 16, the center of gravity of which must coincide with the center of gravity of the two loads. Knowing the sum of the two loads and the required area for their support, and fixing the total length L of the footing in accordance with the requirements that the footing shall not project beyond the line PP, the widths of the footing at the small and large end, a and b respectively, can be determined as follows: Let B represent the distance from the small end of the trapezoid to the center of gravity of the two loads and let A represent the area of the trapezoid. Then

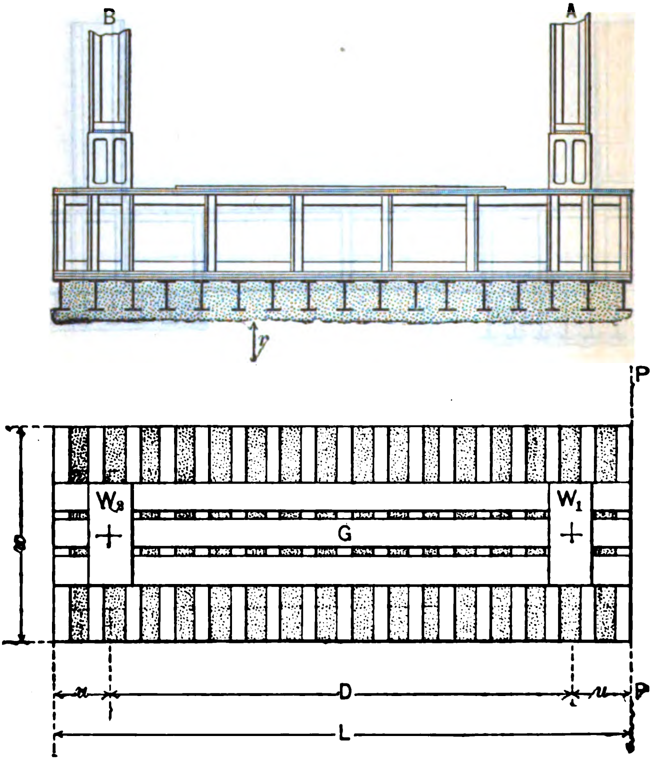

Fig. 15. Girdering-method of Foundations. Two Equal Loads

$$b = 2A/L\,(3B/L - 1)$$

and

$$a = 2A/L\,(2 - 3B/L)$$

also

$$A = (a+b)\,L/2 \quad \text{and} \quad a+b = 2A/L$$

Cantilevering an Exterior Wall. In the case of a wall the same principles apply, but the cantilevering effect must be distributed along the length of the wall. This can be accomplished by placing a girder under the wall, the girder in turn resting on the cantilever, or by using a number of cantilevers arranged in fan shape and radiating from the interior load-center. In narrow buildings the cantilevers may run from wall to wall.

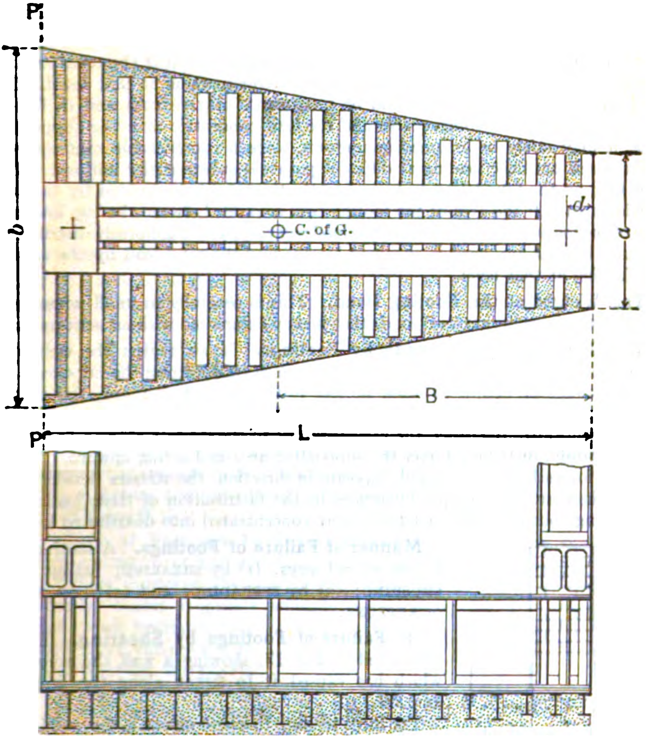

Fig. 16. Girdering-method of Foundations. Two Unequal Loads

Double Cantilevering. The considerations controlling the design of the supporting areas required are the same as outlined in the preceding paragraphs.

19. Stresses in Footing Courses

Size and Form of Footing Courses. The footing courses of all walls and piers should be larger than the superimposed construction in order to secure STABILITY AGAINST OVERTURNING and to reduce the UNIT LOAD on the foundation-bed. When the change in size is accomplished abruptly as when a wall rests on a grillage or a slab of plain or reinforced concrete the footing is called a SPREAD FOOTING. When the base of the wall is thickened by means of offset courses so that its bottom course is substantially as large as the footing course the construction is known as a STEPPED FOOTING. It is evident that no hard and fast line can be drawn between the two classes. Whatever the form of the footing is it must be strong enough to distribute the more or less concentrated load coming on it, into a uniform pressure or load on the foundation-bed.

The Unit Loads of Footing Courses. If the load on the upper surface of a footing course is uniformly distributed the intensity of the load, or in other words the UNIT LOAD ON THE FOOTING, is obtained by dividing the total load by the area of the base of the wall, pier, or other construction at that level. The load on the foundation-bed should be UNIFORMLY DISTRIBUTED and in fact, if the foundation-bed is compressible and the load concentric with the supporting area, it may safely be assumed as uniform, since a compressible material will adjust itself until the loading at different points is substantially uniform. The unit load on the foundation-bed is evidently the total load divided by the supporting area. If the area of the footing course varies between the top and bottom of the footing the INTENSITY of the load will vary, and if uniformly distributed, the unit load at any level is obtained by dividing the total load by the area of the footing at that level.

The Weight of the Footing Itself. This is generally so small when compared with the superimposed loads that it may be ignored without serious error.

The Transmitting of Loads by Footings. If we neglect the weight of the footing we can consider the footing course as transmitting the imposed load to the foundation-bed or as being subject to two equal loads; one, the SUPERIMPOSED LOAD, more or less concentrated on the center line of the footing and acting downward; the other, the REACTION due to the loading of the foundation-bed uniformly, distributed over the supporting area and acting upward. These loads or forces being equal and opposite in direction, the stresses developed in the footings are due to the differences in the distribution of these loads, and the footing courses simply act to convert concentrated into distributed loads.

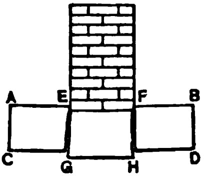

Fig. 17. Failure of Footing by Shearing

Manner of Failure of Footings. A footing may fail in several ways: (1) by SHEARING; (2) by direct CRUSHING; (3) by SPREADING; and (4) by BENDING or RUPTURE.

(1) Failure of Footings by Shearing. This is illustrated in Fig. 17, showing a wall the weight of which has caused it to SHEAR along the lines *EG* and *FH*.

The force tending to cause SHEAR is the weight due to the wall less the reaction of the foundation-bed acting on the under side of the section *EFGH*. Since the load is supposed to be uniformly distributed this is equivalent to the product of the area corresponding to the width *CD* minus the width *GH* times the length of the wall considered, by the unit loading on the foundation-bed.

For a 1-ft length of wall the force causing shear, S, is

$$S = W\,(l - w)/l$$

in which W = the load due to wall per foot of length in pounds;
l = the width of footing;
w = the width of base of wall.

Or, since

$W/l = U$ = the unit load on the foundation-bed in pounds per square foot,
$S = U\,(l - w)$

Since U is in terms of feet, l and w also must be in feet. The resistance to shear, R, under the conditions illustrated in Fig. 17, taken for a 1-ft length b of the wall, is determined by the equation

$$R = 2 \times d \times b \times f$$

in which f = the safe resistance of the material to shear, in pounds per square inch;
d = the depth of the footing in inches; and
b = the length of wall considered = 12 in.

Placing $S = R$, we have

$$2\,dbf = U\,(l - w)$$

Or, since $(l - w)/2$ = the projection of the footing

$$UP = 12\,df$$

The depth of the footing, therefore, must not be less than

$$d = UP/12f$$

in which P is in feet.

Shear in Footings of Piers and Columns. FAILURE BY SHEAR is most likely to occur in footings for piers and columns. The FORCE TENDING TO CAUSE SHEAR is the total load on the column or pier less the reaction of the foundation-bed on the area immediately under the column-base. The resistance offered is determined by multiplying the perimeter of the column-base by the depth of the footing and by the allowable unit shear. When the area of the column-base is small, the entire load may be taken as producing shear. When reinforced concrete is used for the footing, there must be a sufficient number of stirrups to take care of the shear. (See Chapters XXIV and XXV.) Where steel beams are employed the cross-section of the beams must be sufficient to take care of the shear, otherwise additional web-plates should be added, as is explained in Chapters XV and XX.

(2) **Failure of Footings by Direct Crushing.** The failure of footings by DIRECT CRUSHING of the materials composing the footings rarely, if ever, occurs. Where, however, the concentrated load, due to a pier or column, is distributed by beams or girders which have thin webs, the webs may fail by BUCKLING. Such beams or girders should have their webs reinforced by vertical STIFFENERS or by additional WEB-PLATES, and the spaces between the beams or girders should be filled with concrete or grout. Where the load transmitted by the column-base exceeds the safe unit load on the material of the footing the area of the column-base may be increased, or a block of granite may be interposed between the concrete or masonry footing and the base of the columns. In this case, however, such granite blocks should be considered as a footing course and designed to resist bending, by formulas hereinafter given.

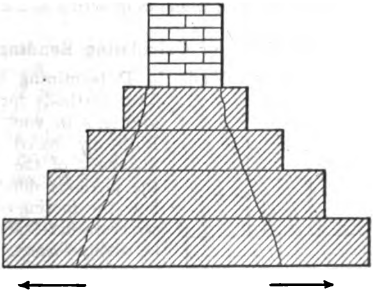

Fig. 18. Failure of Footing by Spreading

(3) **Failure of Footings by Spreading.** Failure of the footings by SPREADING may occur under walls or piers, as shown in Fig. 18, especially when the

foundation-bed is of clay or other yielding material, which has, under the load of the footing, a tendency to FLOW along the lines indicated by arrows in the figure. This tendency should be provided against by making the bottom layer continuous and adequate to resist the tension. Vertical joints, such as are made in footings composed of masonry, are sources of weakness, and should be avoided. The TENDENCY TO SPREAD is greatest in footings having a spread which is wide compared with the width of the superimposed wall or other construction. The writer knows of at least one important footing which has failed in this way, the cracks in general following the joints of the masonry substantially as shown in Fig. 18.

(4) **Failure of Footings by Bending or Rupture.** A footing may fail by BENDING or RUPTURE as a beam or girder. In the case of a wall, if the footing bends, as shown in Fig. 19, the concentration of the load on the lower edges of the wall, as at *E* and *F* may cause the base of the wall to fail. This possibility should be borne in mind in designing footings where the load on the wall approaches the allowable unit load for the material composing it, and especially where the width of the footing is much greater than its own width. If the footing fails by RUPTURE the rupture may occur either under the center line of the wall, as in Fig. 20, or at points close to the outer edge of the wall as in Fig. 21. Fig. 20 illustrates the objection to using a footing course composed of masonry or stones which do not extend the full width of the footing. The joints in such construction prevent the footing course from acting in TENSION and the footing as a whole from acting as a BEAM.

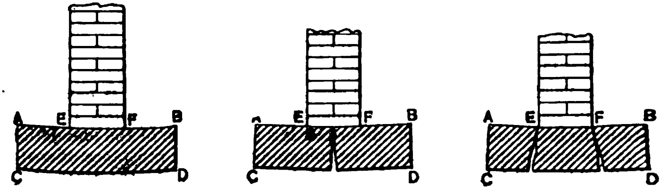

Fig. 19 Fig. 20 Fig. 21

Figs. 19, 20 and 21. Failures of Footings by Bending

20. Methods of Calculating Bending-Stresses in Wall-Footings

Assumptions Made in Determining Bending-Stresses in Footings. Two methods for the calculation of the BENDING-STRESSES IN FOOTING COURSES are in general use. Both are based upon the assumption that the REACTION of the foundation-bed is UNIFORM; but the methods differ in the assumption made as to how the footing course and the base of the superstructure act. Neither assumption can be held to be wholly correct.

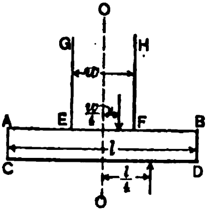

Fig. 22. Bending-stresses in Footings. First Method

The First Method of Determining Bending-Stresses in Footings. This method is based upon the assumption that the pressure of the wall on the footing is uniform over the area and remains so at all times.

If, in Fig. 22, *ABCD* represents a footing course supporting a centrally located wall *EFGH*, and if

W = the load of the wall in pounds per linear foot;
w = the width of the wall in feet;
and l = the width of the footing in feet;

then

$\frac{1}{2}(l-w)$ = the projection AE or FB,

and $W/l = U$ = the unit load per square foot on the foundation-bed.

Considering the forces acting on the right of the center line of the wall for a 1-ft length of wall, it is evident that the uplift on the half-footing OD will equal $\frac{1}{2}W$ and that its CENTER OF ACTION will lie half-way between O and D, or at a distance $\frac{1}{4}l$ from the center line OO; and, similarly, that the load due to one-half the wall will be $\frac{1}{2}W$ and that its CENTER OF ACTION will be at a distance $\frac{1}{4}w$ from the center line OO. The resulting moments will be

$$M_1 = \frac{1}{2}W \times \frac{1}{4}l = \frac{1}{8}Wl$$

and

$$M_2 = \frac{1}{2}W \times \frac{1}{4}w = \frac{1}{8}Ww$$

and as these two moments act in opposite directions, the resultant moment tending to produce bending in the footing will be the difference between the two, or the bending moment at the center line OO is

$$M_0 = M_1 - M_2$$

or

$$M_0 = \frac{1}{8}W(l-w)$$

Or, since

$$W/l = U \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{2}(l-w) = P, \text{ the projection,}$$

Equation (1) may be written in either of the forms

$$\left.\begin{array}{l} M_0 = \frac{1}{8}U(l-w)l \\ \text{or} \quad M_0 = \frac{1}{4}WP \end{array}\right\} \qquad (1)$$

The Error Involved in this first method is due to the assumption that the pressure on the upper surface of the footing remains UNIFORMLY DISTRIBUTED, as if the base of the wall acted as a FLUID, in which case the distribution of the load would remain constant and the formula would be correct. But the base of the wall is not a FLUID, but a SOLID which will resist DEFORMATION. If, as in Fig. 19, the footing course $ABCD$ deflects and the base of the wall is assumed to be incompressible, the entire load of the wall will be communicated to the footing through the edges E and F. While such a concentration is, of course, impossible (as the edges E and F will crush or compress until a considerable area of the base of the wall is in contact with the footing) the result is that the weight of the wall is concentrated near the outer edges of its base. Equation (1) gives results which are too large; but as it errs on the side of safety, it is recommended for general use.

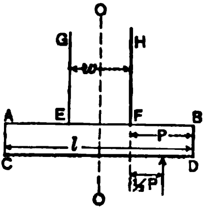

Fig. 23. Bending-stresses in Footings. Second Method

The Second Method of Determining Bending-Stresses in Footings, also in common use, takes into consideration only the projecting portion of the footing as follows:

If in Fig. 23 $ACBD$ represents a footing course supporting a centrally located wall $EFGH$, and if we use the notation of the preceding method, then, if we assume that the footing acts as a FIXED BEAM and the projections AE and FB as CANTILEVERS rigidly supported by the wall, and denote the projection of the footing on either side of the wall by P, the reaction of the foundation-bed on this projecting portion P, per unit length of wall, will be PU. The CENTER OF ACTION of this force will be at a distance $\frac{1}{2}P$ from E or F and its moment at E or F will be

$$M = PU \times \tfrac{1}{2} P = \tfrac{1}{2} UP^2$$

or, since

$$P = \tfrac{1}{2} (l - w)$$

the value of M may be given in the form

$$M = \tfrac{1}{8} U (l - w)^2 \tag{2}$$

The Error Involved in this second method is due to the assumption that the uplift on the projection P can be resisted by the extreme outer edge of the base of the wall. If the uplift on the projecting part is concentrated on the edge, then the edge must either compress or fail by crushing, which, in either case, would throw the center of support for the cantilever back from the edge of the wall; and this is contrary to the assumption used in calculating the moment. This method takes into consideration only the intensity of the reaction or uplift and the length of the projection, and is known as the PROJECTION-METHOD.

Comparison of Results. Comparing the results of the two methods, it will be seen that the load cannot act at the two edges E and F as assumed in Equation (2), nor ordinarily can it be uniformly distributed as assumed in Equation (1), but that the INTENSITY OF THE LOAD PER UNIT OF AREA will vary, being a MINIMUM at the center and a MAXIMUM near the edges of the base of the wall. The exact positions of the CENTERS OF ACTION are affected by various considerations which cannot be fully discussed in this chapter.

New Formula for Determining Bending Moments in Footings. The writer has devised a formula which gives values for the bending moment M half-way between the values given by Equations (1) and (2), and which closely corresponds to the assumption that, considering the forces on either side of the center of the wall, the CENTER OF ACTION of the half-load of the wall is at the center of the half-wall, when the projection equals zero, and, as the projection increases, moves toward a position which is two-thirds of the distance from the center of the wall to its edge. This formula may be expressed as follows:

$$M = \tfrac{1}{8} U (l - w) (l - \tfrac{1}{2} w) \tag{3}$$

Or, substituting the value of U in terms of W,

$$M = \tfrac{1}{8} W (l - w) (1 - w/2l)$$

Weight and Pressure-Units. In practice W, the weight due to the wall, is generally given in pounds per linear foot of wall, and the allowable pressure on the foundation-bed, while frequently given in tons per square foot, should be reduced to pounds per square foot.

The Required Width of the Footing in feet is obtained by dividing the weight of the wall in pounds per linear foot of wall by the allowable unit load on the foundation-bed expressed in pounds per square foot.

Moment-Units. The moment tending to produce rupture may be calculated in foot-pounds or inch-pounds. If in Equations (1), (2) and (3) the dimensions l, w and P are in feet and U is in pounds per square foot, the resulting bending moment will be in foot-pounds per linear foot of wall. As the MOMENT OF RESISTANCE is generally stated in inch-pounds it is more convenient to have the MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT or MOMENT OF RUPTURE* in inch-pounds. Thus, for Equation (1)

---

* In the flexure-formula the moment of resistance is made equal to the bending moment at any cross-section of the footing, and the maximum bending moment is sometimes called the moment of rupture.

$$M \text{ (in inch-pounds per foot of wall)} = 12\,M \text{ in foot-pounds,}$$

or

$$M \text{ (in inch-pounds)} = \tfrac{3}{2}\,U\,(l - w)\,l \qquad (1)'$$

Equation (2) in the same way becomes

$$M \text{ (in inch-pounds)} = \tfrac{3}{2}\,U\,(l - w)^2 \qquad (2)'$$

Or, using the more convenient form,

$$M = \tfrac{1}{2}\,UP^2$$

if we express the projection P in inches, instead of in feet, we will have

$$M \text{ (in inch-pounds per foot of wall)} = \tfrac{1}{24}\,UP^2$$

Similarly, Equation (3) becomes

$$M \text{ (in inch-pounds per foot of wall)} = \tfrac{3}{2}\,U\,(l - w)\,(l - \tfrac{1}{2}\,w). \qquad (3)'$$

Until Equations (3) or (3)′ are more generally accepted, an engineer or designer will avoid criticism and be perfectly safe in using Equation (1), and in the following pages the writer will use Equations (1) or (1)′ unless the contrary is stated.

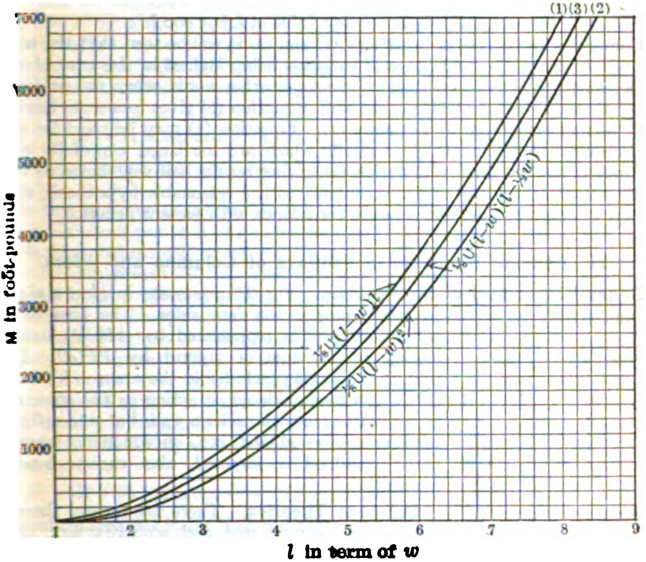

Fig. 24. Graphical Comparison of Bending Moments in Footings

Example. The following is an example illustrating the application of the foregoing formulas:

A 24-in wall transmits to the footing 42 000 lb per linear foot of wall. The allowable unit load on the foundation-bed is 3 600 lb per sq ft. What is the width and required MOMENT OF RESISTANCE* of the footing?

$$42\,000/3\,600 = 11\tfrac{2}{3} \text{ ft}$$

---

* In the flexure-formula the moment of resistance is made equal to the bending moment at any cross-section of the footing, and the maximum bending moment is sometimes called the moment of rupture.

Then, by Equation (1), we have

$$M = \tfrac{1}{8} \times 3\,600\,(11\tfrac{2}{3} - 2)\,11\tfrac{2}{3} = 50\,750 \text{ ft-lb}$$

If Equation (2) is used, we have

$$M = \tfrac{1}{8} \times 3\,600\,(11\tfrac{2}{3} - 2)^2 = 42\,050 \text{ ft-lb}$$

and by Equation (3)

$$M = \tfrac{1}{8} \times 3\,600\,(11\tfrac{2}{3} - 2)\,(11\tfrac{2}{3} - 1) = 46\,400 \text{ ft-lb}$$

Comparing the results we see that the moment by Equation (3) is the average of the moments by Equations (1) and (2).

Graphical Comparison of Bending Moments in Footings. Fig. 24 is a graphical comparison of the moments for varying ratios of l to w calculated by Equations (1), (2) and (3) on the assumption that

w = the width of wall = 1 ft;
U = the unit load on the foundation-bed = 1 000 lb per sq ft; and
$r = l/w$.

The load on the wall, in pounds, for any value of l, is 1 000 l.

Comparing the curves of Equations (1) and (2) it will be seen that the results are widely apart, the percentage of variation being highest in the case of small projections. When l is less than twice w, or in other words, when the projection is less than one-half the width of the wall, Equation (2) gives moments less than half the moments given by Equation (1). Equation (2) may be used for small projections. Equation (1) gives results which are too large, especially where the projections are small. Equation (3), giving results half-way between those of Equations (1) and (2) and in accordance with a reasonable hypothesis, would appear to be preferable, but is not in accordance with present practice.

21. Bending Moments in Footings of Columns and Piers

General Statement of the Problem. Fig. 25 represents in plan a pier or column resting on a footing which projects on four sides. The base of the column or pier is represented by *ABCD*, and the footing and its area of support by *EFGH*. That part of the footing included in the areas *MNOP* and *QRST* can be considered as acting in the same way as projecting footings under a wall, but the uplift on the four corners *EQMA*, etc., on which no superimposed wall-load is imposed, also causes bending moments.

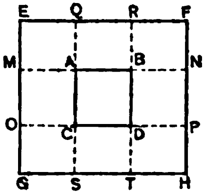

Fig. 25. Plan of Column-footing with Four Equal Projections

Different Theories. There are several theories, more or less complicated and unsatisfactory, as to how the UPLIFT ON THE FOUR CORNER-AREAS should be determined. The discussion of these theories would be out of place in this chapter. In a square footing, the projection is not over one-half the width of the superimposed base, the four corner-areas will not aggregate over 25% of the total area of the footing, and it may then be assumed that the bending moment is the same as if the base of the column or pier extended like a wall across the entire footing, as is shown in Fig. 26. To insure these conditions, when the projection of the footing exceeds ½ w, and in all cases when the footing is not homogeneous, as when a grillage of steel is used, the load of the column must be distributed over the width of the footing by a GIRDER or BOLSTER or by an extension of the column-base. In case the footing is in several layers, each ayer must extend the full width of the underlying layer. With such construction it is evident that the bending moment will be the same as if the GIRDER or OLSTER were a wall and Equation (1) will be applicable.

Bending Moments in Column-Footings. For column-footings Equation (1) can be used, taking the total load in place of the load per foot, and the result will then be the total bending moment.

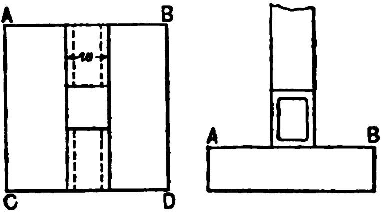

Fig. 26. Column-footing Treated Like Wall-footing

Example. A column carrying 96 tons is to be supported on a square concrete slab. The cast-iron column-base is 2 ft square. The allowable pressure on the foundation-bed is 6 tons per sq ft. What is the MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT in the slab?

The area of support = 96/6 = 16 sq ft = 4 by 4 ft. The projection is ½ (4 − 2) = 1 ft, or one-half the width of the base, and by the foregoing rule we can calculate the bending moment as if the base of the column extended in one direction across the footing. Applying a convenient form of Equation (1)

$$M = \tfrac{1}{8} \times 192\,000 \text{ lb } (4 - 2) = 48\,000 \text{ ft-lb, or } 576\,000 \text{ in-lb}$$

The footing must therefore be of sufficient depth to resist this bending moment.

If in this example the allowable unit pressure on the foundation-bed is 2 tons instead of 6 tons per sq ft the supporting area and the area of the bottom concrete footing course will be 96/2 = 48 sq ft. If the footing course can be a square its dimensions will be, with sufficient exactness, 7 by 7 ft. By the rule given, since the projection exceeds one-half the width of the base, there should be a BOLSTER extending across the footing. The bolster will be, therefore, 7 ft long and may properly be composed of two or more steel beams. The cast-iron base may be dispensed with, in which case the base of the column will be provided with a steel base or with flange-angles. Let us assume that the column-base is 1 ft 6 in square and the width of the bolster 2 ft.

The bending moment in the bolster is determined, then, by Equation (1), using 1½ ft, the width of the column-base, for *w*, and 7 ft, the length of the bolster, for *l*.

$$M = \tfrac{1}{8} \times 192\,000 \, (7 - 1\tfrac{1}{2}) = 132\,000 \text{ ft-lb} = 1\,584\,000 \text{ in-lb}$$

The bending moment in the slab is determined in the same way by Equation (1), using 2 ft, the width of the bolster, for *w*, and 7 ft, the length of the slab, for *l*.

$$M = \tfrac{1}{8} \times 192\,000 \, (7 - 2) = 120\,000 \text{ ft-lb} = 1\,440\,000 \text{ in-lb.}$$

Footings Other Than Square in Plan. In case it is necessary to use some other shape than a square for the supporting area the resulting moments in the slab and bolster will vary from those calculated above. If in the foregoing example the supporting area, for any reason, is necessarily made 6 by 8 ft, giving 48 sq ft as the required area, and if the bolster is parallel with the 6-ft side, the moment in the bolster will be

$$M = \tfrac{1}{8} \times 192\,000 \, (6 - 1\tfrac{1}{2}) = 108\,000 \text{ ft-lb} = 1\,296\,000 \text{ in-lb}$$

and the moment in the slab will be

$$M = \tfrac{1}{8} \times 192\,000 \, (8 - 2) = 144\,000 \text{ ft-lb} = 1\,728\,000 \text{ in-lb}$$

or, the moment in the bolster is less and the moment in the slab is greater than in the case of the 7 by 7-ft supporting area. If the bolster runs parallel with the long side, the moments will be, for the bolster,

$$M = \tfrac{1}{8} \times 192\,000\,(8 - 1\tfrac{1}{2}) = 156\,000 \text{ ft-lb}$$

and for the slab,

$$M = \tfrac{1}{8} \times 192\,000\,(6 - 2) = 96\,000 \text{ ft-lb}$$

In footings having more than two layers, each layer must be investigated separately, using l for the length of the layer which is being determined and w for the width of the superimposed layer.

Compound Footings. In COMPOUND FOOTINGS where, for example, a wall and a column or two or more columns are supported by a single footing, or where loads are cantilevered, the loads will in general be distributed to the supporting area by GIRDERS or CANTILEVERS. The shears and bending moments of such girders or cantilevers must be determined for each case by the methods used in the calculations of beams and girders in Chapters XV and XX.

22. Design of the Footings

Materials used for Footings. To possess the required strength the SAFE MOMENT OF RESISTANCE of the footing must be at least equal to the MOMENT OF RUPTURE, calculated as explained in the preceding paragraphs. Masonry, whether of brickwork or stone, is not generally suitable for any but the lightest buildings, as its tensional strength is low. Concrete, plain or reinforced, or grillages of steel embedded in concrete, are generally employed. (See Chapter III for footings for light buildings.)

Footings of Homogeneous Slabs. If the footing is composed of a SLAB OF HOMOGENEOUS MATERIAL, as a block of granite or other reliable building stone, or a single layer of concrete, the MOMENT OF RESISTANCE is, by the well-known flexure-formula for rectangular cross-sections, $M_r = \frac{1}{6}\, bd^2\, S$ (see Chapters X, XV and XVI) in which

d = the depth or thickness of the footing, in inches;
b = the breadth of the footing, in inches;
S = the allowable unit tensile stress of the material, in pounds per square inch;
M_r = the moment of resistance.

Placing M, the moment of the forces tending to cause rupture, equal to M_r, for a length of wall equal to 1 foot we have

$$b = 12 \text{ in}$$

and

$$d^2 = \tfrac{1}{2}\, M/S \tag{4}$$

Substituting in Equation (4) the value for M in inch-pounds as determined by formulas (1), (2) and (3) and a value for S as given in the following paragraph, the required depth d can be determined.

Safe Tensional Strength for Materials in Footings. The values of S, the ALLOWABLE UNIT TENSILE STRESS, for concrete or stone must include a high FACTOR OF SAFETY, as experiments show wide variations in the tensional strength and in the MODULUS OF RUPTURE or FLEXURAL STRENGTH of such materials. The following values for S in pounds per square inch include a factor of safety of from 8 to 10 and should not be exceeded. (See, also, Table III, page 628, Chapter XVI.)

	S in lbs per sq in
For brickwork or masonry in lime mortar	from 0 to 10
For brickwork or masonry in cement mortar	from 10 to 40
For concrete, 1 : 3 : 6	from 15 to 25
For concrete, 1 : 2½ : 5	from 20 to 40
For concrete, 1 : 2 : 4	from 30 to 50
For sandstone or limestone in monolithic blocks	from 75 to 150
For granite in monolithic blocks	from 100 to 250

Example of Concrete-Footing Design. Concrete Cast as a Unit. A concrete footing course 4 ft wide supports a wall 2 ft thick. The load on the foundation-bed is 28 000 lb per lin ft of wall, or 7 000 lb per sq ft. Assuming a value for S of 35 lb per sq in, what is the required depth for the concrete footing course? The moment of rupture from one form of Equation (1) is

$$M = \tfrac{3}{2}\, W\,(l - w), \quad \text{or} \quad \tfrac{3}{2} \times 28\,000\,(4 - 2) = 84\,000 \text{ in-lb}$$

Substituting in Equation (4)

$$d^2 = \tfrac{1}{2} \times 84\,000/35 = 1\,200, \quad \text{or} \quad d = 35 \text{ in}$$

By Equation (2)' the moment of rupture is

$$M = \tfrac{1}{24}\, UP^2 = \tfrac{1}{24} \times 7\,000 \times 12 \times 12 = 42\,000 \text{ in-lb}$$

and

$$d^2 = \tfrac{1}{2} \times 42\,000/35 = 600, \quad \text{or} \quad d = 24 \text{ in} +$$

The depth determined by Equations (1) or (1)', as previously noted, errs on the side of safety. The result by Equations (2) or (2)' conforms more nearly with usual practice, and as the projection is small compared with the width of the wall, it may be used, or an intermediate value, as determined by Equations (3) or (3)', may be considered amply safe.

Stepped Footings. If the concrete footing is cast in one uninterrupted operation so as to act as a SINGLE GIRDER for its entire depth, a considerable saving of material may be effected by forming steps, as shown in Fig. 27. If the steps are of equal height the total projection should be equally divided between the steps. If the footing is cast in several layers, or if a granite slab is superimposed on a bed of concrete, then each layer must be figured separately and the width of the superimposed layer used in place of w, the width of the wall.

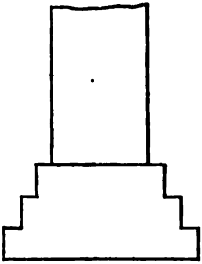

Fig. 27. Concrete Stepped Wall-footing

Caution in Design of Footings of Several Layers. Equation (2) should not be used where the footing consists of several layers, as the error due to the erroneous assumption is cumulative and would result in a serious concentration on the outer edges of the upper layers.

Example of Footings of Several Layers. In the case of footings cast in separate layers the calculations should be made as follows: Let l_1 = the length of the footing having a moment, M. From Equation (1), reduced to inch-pounds,

$$l_1 = \frac{2\,M}{3\,W} + w$$

Having decided on the depth of each layer, say 15 in, and a value of S, say 35 lb, for concrete, then, from the flexure-formula, $M = M_r = \tfrac{1}{6} \times 12 \times 15^2$

× 35 = 15 750 in-lb, which, substituted in the above equation, will give the valu of l_1, or the length of the top course. Having determined l_1, the length of tl second course, l_2, is found in the same way, using l_1 for w, and so on until tl required width of the footing is reached. The dimensions l and w are to l taken in feet.

Comparison of Unit and Separate-Layer Footings. Footings made i separate layers are very uneconomical in the amount of material required, whe compared with those cast in one operation. If the footing in the previou example is designed on the separate-layer basis and the courses assumed to b 15 in thick, their lengths are as follows:

$$l_1 = \frac{2\,M}{3\,W} + w = [(2 \times 15\,750)/(3 \times 28\,000)] + 2 = 2.375 \text{ ft}$$

Also

$$l_2 = 2.75 \text{ ft}, \quad l_3 = 3.125 \text{ ft}, \quad l_4 = 3.50 \text{ ft} \quad \text{and} \quad l_5 = 3.875 \text{ ft}$$

As l_5 is nearly 4 ft, the required length, it may be made so by increasing th thickness of the bottom course to 16 in. The total thickness of the footing i therefore (4 × 15 in) + 16 in = 76 in instead of 35 in, as previously determine by Equation (1) for the footing cast as a unit.

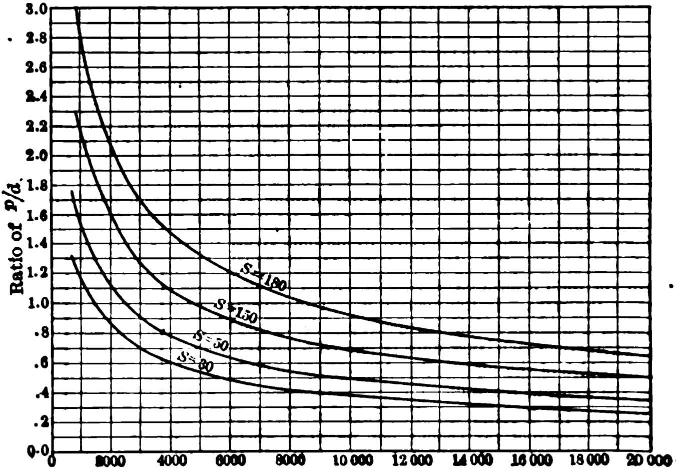

Fig. 28. Diagram Showing Ratio of Projection to Depth of Footings

Rule-of-Thumb Methods for Projections and Steps in Footings. Various ARBITRARY RULES are in use which purport to give for different materials of construction so-called SAFE PROJECTIONS for given depths of footing or to give the SAFE RATIO between the projection and the depth of a footing. These rules ignore the fact that the uplift varies and they are entirely unreliable, although such RULES-OF-THUMB are often incorporated in the building codes of cities. (See Chapter III, page 224.)

Example. The safe projection for offsets in brickwork is frequently given in building codes and in text-books as 3 in for a double course of bricks or fo a depth of about 5 inches, the corresponding ratio being 0.6. If we assume the value of S for brickwork at 20 lb per sq in, this offset will be safe when the uplift is less than 2 666 lb per sq ft, but not safe when the uplift is over 2 666 lb per sq ft.

Ratio of Projection to Depth of Footing. For footings of homogeneous material, however, having a small projection and where Formula (2) can be used safely, it is possible to calculate a so-called SAFE RATIO OF PROJECTION for a given unit load. From Equation (2)′ and Equation (4), derived from the formula for the MOMENT OF RESISTANCE for beams of homogeneous material and rectangular cross-section, the following formula may be derived:

$$p/d = \sqrt{48\,S/U} \qquad (5)$$

in which all dimensions are in inches, S in pounds per square inch, and U in pounds per square foot. The quantity p/d is the ratio of the projection to the depth of the beam or footing. For a given value of S the ratio will vary inversely as the square root of U.

The diagram (Fig. 28) shows curves for different values of S and U from which the ratio of projection to depth of footing may be taken. Thus, for a concrete footing for which the allowable unit stress, S, in tension is, say 30 lb per sq in, if the load, U, on the foundation-bed is 3 000 lb per sq ft, the allowable projection will be 0.69 times the depth of the footing course. If the concrete is 12 in thick, the allowable offset will be 8.3 in. Conversely, for a given offset, say 12 in, when the unit load is 3 000 lb and $S = 30$ lb as before, the required depth will be 1.45 times the offset.

23. Steel Grillages in Foundations*

Advantages in the Use of Steel-Beam Grillages. When it is desirable to avoid the deep excavation required for concrete or masonry footings, and when the load of a wall has to be distributed over a wide area of support, STEEL RAILS or STEEL BEAMS are frequently advantageously used to give the required moment of resistance with a minimum of depth. Steel beams are generally cheaper and preferable to rails, although second-hand rails have frequently been used as an expedient.

Preparing the Bed and Setting the Beams. The foundation-bed should be first covered with a layer of concrete not less than 6 in in thickness and so mixed and compacted as to be as nearly impervious to moisture as possible. The beams should be placed on this layer, the upper surfaces brought to a line and the lower flanges carefully grouted so as to secure an even bearing. Subsequently, concrete should be placed between and around the beams so as to permanently protect them.

Requirements for Steel Grillages. In determining the number and size of the beams for any given footing the following points should be considered:

(1) The beams must resist the MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT, and this without undue DEFLECTION.

(2) The beams must resist the SHEARING-STRESSES, the meeting of which requirement ordinarily provides against CRUSHING.

(3) The beams must not be spaced so far apart that there is danger of the concrete filling between the beams failing to DISTRIBUTE THE LOAD.

(4) The beams must not be spaced so near together as to prevent the placing of concrete between them. The clear space between the flanges of the top layer should preferably be not less than 2 in and should be somewhat more for the lower layers.

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* See pages 678 to 680 for an example of a continuous girder in grillage foundation.

(5) Where the BENDING MOMENT is the governing feature, of two beams of equal weight, the deeper beam should be used. Thus, if the required SECTION-MODULUS is 147, a 20-in 80-lb beam might be used; but a 24-in 80-lb beam is stiffer and stronger in bending.

(6) Where the SHEAR is the governing feature, of two beams of equal weights, the smaller beam is the stronger. Thus, the SHEARING VALUE of a 20-in 80-lb beam is greater than that of a 24-in 80-lb beam and is nearly equivalent to that of a 24-in 90-lb beam. However, on account of the greater STIFFNESS of the deeper beam it is sometimes advisable to use it even though the cost is increased.

Spacing of Beams in Grillage. Table IX gives the LIMITING SPACING for steel beams, based upon the safe capacity of the concrete filling acting as a beam, for loads of from 1 to 6 tons per sq ft. Since, however, in such small spans there is considerable ARCHING EFFECT, the concrete will safely distribute the load on larger spans than those given in the table, provided a sufficient number of tie-rods of proper size are used to take up the THRUST of the arches.

Table IX. The Limiting Spacing for Steel Beams Used With Concrete Filling

Depths of beams	Spacing of beams for the following pressures per square foot											
	1 ton		2 tons		3 tons		4 tons		5 tons		6 tons	
in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
6	1	3	0	11	0	10	0	9	0	8	0	7
7	1	6	1	1	0	11	0	10	0	9	0	8
8	1	8	1	3	1	1	0	11	0	10	0	9
9	1	11	1	5	1	2	1	0	0	11	0	10
10	2	1	1	6	1	4	1	2	1	1	1	0
12	2	5	1	10	1	6	1	4	1	3	1	2
15	3	0	2	3	1	10	1	8	1	6	1	5
18	3	8	2	8	2	3	1	11	1	9	1	8
20	4	0	2	11	2	5	2	2	1	11	1	10
24	4	9	3	6	2	11	2	7	2	4	2	2

The Design of a Wall-Footing of steel beams is illustrated by the following example: A 24-in wall carries 42 000 lb per lin ft. What should be the size and spacing of steel beams to distribute the load over the foundation-bed at 3 600 lb per sq ft? The required width of the footing is 42 000/3 600 = 11 ft 8 in and the bending moment by Equation (3) is 556 800 in-lb per lin ft of wall. The amount of shear, by the formula given on page 170, is $S = W(l-w)/l$, or 34 800 lb. As the beams are in double shear the single shear per linear foot of wall is 17 400 lb. The required section-modulus per linear foot of wall is obtained by dividing the bending moment by the allowed fiber-stress in the steel, or 556 800/16 000 (assumed fiber-stress) = 34.8. By referring to Table IV, page 355, giving the section-moduli of steel beams we find that a 12-in 31½-lb beam has a section-modulus of 36. To satisfy the condition of bending, the beams must not be spaced more than 36/34.8 = 1.03 ft, center to center. To satisfy the condition of web-crippling due to direct compression, the unit compressive stress must not exceed the value of S_b, Table II, page 575, which, for a 12-in 31½-lb beam, is 13 060 lb per sq in. The area of the beam resisting compression is the length over which the load is distributed, times the web-thickness. Some authorities consider that the load is distributed over a length equal to the loaded portion of the beam plus one-half the depth of the beam, but in this and the following example the length of only the loaded portion is taken. In this case the area is therefore 24 × 0.35 = 8.4 sq in. If the beams are spaced 1.03 ft on centers the unit direct compression is 42 000 × 1.03/8.4 = 5 150 lb, which is well within the allowed stress given by Table II, page 575. To satisfy the condition of web-crippling due to shear, the shearing-stress must not exceed the value as derived from the formula for allowable shear. (See, in Chapter XV, paragraphs and foot-notes relating to Buckling of Beam-Webs and to the illustrative Example 15 in that chapter.) The approximate, allowed, unit shearing value may be obtained by dividing the value of S_b (Table II, page 575) by the factor *F*, the values of which are given in Table IXa, following. For example, for a 12-in 31½-lb beam this shearing value = 13 060/1.65 = 7 915 lb per sq in. The shearing capacity of the beam is obtained by multiplying this unit stress by the depth of beam times the web-thickness, or 7 915 × 12 × 0.35 = 33 240 lb, or much more than required. Only one of the conditions of web-crippling need be considered by applying the following rule: If the shear divided by the depth of the beam is greater than the total load divided by the product of the distance (over which the load is distributed) by the factor *F*, investigate for shear; if otherwise, investigate for direct compression. This rule may also be expressed as follows: According as $(l - w)/l$ is greater or less than $2\ D/w'F$, investigate for shear or for compression. Here l = length of beam, w = loaded portion of beam, D = depth of beam, w' = length of beam over which the load is assumed to be distributed (often taken = $w + \frac{1}{2} D$) and F = the factor for the given beam obtained from Table IXa. All dimensions must be taken in the same unit. If, instead of the 12-in beams, 15-in 42-lb beams, having a section-modulus of 58.9 are used, the spacing will be 58.9/34.8 = 1.7 ft nearly, say 1 ft 8 in. By referring to Table IX, page 182, it is seen that the spacing of the beams is well within the safe limit of the concrete and no tie-rods are necessary.

Table IXa. Values of Factor F* for Shearing Values for Various Beams

Beams	For standard-weight beams	For heavy-weight beams
12-in beam	1.65	1.52
15-in beam	1.71	1.50
18-in beam	1.76	1.58
20-in beam	1.77	1.62
24-in beam	1.91	1.67

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* The factors, *F*, which have been deduced to be used in connection with S_b, Table II, pages 574–5, to give the safe unit shearing value based on web-crippling, will help greatly in investigations of shears in case tables of safe shears are not obtainable. It is to be noted, however, that the values derived from the use of *F* are approximate only, as this factor is a little different for every beam; and to give its value for every beam would require as much space as complete tables of safe shears. The values of *F* are not given for the new sections of light beams as they are not usually good sections for grillages. It may be mentioned that the standard weight for each size of beam for which *F* is given is always the next weight higher than the minimum weight given in Table II, pages 574–5, except for the 20-in beams, for which the minimum weight, 65 lb, is also the standard weight. The rule given above for determining whether web-crippling based on shear or on direct compression is the determining condition eliminates one of the calculations to be made in investigating grillages.

The Design of a Column-Footing of steel beams is illustrated by the following example: A column carries 576 tons. The allowable pressure on the foundation-bed is 3 tons per sq ft. What should be the arrangement, number and size of the steel beams composing the grillage? The required area of support = 576/3 = 192 sq ft. In order to make the problem as general as possible let it be supposed that practical considerations limit the width of the footing to 12 ft. The dimensions of the concrete mat on which the lower layer of beams rests will be 12 by 16 ft. By referring to the diagram (Fig. 28) we find that if the mat is made 12 in thick an offset of 6 in is permissible. The dimensions of the lower layer of beams will therefore be 11 by 15 ft. A suitable grillage for the given conditions may be designed of two or of three layers. If two layers are used the length of the top beams will be 11 ft. Assuming the column-base = 30 in, the loaded portion = 2½ ft, and by Formula (1), the bending moment* = ¼ × 1 152 000 lb × (11 − 2½) × 12 × ½ = 14 688 000 in-lb, from which the required section-modulus (at 16 000-lb maximum fiber-stress) = 918. By referring to Table IV, Chapter X, five 24-in 90-lb beams have a section-modulus of 932.5 and consequently satisfy the condition of bending. By applying the rule given in the preceding paragraph for the design of a wall-footing, to see if web-crippling due to shear or to compression is to be investigated, $(l - w)/l = 0.773$ and $2\,D/w'F = 0.958$, which, being greater than 0.773, shows that the beams should be investigated for web-crippling due to compression, by the method explained in the previous example. It will be found that the five 24-in 90-lb beams also satisfy this condition and will therefore be used. Their flange-width is about 7⅛ in, so they should be spaced about 9¼ in on centers, requiring the length of the column-base to be about 3 ft 9 in. The calculation for the lower layer is similar, the length of the beams being 15 ft and the loaded portion, 3 ft 9 in. It is rarely necessary to investigate the lower layer for web-crippling, the condition of bending, except for the top layer, being usually the governing feature. If, owing to conditions of bending, it is not practicable to make the beams of the top layer sufficiently long to extend across the required width of the concrete mat, it is then necessary to make the grillage of three layers. The calculation for a three-layer grillage for the same problem as the preceding is as follows:

Calculation of the Top Layer. For web-crippling due to compression, 1 152 000 lb = $S_b \times w' \times t \times n$, where S_b = the allowable unit stress, w' = the length of beam over which the load is assumed to be distributed, t = the web-thickness and n = the number of beams. Referring to Table II, Chapter XV, and assuming a 20-in 75-lb beam to be used, S_b = 13 660 lb per sq in and t = 0.649 in. Taking w' = 30 in (the width of the column-base), 13 660 × 30 × 0.649 = 265 960 lb and the value for five beams is 1 329 800 lb, which is more than enough. But it is found that five 20-in 70-lb beams would not be sufficient. It will be economical to make these beams of the greatest length for which they will resist bending. The section-modulus of one beam is 126.9; and the total M_r = 5 × 126.9 × 16 000 (assumed fiber-stress). This may be determined, also, by Formula (1) in which $M = \frac{1}{4}WP$. From these equations the projection P = 35¼ in, and the length of the beams is therefore (2 × 35¼) + 30 (the width of the base) = 100½ in, or approximately 8 ft 4 in. By applying the foregoing rule to see if web-crippling due to shear must be considered, (100 − 30)/100 = 0.7 which is less than 40/(30 × 1.62) = 0.82, and the shear need not be investigated.

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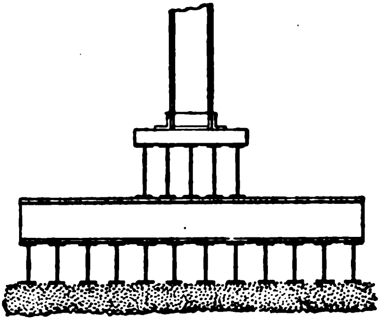
[*] It is to be noted that the bending moment is the same as for a beam uniformly loaded with 576 tons on a span of 8½ ft, $(l - w)$, and that the number and size of the required beams may be taken from the tables giving the safe loads of beams. See Table IV, Chapter XV.

The width of the flanges of these beams is nearly 6½ in, so that they should spaced from 8½ to 9 in, thus making the required length of column-base out 3 ft 6 in.

Calculation of the Second Layer. Since the length of the top layer is limited ft 4 in and the width of the lowest layer is 11 ft, it will be necessary to have termediate layer. This cover the area given by length of beams of the top er and the width of the er layer, or 8 ft 4 in by 11 The beams will of course at right-angles to those of top layer, so their length be 11 ft, and they are to so spaced as not to exceed 4 in. Since the width of top course is 3½ ft, their ection is (11 ft − 3½ ft)/2 ft, the amount of single is 1 152 000 × 3.75/11 = 720 lb and the bending ent is ¼ × 1 152 000 × 45 = 12 960 000 in-lb. Using 00 lb as the fiber-stress the ired section-modulus is By referring to Table , Chapter X, for section-li and determining the imum shear as above ex-ned, we find that ten 15-in beams will have a total -modulus of 812, and will also be ample for ar. Furthermore, ten s spaced to cover a width ft 4 in will give a spacing, ter to center of beams, of ut 10 in, which is sufficient. it would be better, however, use ten 18-in 55-lb beams.



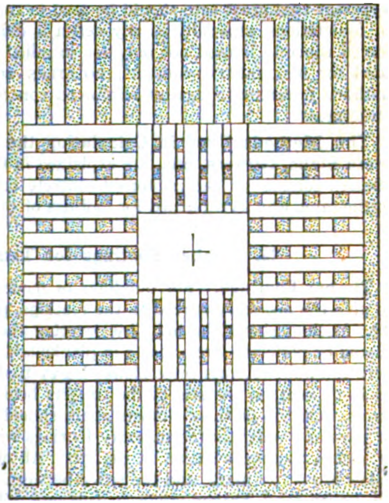


Fig. 29. Steel-beam Grillage Column-footing

Calculation of the Bottom Layer. Taking the effective th of the middle layer as ft, the projection of the eams is (15 ft − 8 ft)/2 = 3½ ft. Then similarly to the above, the shear = 268 800 lb. M = 12 096 000 in-lb, from which the section-modulus = 756, and thirteen 15-in 42-lb beams, spaced 10½ on centers, will be required, or two 15-in 60-lb beams and ten 15-in 42-lb beams may be used, increasing the spacing between the beams. In this case the heavy beams should be placed nearest to the center of the footing. This grillage is illustrated in Fig. 29.

24. Reinforced-Concrete Footings

Advantages and Disadvantages. Reinforced concrete has in recent year been largely used for footings. The arguments in favor of its use are:

(1) Low cost of the footing-construction;

(2) Reduction in the amount of excavation required;

(3) Convenience, as compared with the use of steel-beam grillages, in tha the reinforcing-steel is readily obtainable, can be cut to length on the work and handled without derricks.

The objections urged are:

(1) Danger of defective workmanship, as the strength of the footing depends upon the proper mixing and placing of the concrete, the proper placing of the reinforcement and the complete union of the concrete with the reinforcement. The danger of defective workmanship is increased by reason of the usual difficulties of foundation-work, in that water and mud are generally present and the difficulty of careful work and inspection is greater.

(2) Danger of the deterioration of the steel reinforcement either by rusting or by electrolysis. This danger is increased by the presence of moisture and by the relatively small cross-section of the reinforcing-bars. In this connection it is well to remember that in reinforced-concrete girders as usually designed the concrete on the tension side is stressed beyond its elastic limit, as a result of which, numerous fine cracks are developed under the figured load.

Use of Reinforced Concrete for Foundations. From the foregoing it is apparent that great care should be used in connection with reinforced concrete in foundations, especially as any defect is difficult to detect or repair. Reinforced concrete is used not only for so-called MATS or SLABS but is frequently used for DISTRIBUTING-GIRDERS, BOLSTERS and even for CANTILEVERS. The author's preference is against reinforced concrete for foundations for important structures.

The Methods Used in Calculating the Strength of Reinforced-Concrete Slabs, Girders, etc., are explained in Chapters XXIV and XXV. The stresses coming on the reinforced-concrete construction are to be determined in the same way as explained for footings of other materials.

25. Timber Footings for Temporary Buildings

Timber Footings. For buildings of moderate height timber may be used to give the necessary spread to the footings, provided water is always present. The footings should be built by covering the bottom of the trenches, which should be perfectly level, with 2-in planks laid close together and longitudinally with the wall. Across these planks heavy timbers should be laid, spaced about 12 in on centers, the size of the timbers being proportioned to the transverse stress. On top of these timbers again should be spiked a floor of 3-in planks of the same width as the masonry footings which are laid upon it. A section of such a footing is shown in Fig. 30. All of the timber-work must be kept below low-water mark, and the space between the transverse timbers should be filled with sand, broken stone, or concrete. The best woods for such foundations are oak, long-leaf yellow pine and Norway pine. Many of the old buildings in Chicago rest on timber footings.

Calculations for the Sizes of the Cross-Timbers. The sizes of the transverse timbers should be computed by the following formula:

$$\text{Breadth in inches} = \frac{2 \times w \times p^2 \times s}{d^2 \times A},$$

r representing the bearing resistance of the foundation-bed in pounds per square foot, *p* the projection of the transverse timbers beyond the 3-in planks, in feet, *s* the distance on centers of the timbers in feet, and *d* the assumed depth of the beam in inches. *A* is the constant for strength. The values recommended for it are 67 for long-leaf yellow pine and white oak, 44 for Norway pine, and 39 for common white pine or spruce. (See Table II, page 628.)

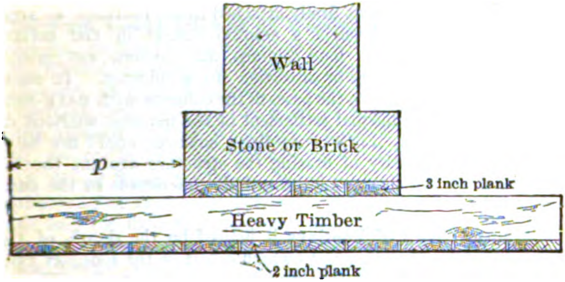


Fig. 30. Spread Footing of Timber

Example. The side walls of a given building impose on the foundation a pressure of 20 000 lb per lin ft; the soil will only support, without excessive settlement, 2 000 lb per sq ft. It is decided for economy to build the footings as shown in Fig. 30, using long-leaf yellow-pine timber. What should be the size of the transverse timbers?

Solution. Dividing the total pressure per linear foot by 2 000 lb, we have 10 ft for the width of the footings. The masonry footing we will make of granite or other hard stone, 4 ft wide, and solidly bedded on the planks in Portland, cement mortar. The projection *p* of the transverse beams will then be 3 ft. We will space the beams 12 in on centers, so that $s = 1$, and will assume 10 in for the depth of the beams. Then, by the formula,

$$\text{the breadth in inches} = \frac{2 \times 2000 \times 9 \times 1}{100 \times 67} = 5.37 \text{ in}$$

and we should use 6 by 10-in timbers, spaced 12 in on centers. If spruce timber were used we should substitute 39 for 67, and the result would be a little over 9 in.

Foundations for Temporary Buildings. When temporary buildings are to be built on a compressible soil, the foundations may, in some parts of the country, be constructed more cheaply of timber than of any other material, and in such cases the durability of the timber need not be considered, as when it is sound it will last two or three years in almost any place, if thorough ventilation is provided. The World's Fair buildings at Chicago (1893) were, as a rule, supported on timber platforms, proportioned so that the maximum load on the soil would not exceed 1¼ tons per sq ft. Only in a few places over MUD-HOLES were pile foundations used.*

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* A description of the foundations of these buildings may be found on page 70 of Building Construction and Superintendence, Part I, Masons' Work, by F. E. Kidder. The values given there to the term *A* of the formula are larger than those used in this edition of the Pocket-Book and are still allowed by some building codes.

26. General Conditions Affecting Foundations and Footings

General Considerations. Where the footings of a building rest on wet sand or on clay, it is important that any movement of the material forming the foundation-bed be prevented if possible. In many cases it is advisable to connect all footings with a concrete floor to prevent any uplift of the foundation-bed between the footings. Where unequal settlement is apprehended it is inadvisable to have long columns firmly attached to the footings, as any unequal settlement of the footings develops a bending-stress in the column; such bending-stresses, in the case of long columns, may become extremely serious, resulting possibly in the rupture or distortion of the columns. In such cases it has even been proposed to design the bases of the columns with ball-and-socket joints which would allow unequal settlement of the footings without distortion or bending of the columns. Such connections, however, could not be generally used because of the necessity of bracing the structure against the horizontal pressure of the wind, but they would be entirely practicable in the case of long interior columns.

The Minimum Depth of Footings is limited by the depth of the cellar, by the requirements of the cellar as to whether part of the footings can project above the cellar-floor level, and by the depth of the footing itself. The minimum depth will be advantageously exceeded if, by a slight increase in depth, a material capable of sustaining a higher unit load is found on which to rest the footings; or if, as explained in previous articles of this chapter, greater security is afforded by locating the footing at a greater depth. These considerations will influence the design of a footing and in all cases should be taken into consideration. In some cases it may be cheaper to abandon the use of a spread footing of any type and resort to piles or masonry construction going to rock or to some other solid substratum. Where there is any question on this point, careful comparison should be made of the advantages and costs of the two methods. In general, however, it will be cheaper to spread footings immediately below the cellar-excavation level than to employ any of the various deep-foundation methods.

Deep Foundations are necessary when the material at the level at which spread footings would ordinarily be constructed is not suitable, or in case it is desirable for any reason to carry the foundations of the building down to an underlying stratum of greater supporting power. Recourse must then be had to one or more of the following expedients:

(1) Wooden piles;

(2) Concrete piles;

(3) Piers or walls constructed in pits or trenches, or by other methods, and going down to the required depth to reach a solid stratum.

27. Wooden-Pile Foundations

The Use of Wooden Piles. When it is required to build upon a compressible soil that is constantly saturated with water and of considerable depth, the most practicable method of obtaining a solid and enduring foundation for buildings of moderate height is by driving wooden piles. Many buildings in the city of Boston, Mass., and several tall office-buildings of New York City and Chicago, rest on wooden piles, and they are extensively used for supporting buildings, grain-elevators, etc., erected along the water-front of coast and lake cities. The durability of wooden piles in ground constantly saturated with water is beyond question, as they have been found in a perfectly sound condition after the lapse of from six to seventeen centuries.

Municipal Requirements. The laws of Boston require that wooden piles al be capped with block-granite levelers or with Portland-cement concrete, at that the spacing shall not exceed 3 ft between centers. The laws of Chicago uire that wooden piles shall be driven to rock or hard-pan and capped with age of timber, concrete, or steel, or a combination of these. The laws of York specify a minimum diameter of 5 inches and a maximum spacing of et between centers.

The Maximum Loads Allowed on Wooden Piles in various cities are as ws: **Atlanta, 20 tons**; Philadelphia, 20 tons; Buffalo, 25 tons; Minneapolis, ns; **Richmond, 25 tons**; St. Louis, as many tons as the piles will safely port; Chicago, 25 tons; Louisville, 20 tons; St. Paul, 25 tons; New York, ns; Portland, Ore., 25 tons; Cleveland, 25 tons. Most of the above cities limit the allowed load by Wellington's formula which is hereinafter given page 193, under the heading, Bearing-Power of Piles.

Kinds of Wood Used for Piles. Wooden piles are made from the trunks ees and should be as straight as possible and not less than 5 in in diameter the small end for light buildings, or 8 in for heavy buildings. The woods erally used for piles are spruce, hemlock, white pine, Norway pine, long-leaf short-leaf yellow pine, pitch-pine, cypress, Douglas fir, and occasionally oak, ory, elm, black-gum and basswood. There does not appear to be much erence in the woods as to bility under water, but the der and stronger woods are e preferred, especially where piles are to be driven to -pan and heavily loaded.

Preparing Wooden Piles Driving. The piles should PREPARED FOR DRIVING by ng off all limbs close to the nk and sawing the ends are. It is probably better remove the bark, although es are more often driven with e bark on, and it is doubtful if e bark makes much difference e way or the other. For ving in soft and silty soils, perience has shown that the les drive better with a square int. When the penetration is ss than 6 in at each blow the p of the pile should be protected from BROOMING by putting on an IRON RING, about 1 in ss in diameter than the head of e pile, and from 2½ to 3 in ide by ⅝ in thick. The head should be chamfered to fit the ring. When driven into compact soil, such as sand, gravel, or stiff clay, the point of the pile should be SHOD with iron or steel. The method shown at *A*, Fig. 31, nswers very well for all but very hard soils, and for these a CAST CONICAL POINT about 5 in in diameter, secured by a long DOWEL, with a RING around the end of the pile, as shown at *B*, makes the best shoe. Piles that are to be driven in or

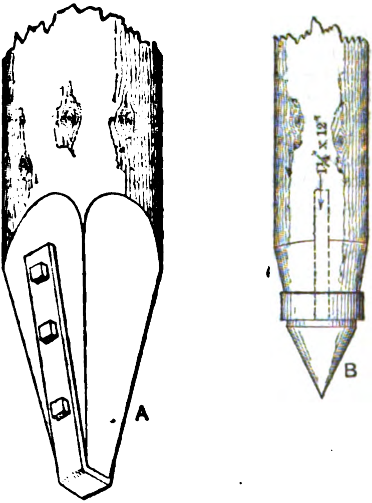

Fig. 31. Points of Wooden Piles Prepared for Driving

exposed to salt water should be thoroughly impregnated with creosote, dead o or coal-tar, or some mineral poison to protect them from the TEREDO or SHI WORM, which will completely honeycomb an ordinary pile in three or four year

Driving Wooden Piles with the Drop-Hammer. The piles should alwa be driven to an even bearing, which is determined by the PENETRATION und the last four or five blows of the hammer. The usual method of driving pil for the support of buildings is by a succession of blows given with a block cast iron or steel, called the HAMMER, which slides up and down between th uprights of a machine called a PILE-DRIVER. The machine is placed over th pile, so that the hammer descends fairly on its head, the piles always bein driven with the small end down. The hammer is generally raised by steam-powe and is dropped either automatically or by hand. The usual weight of th hammers used for driving piles for building foundations is from 1 500 to 2 500 lb and the fall varies from 5 to 20 ft, the last blows being given with a short fall Occasionally, hammers weighing up to 4 000 pounds and over are used.

Driving Wooden Piles with the Steam-Hammer. Steam-hammers* are to a considerable extent taking the place of the ordinary drop-hammers i large cities, as they will drive many more piles in a day, and with less damag to the piles. The steam-hammer delivers short, quick blows, from sixty t seventy to the minute, and seems to jar the piles down, the short interval between the blows not giving time for the soil to settle around them.† In driving piles care should be taken to keep them plumb, and when the penetration becomes small, the fall should be reduced to about 5 ft, the blows being given in rapid succession. Whenever a pile refuses to sink under several blows, before reaching the average depth, it should be cut off and another pile driven beside it. When several piles have been driven to a depth of 20 ft or more and refuse to sink more than ½ in under five blows of a 1 200-pound hammer falling 15 ft, it is useless to try them further, as the additional blows only result in brooming and crushing the heads and points of the piles, and splitting and crushing the intermediate portions to an unknown extent.

Spacing Wooden Piles. Piles should be spaced not less than 2 ft nor more than 3 ft, on centers, unless iron, wooden, or reinforced-concrete grillage is used. When long piles are driven closer than 2 ft on centers there is danger that they may force each other up from their solid bed on the bearing stratum. Driving the piles close together also breaks up the ground and diminishes the bearing power. When three rows of piles are used the most satisfactory spacing is 2 ft 6 in on centers across the trench and 3 ft on centers longitudinally, provided this number of piles will carry the weight of the building. If they will not, then the piles must be spaced closer together longitudinally, or another row of piles driven; but in no case should the piles be less than 2 ft apart on centers, unless driven by means of a water-jet. The number of piles under the different portions of the building should be proportioned to the weight which they are to support, so that each pile will receive very nearly the same load.

Capping Wooden Piles. The tops of the piles should invariably be cut off at or a little below low water-mark, otherwise they will soon commence to decay. They should then be capped, either with large stone blocks, or concrete, or with timber or steel grillage.

Granite Capping. Wooden piles are sometimes capped with block-granite LEVELERS which rest directly on the tops of the piles. If the stone does not fit the surface of the pile, or a pile is a little low, it is wedged up with oak or stone wedges. In capping with stone a section of the foundation should be laid out on the drawings showing the arrangement of the capping stones. A single stone may rest on one, two, or three, but not on four piles, nor on three piles in a straight line, as in the two last-mentioned cases it is practically impossible to make the stones bear evenly. Fig. 32 shows the best arrangement of the capping for three rows of piles. Under dwellings and light buildings the piles are often driven in two rows, STAGGERED, in which case each stone should rest on three piles. After the piles are capped, large footing stones, extending in single pieces across the wall, should be laid in cement mortar on the capping. Fig. 33 shows a partial piling-plan, with the arrangement of the capping stones, of the Boston Chamber of Commerce Building. It may be seen that most of the stones rest on three piles, and a very few on two piles.

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* See Table XI, page 204.

† The 5 000 piles, averaging 48 ft in net length, under the Chicago Post Office were driven with a steam-hammer weighing 4 400 lb and delivering 60 blows per minute.

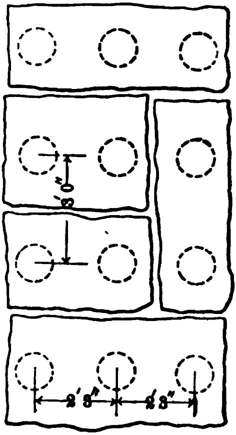

Fig. 32. Stone Capping for Three Rows of Wooden Piles

Concrete Capping. In New York City a very common method of capping is to excavate to a depth of 1 ft below the tops of the piles and 1 ft outside of them and to fill the space thus excavated solid with Portland-cement concrete, deposited in layers and well rammed. After the concrete is brought level with the tops of the piles additional layers are deposited over the whole width of the foundation until the concrete attains a depth of 18 in above the piles. On this foundation brick or stone footings are laid as on solid earth. If long bars of twisted steel, about ¾ in square in cross-section are embedded in the concrete about 3 in above the tops of the piles, the construction makes, in the opinion of the author, the best form of capping, the twisted bars giving great transverse strength to the concrete.

Timber-Grillage Capping. Most of the pile foundations of Chicago have heavy timber grillages bolted to the tops of the piles and stone or concrete footings laid on top of the grillages. The timbers for the grillages should be at least 10 by 10 in in cross-section, and should have sufficient transverse strength to sustain the load from center to center of piles, using a low fiber-stress. They should be laid longitudinally on top of the piles and fastened to them by means of DRIFT-BOLTS, which are plain bars of iron, either round or square in section, and driven into holes about 20% smaller in section than the bolts themselves. Round or square bars 1 in in section are generally used, the holes being bored by a ¾-in auger for the round bolts and by a ⅞-in auger for the square bolts. The bolts should enter the piles at least 1 ft. If heavy stone or concrete footings are used and the space between the piles and timbers is filled with concrete level with the tops of the timbers, no more timbering is required; but if the footings are made of small stones and no concrete is used, a solid floor of cross-timbers, at least 6 in thick for heavy buildings, should be laid on top of the longitudinal capping and drift-bolted to them. Where timber grillage is used it should, of course, be kept entirely below the lowest recorded water-line, as otherwise it will rot and allow the building to settle. It has been proved conclusively, however, that any kind of sound timber will last practically forever if completely immersed in water.

The Advantages of Timber Grillage are that it is easily laid and effectuall holds the tops of the piles in place. It also tends to distribute the pressur evenly over the piles, as the transverse strength of the timber will help to carr the load over a single pile, which for some reason may not have the same bearing capacity as the others. Steel beams, embedded in concrete, are sometimes used to distribute the weight over piles, but some other form of construction can generally be employed at less expense and with equally good results.*

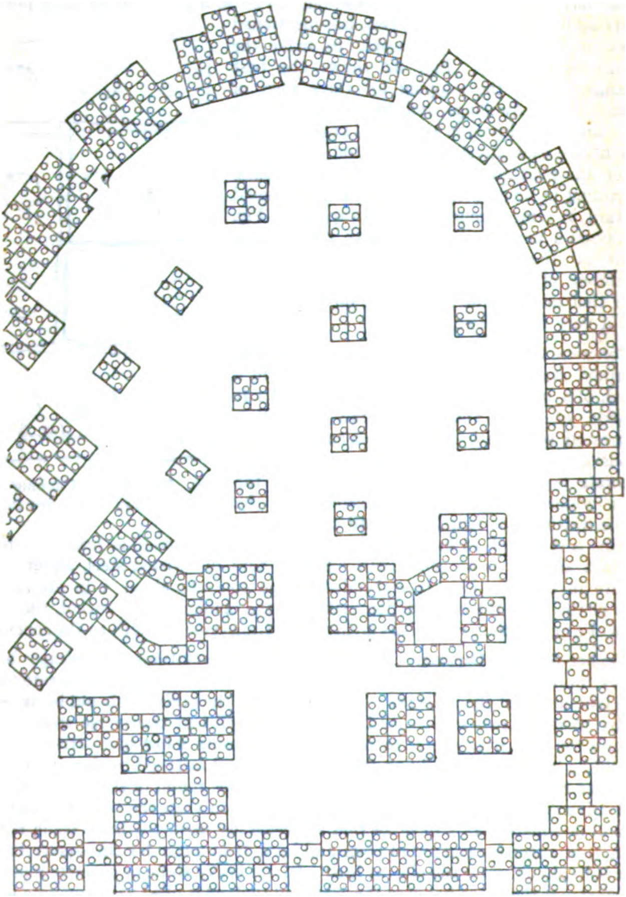

Fig. 88. Piling-plan, Chamber of Commerce Building, Boston, Mass.

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* For a description of the pile foundations and capping of the Chicago Post Office, see Freitag's Architectural Engineering, pages 350 to 352.

Specifications for Wooden-Pile Foundations. This contractor is to furnish and drive the piles indicated on sheet No. 1.

The piles are to be of sound spruce (hemlock, long-leaf yellow pine) perfectly straight from end to end, trimmed close, and cut off square to the axis at both ends.

They are to be not less than 6 in in diameter at the small end, 10 in at the large end, when cut off, and of sufficient length to reach solid bottom, the necessary length of piles to be determined by driving test-piles in different parts of the foundation.

All piles are to be driven vertically, in the exact positions shown by the plan, until they do not move more than 5 in under the last five blows of a hammer weighing 2 000 lb and falling 20 ft. All split or shattered piles are to be removed if possible and a good one driven in place of each imperfect one. In cases where such piles cannot be removed an additional pile is to be driven for each imperfect one. If the piles show a tendency to BROOM, they are to be bound with wrought-iron rings, 2½ in wide and ½ in thick.

All piles, when driven to the required depth, are to be sawed off square for a horizontal bearing at the grade indicated on the drawings.

The Bearing Power of Piles. In regard to their use for supporting buildings, piles may be divided into two classes: (1) Those which are driven to ROCK or HARD-PAN, that is, firm GRAVEL or CLAY and (2) those which do not reach HARD-PAN.

(1) A pile belonging to this class when driven through a soil that is sufficiently firm to brace the pile at every point, may be computed to sustain a load equal to the safe resistance to crushing on the least cross-section. If the surrounding soil is plastic the bearing power of the pile will be its safe load computed as a column, having a length equal to the length of the pile when capped. Test-piles driven on the site of the Chicago Public Library Building, through 27 ft of soft, plastic clay, 23 ft of tough, compact clay and 2 ft into hard-pan, sustained a load of 50.7 tons per pile for two weeks without apparent settlement. There are many instances where piles driven to the depth of 20 ft in hard clay sustain from 20 to 40 tons, and a few instances where they sustain up to 80 tons per pile.

(2) A pile belonging to this class depends for its bearing power upon the FRICTION, COHESION and BUOYANCY of the soil into which it is driven. The safe load for such piles is usually determined by the average penetration of the pile under the last four or five blows of the hammer. Several engineers have formulated rules for determining the safe loads for piles of this class, but there are so many conditions that modify the amount of the penetration, and its exact determination, and so many varying conditions of driving and of soil, that it is considered impossible to formulate any rule that can be considered entirely satisfactory for all the conditions under which such piles are driven.

The Engineering News Formula. The formula generally used by engineers was derived by M. A. Wellington, and is often referred to as the ENGINEERING NEWS FORMULA:

$$\text{The safe load in tons} = 2wh/(S+1)$$

in which

w = the weight of the hammer in tons;
h = the height of fall of the hammer in feet;
S = the penetration in inches under the last blow or the average under the last five blows.

When loads are based on this formula the piles should be driven until the penetration does not exceed the limit assumed, or if this is found to be impracticable, new calculations must be made based on the smallest average penetration that can be obtained, and a greater number of piles used. In localities where piling is commonly used for foundations, the least penetration that can be obtained within practical limits of length of pile can generally be ascertained by observation, or by consulting somebody who is experienced in driving piles. The longer the pile the less, as a rule, will be the final SET or penetration. Where there is no experience to guide one it will be necessary to drive a few piles to determine the length of pile required, or the least SET for a given length of pile. Some piles will have to be driven further than others to bring them to bearings of equal resistance. When the piles are to be loaded to more than 50% of the assumed safe load, the final set of each pile should be carefully measured by an inspector, the BROOM and SPLINTERS being removed from the head of the pile for the last blow.

Safe Loads for Piles. Table X, computed by the above formula, gives the safe loads for different penetrations, under different falls of a hammer weighing 1 ton. FOR A HAMMER OF DIFFERENT WEIGHT multiply the safe load in the table by the actual weight of the hammer in tons. Thus, for a hammer weighing 1 000 lb, the values in the table should be multiplied by ½ and for a 1 500-lb hammer, by ¾.

Table X. Safe Loads in Tons for Piles

For hammer weighing 1 ton

Penetration of pile in inches	Height of the fall of the hammer in feet												
	3	4	5	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	25	30
0.25	4.8	6.4	8.1	9.7	12.9	16.1	19.4	22.5	25.8	29.1	32.3	...	...
0.50	4.0	5.3	6.7	8.0	10.7	13.3	16.1	18.7	21.3	24.0	26.6	33.3	...
0.75	3.4	4.6	5.7	6.9	9.2	11.5	13.8	16.1	18.4	20.7	23.0	28.8	34.5
1.00	3.0	4.0	5.0	6.0	8.0	10.0	12.0	14.0	16.0	18.0	20.0	25.0	30.0
1.25	..	3.6	4.5	5.4	7.1	8.9	10.7	12.5	14.3	16.1	17.9	22.3	26.7
1.50	..	3.2	4.0	4.8	6.4	8.0	9.6	11.2	12.8	14.4	16.0	20.0	24.0
1.75	..	..	3.6	4.4	5.8	7.3	8.8	10.2	11.7	13.1	14.6	18.2	21.9
2.00	..	..	3.3	4.0	5.3	6.7	8.0	9.3	10.7	12.0	13.3	16.7	20.0
2.50	..	..	..	3.4	4.6	5.7	6.9	8.0	9.1	10.3	11.4	14.3	17.1
3.00	..	..	..	3.0	4.0	5.0	6.0	7.0	8.0	9.0	10.0	12.5	15.0
3.50	..	..	..	..	3.6	4.4	5.3	6.2	7.1	8.0	8.9	11.1	13.3
4.00	..	..	..	..	3.2	4.0	4.8	5.6	6.4	7.2	8.0	10.0	12.0
5.00	..	..	..	..	...	3.3	4.0	4.7	5.3	6.0	6.7	8.3	10.0
6.00	..	..	..	..	...	...	3.4	4.0	4.6	5.1	5.7	7.1	8.6

Example of Computations for Pile Foundation. Suppose that from the observations of the pile-driving for an adjacent building it is found that piles driven from 20 to 30 ft take a set of 1 in under a 1 200-lb hammer falling 20 ft, and that additional blows result in about the same set.

From Table X we find that the safe load for a fall of 20 ft and a penetration of 1 in is 20 tons. Multiplying by the weight of the hammer in tons, 0.6, we have 12 tons as the safe load per pile. Suppose that the total load on 1 lin ft of footing is 13 tons. As we must have at least two rows of piles, and each two piles will support 24 tons, it follows that the spacing of the piles longitudinally should be 24/13 = 1 ft 10 in. As this is too close, we should use three rows of piles, spaced 2 ft apart laterally, and the longitudinal spacing would then be 36/13 = 2 ft 9 in. The width of the capping would be about 5 ft. If the load on the piles under the interior columns, for example, is 105.8 tons, this, divided by 12, the safe load for one pile, gives nine piles, or three rows of three piles each, which should be spaced 2 ft 6 in apart, each way.

Some Actual Loads on Wooden Piles. The following examples of the actual loads supported by piles, under well-known buildings, and of loads which piles have borne for a short time without settlement, should be of value when designing pile foundations.

BOSTON. At the Southern Railroad Station three piles were loaded with about 60 tons of pig iron, 20 tons per pile, without settlement. The allowed load was 10 tons per pile.

Piles 12 in in diameter at the butt and 6 in at the point, driven 31 ft into hard, blue clay near Haymarket Square, failed to show movement under 30 tons, the ultimate load being probably 60 tons.* Other piles driven 17.9 ft sustained a load of 31 tons each. The average penetration under the last ten blows of a 2 710-lb hammer falling from 9 to 12 ft varied from 0.4 to 0.95 in per blow for fifteen piles.

Piles 25 ft long under the Chamber of Commerce Building penetrated about 1 in under the last blow of a 2 000-lb hammer falling about 15 ft.

CHICAGO. In the Public Library Building the piles were proportioned to [illegible] tons each and were tested to 50.7 tons without settlement.

In the Schiller Building the estimated load was 55 tons per pile; the building settled from 1½ to 2¼ in.

In the Passenger Station of the Northern Pacific Railroad, at Harrison Street, piles 50 ft long were designed to carry 25 tons each and did so without perceptible settlement.

The Art Institute Building, parts of the Stock Exchange Building and also a large number of warehouses and other buildings on the banks of the river rest on piles.

NEW YORK CITY. The Ivins (Park Row) Building is supported by about 3 500 14-in spruce piles, arranged in clusters of fifty or sixty, for single columns, and a corresponding number under piers supporting two or more columns. The piles were driven to refusal of 1 in under a 20-ft fall of a 2 000-lb hammer. The material is fine, dense sand to a depth of over 90 ft. But few piles could be driven more than 15 or 20 ft. The average maximum load per pile is 9 tons.†

The American Tract Society's Building is supported on piles.

BROOKLYN. Piles under the Government Graving Dock, driven 32 ft, on the average, into fine sand mixed with fine mica and a little vegetable loam, are supposed to sustain from 10 to 15 tons each.

NEW ORLEANS. Piles driven from 25 to 40 ft into a soft alluvial soil carry safely from 15 to 25 tons, with a factor of safety of from 6 to 8.‡

The Cost of Driving Wooden Piles. The cost of driving piles naturally varies with the character of the soil, and the conditions under which they are driven.

NEW YORK CITY. A 2 500-lb drop-hammer drove 4 piles per day of 10 hours. With a steam-hammer, 13 piles per day were driven, for the same foundation. The piles were 70 ft long, 8 in in diam at the point and 15 in at the head.

The average cost of driving 800 piles with the steam-hammer was $2 each. In New York Harbor 1 800 piles were driven by a steam-hammer, from 24 to 26 ft into gravel and hard-pan, at a cost of 80 cts each.

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* Horace J. Howe, American Architect, June 11, 1898.

† For a description of this foundation, see the Engineering Record of July 23, 1898.

‡ W. M. Patton.

CHICAGO. Forty Norway-pine piles were driven by a firm of contractors 45 ft deep every ten hours at a cost, for driving, of 55 cts each. Another firm drove from 60 to 65 piles, each 45 ft long and 15 ft deep, into hard sand each day at a cost of about 30 cts each. In both cases steam-hammers were used.*

BOSTON. Spruce piles from 30 to 45 ft long cost from $3 to $5, in place. Long-leaf yellow pine piles, as long as 70 ft, cost about $15 apiece for the piles themselves, and $2 or more each for the driving. Oak piles from 40 to 50 ft long cost from $8 to $10 each, in place.†

Some Other References to Wooden Piles and Pile-Driving. A very valuable paper on "Some Instances of Piles and Pile-Driving, New and Old," by Horace J. Howe, was published in the American Architect and Building News, commencing June 11, 1898. The paper records a great many tests and gives several formulas and many experiences of distinguished engineers. Part I of Building Construction and Superintendence, by F. E. Kidder, gives additional information in regard to pile foundations and experiments on the bearing power of piles. Much valuable information on piles is given in "A Practical Treatise on Foundations," by W. M. Patton. The recent Engineers' Handbooks, also, should be consulted for additional data.

28. Concrete-Pile Foundations

Durability of Wooden and Concrete Piles. Concrete piles, either plain or reinforced, possess many advantages over wooden piles and, in general, can be used in all places where wooden piles can be driven. Concrete piles, compared with wooden piles, have primarily the advantage of greater PERMANENCE. Timber piles, kept constantly wet and protected from the action of the TORREDO or other destructive influences, may be practically everlasting, but cannot be counted upon above water level; whereas concrete piles should be proof against all deteriorating actions, whether wet or dry, except the action of freezing on wet concrete.

Strength of Wooden and Concrete Piles. Concrete piles without reinforcement, if made of good concrete, should have nearly the same CRUSHING STRENGTH per square inch as ordinary yellow-pine piles, and with properly placed reinforcement concrete piles should have a much higher crushing strength per square inch than timber piles. Moreover, timber piles do not have UNIFORM CROSS-SECTIONS. For instance, a slender timber pile 40 ft in length and 12 in in diameter at the butt, is probably not over 6 in in diameter at the point. In direct compression the load on a point-bearing pile of the above dimensions is limited to the safe load on the point of the pile, where it is 6 in in diameter; and a cylindrical concrete pile, 12 in in diameter and under similar conditions, will have a cross-section of 113 sq in at all points, compared with the cross-section of 28 sq in at the point of the timber pile. Moreover, if we consider both piles as LONG COLUMNS, it must be borne in mind that a timber pile may not be straight and that it may, therefore, be subject to STRESSES and DEFORMATIONS due to ECCENTRIC LOADING, which are avoided in a straight, concrete pile.

Reinforced-Concrete Piles. In practice concrete piles are generally reinforced, and if a pile is to be considered as a long column the reinforcement may be increased at the center, so as to provide for stresses due to handling and to its acting as a long column. The concrete piles may be formed complete, above ground, in which case they may be straight or tapered, with square, circular or other cross-sections. The reinforcement may consist of a number of ical rods generally disposed symmetrically around the axis of the pile. The ical rods should be connected by horizontal wiring or by spiral reinforcement. efore stated, the reinforcement may be increased at the central section so provide against stresses due to the use of the pile as a LONG COLUMN, in case the additional reinforcement should be placed near the periphery e cross-section.

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* American Architect, June 4, 1898, page 78.

† George B. Francis, in American Architect, July 23, 1898.

ypes of Concrete-Pile Reinforcement. There are many TYPES OF REIN- MENT, one method even employing a woven-wire fabric which is laid out n a table and covered with a thin layer of concrete, the entire mat comprising ire fabric and the concrete being then rolled into a solid cylindrical form h, when set, forms the finished pile. The concrete piles may be FORMED IN e by any one of several different methods.

The Raymond Method of Forming Concrete Piles in Place. In the lled RAYMOND PILE METHOD a steel MANDREL of tapered form is driven into ground, and when the required penetration has been obtained this mandrel lapsed and withdrawn, leaving a hole corresponding to the size of the ex- ed mandrel in the ground; this hole is then filled with concrete. The rein- ement may be placed in the hole prior to the placement of the concrete. method, as described, is applicable only to such material as will stand the mandrel is being withdrawn and the hole is being filled with concrete. st cases the method used is as here described except that a thin shell of is placed on the mandrel before driving. When the mandrel is collapsed shell is left in the ground, thus forming a lining for the hole which is sub- ently filled with concrete or with reinforcing-rods and concrete, as before ribed. Raymond piles have been extensively used, especially for FRICTION- OR SKIN-BEARING PILES in soft and artificially filled-in ground. An im- ed form of lining-shell recently employed in the Raymond method is com- ed with a spiral reinforcement inside of the shell, which materially assists in nting the collapse of the shell.

The Simplex Method of Forming Concrete Piles in Place. THE SIMPLEX HOD differs from the Raymond method and may be briefly described as ws: A steel pipe, generally cylindrical in form, of the required size and th and fitted with a detachable cast-iron conical DRIVING-POINT, is driven into ground to the required depth; the pipe is then partially filled with concrete. ton-like PLUNGER, smaller in diameter than the inside diameter of the is then placed on the concrete and the pipe is partially withdrawn, leaving driving-point and part of the superimposed concrete in the ground. This ation is repeated until the pile is built up to the required height. In cer- materials, instead of using a detachable driving-point, the driving-point sists of two jaws hinged to the lower end of the pipe, so arranged that while ng the driving they form a driving-point, when the pipe is withdrawn they n and form an extension of the cylindrical pipe. In other words, the jaws formed of steel plates previously bent to the same radius as the radius of pipe and so hinged that when they are in their open-position the plates ming the jaws constitute an extension of the cylindrical surface of the pipe. is evident that plain reinforcing-bars can be placed in position before concrete t into the pipe.

Caution for Concrete Piles Built in Place. Care should be taken in design- and placing the reinforcing for all concrete piles BUILT IN PLACE, that the equent placing of the concrete does not throw the reinforcement out of ition and that all voids between the reinforcement and the shell are com- letely filled.

The Pedestal Pile is designed to give an ENLARGED CROSS-SECTION at the base of the pile. The method is similar to that of the RAYMOND METHOD, the increase in diameter being obtained as follows: After the pipe has been driven, the driving-core is withdrawn and the pipe partially filled with concrete. Then the concrete in the pipe is rammed, forcing the concrete out of the pipe and compressing the material below the pipe, so that the concrete is forced into the soil. A repetition of this operation results in forming a BASE or MUSHROOM below the pipe larger in diameter than the diameter of the pipe. Finally the pipe is withdrawn, the filling and ramming-operations continuing meanwhile, until the pile is carried up to the required height.

Composite Piles. Protected piles, for use in localities where the TORREDO affects the life of timber piles under water, are composed of timber piles with concrete coatings held in position by steel reinforcements in the shape of expanded metal or wire netting. Such piles are to be considered as timber piles rather than as concrete piles.

Timber Piles with Concrete Caps. In some localities where the permanent water-level is considerably below the level of the required excavation, timber piles have been driven with a FOLLOWER, the follower consisting of a steel pipe or cylindrical shell. When the head of the pile is driven to a safe distance below low water the PIPE-FOLLOWER is filled with concrete and withdrawn, leaving the concrete pier resting on a timber pile. This composite pile would appear to possess the advantage of combining the cheapness of a timber pile below the water-level with the permanency of a concrete pile above the water-level. Great care, however, should be used in adopting this method on account of the difficulty of securing proper connection between the concrete and the wooden pile.

The Methods used in Driving Built-up Piles are practically the same as are used in driving wooden piles, except that a CUSHION of wood, rope, or other material is placed on the head of the pile to be driven to cushion the blow of the hammer. Steam-driven or air-driven RECIPROCATING HAMMERS are preferable to the ordinary DROP-HAMMERS. In stiff materials the use of a WATER-JET is advisable and, in fact, in many cases indispensable. In lifting concrete piles use is made of a special SLING which is attached to a pile at two points, each point one-quarter of the length of the pile from the end. The sling should have a SPREADER so that the stress due to the oblique pull of the CHAIN-SLING is taken up by the spreader rather than by the pile.

The Casting of Concrete Piles. Concrete piles should be CAST IN ONE PIECE by a continuous operation so that there will be no PLANE OF WEAKNESS formed between partially set concrete and fresh concrete. They may be cast either in a vertical position, in forms, or in a horizontal position. Square-section concrete piles have been cast in a horizontal position and side-forms, only, used, the previously cast concrete pile, protected by paper, forming the bottom form. In some cases, where it is intended to use a WATER-JET in sinking a pile, the latter is cast around an iron pipe which is afterwards used for the water-jet. In general, however, this is dispensed with and an external detachable pipe used for the water-jet.

Incidental Advantages of Concrete Piles. In many cases, where concrete piles are more expensive than timber piles, the saving in excavation and footings more than offsets the increased cost. For example, if the excavation for the cellar of a building does not go down to water-level, the use of timber piles will necessitate excavating down to a point below water-level in order that the piles may be cut off low enough to keep their heads always wet. Concrete les, however, can be driven from the level of the bottom of the cellar-excava- and this additional excavation and the necessary construction between excavation-level and the level of the cut-off for the timber piles thus avoided. over, as one concrete pile may have a SUPPORTING POWER equal to the porting power of four wooden piles, the size of the footings will be much ler with concrete piles than with wooden piles.

Comparison of Wooden and Concrete Piles under Piers. The footings a column or pier 24 in sq in section, requiring for its support, say, sixteen oden piles, spaced 2 ft 6 in from center to center, will be, allowing for slight ualities in driving, approximately 10 ft square, the projections being 4 ft d the size of the base. Such a footing will ordinarily require a steel ge or reinforced-concrete base, or, if made of ordinary concrete, will be of considerable depth; whereas, if four concrete piles, placed 3 ft from center enter, are used, instead of wooden piles, the area of the base will be a little 4 ft square and the projection will be only 1 ft. A suitable footing would ist of a reinforced-concrete cap not over 2 ft in thickness. The saving in of excavation, concrete and steel in the footing is all in favor of the use ncrete piles.

Concrete Piles under Walls. In the case of a continuous wall, where the d per linear foot of wall is not great, a single row of concrete piles is often ient to support the weight of the wall. In such cases, the piles should be placed in straight lines but should be STAGGERED, and a sufficient footing ld be constructed connecting the heads of the piles, so as to afford stability the wall.

The Method Employed in Calculating Reinforcement for Concrete Piles is the same as that employed in calculating ordinary reinforced-concrete mns, the only difference being that where a pile is not point-bearing, but is endent on the surrounding material for its support, it need not be considered LONG COLUMN. POINT-BEARING PILES deriving their support from some d material on which their lower extremity rests, must be considered as LONG mns, on the assumption that the material surrounding the piles may fail pport them. In the case of FRICTION-PILES, depending for their support n the surrounding material, this assumption cannot be made, as any failure the material will involve a settlement of the pile. It should be borne in mind t any structure supported on piles supported by SKIN-FRICTION is dependent r its stability upon the continued supporting power of the material surround- g the piles. In many cases buildings resting on piles driven into soft ground settled as the result of the consolidation and settlement of the material rounding the piles, notwithstanding the fact that the piles when driven were ply able to support the loads for which they were designed.

Iron-Pipe Piles with Concrete or Reinforced-Concrete Filling have been d in place of wooden or concrete piles, especially in UNDERPINNING-WORK. The objection to the use of such piles is that the iron pipe forming the external l may rust, in which case the strength of the pile is reduced to the strength the concrete filling and the reinforcement contained therein. The writer lieves that they should not be used for permanent work.

Loads Allowed on Concrete Piles. The building laws of most cities llow on concrete piles from 350 to 500 lb per sq in on the concrete plus from 00 to 7 500 lb per sq in on the vertical reinforcement. On this statement t would appear possible to design a short concrete pile 12 in square, on which the allowed load would be 100 tons, and it is possible that such a pile, tested as a SHORT COLUMN, would develop in a testing-machine a strength justifying the use of such construction; but, bearing in mind that the character of the support for the base of such a column is underground and cannot be inspected, and bearing in mind also the uncertainties attending the manufacture of the pile, it is evident that it would be improper to load a pile to this extent in practice. It would, however, be considered good practice to load concrete piles up to one-third of a test-load applied to not less than 3% of the piles used. In ordinary practice, reinforced-concrete piles are loaded up to 500 lb per sq in of cross-section.

29. Foundation Piers and Foundation Walls

Foundation Piers and Walls as distinguished from ordinary CELLAR PIERS and WALLS, extend from the level of the underside of the cellar-floor to rock or other solid foundation-bed. (See page 129, Subdivision 1, and also Chapter III, pages 228-9.) In general, such piers and walls are composed of concrete and are of such dimensions that the safe unit loads on the concrete forming them are not exceeded. If the foundation-bed is rock, compact hard-pan, or gravel, there need be little or no enlargement of the base of the pier or wall, as the safe unit loads on such natural foundation-beds are generally equal to the safe unit loads on the concrete forming the body of the pier or wall. The design of such piers and walls is therefore an entirely simple matter governed by the principles already outlined, and by certain considerations mentioned hereafter.

The Methods used in the Construction of Foundation Piers and Walls are, however, necessarily varied to suit different materials and to meet different conditions encountered, and the design of a pier necessarily differs with different methods of construction. For example, if the construction is to be executed by means of the ordinary SHEET-PILING METHOD, piers and walls will have in general rectangular outlines. But if the CHICAGO METHOD or the PNEUMATIC CAISSON is employed, it will generally be cheaper to use piers having a circular cross-section and the support for walls may be a succession of cylinders rather than continuous walls. The detailing of the concrete structure constituting the piers or walls is simple after a determination is made of the methods by which the construction is to be put in place. This subject is discussed in the following chapter-subdivision, Methods of Excavating for Foundations.

30. Methods of Excavating for Foundations

Simple and Complex Excavations. Excavations in earth for footings of walls and piers may vary from simple trenches and pits of the required sizes and depths to accommodate the footings, up to deep subaqueous excavations requiring all the resources of engineering skill.

The Sides of Excavations. If the earth is firm and the depth not excessive the sides of the excavation may be self-supporting, in which case the excavation may be made the neat size of the footing and the sides of the excavation may take the place of forms for the concrete deposited to form the footing. Where the excavation is deep, and especially where the earth is not firm, the sides of the excavation must be sloped or, if made vertical, must be supported by bracing or by some form of sheet-piling. Where the excavation is over 8 ft in depth it will generally be cheaper to support the sides of the excavation than to slope them. Where the excavation adjoins a property-line it will generally be inadvisable to slope the excavation on account of damage to the adjoining property, and in such cases it will be necessary to use sheeting, even if sloping the earth would be cheaper.

Bracing in many cases will serve to support the sides of the excavation without the necessity of close SHEETING. The BRACING may consist simply of short pieces of PLANK placed against opposite sides of the excavation and held in position by horizontal timber STRUTS secured by WEDGES; or, especially in narrow trenches, some form of an EXTENSIBLE SEWER-BRACE may be used. Fig. 34 represents a usual form of EXTENSIBLE BRACE. Generally, however, the sides of an excavation will not stand with a vertical face, even if braced in this manner, for any length of time, and if the material is loose sand or soft clay, such bracing is entirely inadequate. In such cases, and in fact generally, some form of CONTINUOUS SHEET-PILING must be employed.

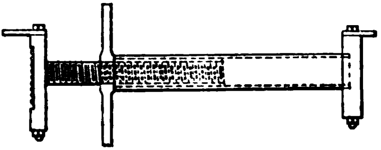

Fig. 34. Extensible Brace for Narrow Excavations

Ordinary Wooden Sheet-Piling consists of a continuous line of vertical planks held against the sides of the excavation by horizontal timbers known as WALES, WALING or BREAST-TIMBERS, these wales, or breast-timbers being in turn supported either by CROSS-BRACES extending across the excavation to an opposite wall or side of the excavation, or by inclined struts known as SHORES or PUSHERS, extending to the bottom of the excavation where HEELS or inclined platforms are sunk in the undisturbed material to afford points of support.

Earth-Pressure on Sheet-Piling. The load on the sheeting due to the EARTH-PRESSURE may be calculated on the assumptions made for the design of RETAINING-WALLS, but the thickness of the sheeting planks, the sizes and spacing of the breast-pieces and braces, if figured on this basis, will in general exceed the sizes constantly used with success and safety in such work. The probable reason for this is that an earth bank, when steadied and in part supported by the sheeting, does not, for a considerable time, lose the COHESION between its particles natural to most earth banks in their original and undisturbed state. Or, in other words, under these conditions no real ANGLE OF FRICTION is developed in the earth-mass. Local experience and practice should be consulted and will generally serve as a guide. Earth banks apparently similar will, however, act very differently and no general rule can be given. It should be borne in mind that the earth composing a bank should be, as far as possible, protected from air, from the action of water and from alternating freezing and thawing; and that permanent work should be completed as rapidly as possible so as to avoid the deteriorating effects of time and exposure on the structure of the bank.

The Thickness of the Sheeting Planks required may be calculated on the assumption that the earth bank is composed of loose material having a definite ANGLE OF SLOPE and COEFFICIENT OF FRICTION; but practically, under favorable conditions, 2-in planks may be used for a depth of drive of 16 ft, 3-in planks up to 24 ft and 4-in planks up to 32 ft; and timbers, 8 by 12 in, have been driven in favorable material to a depth of over 40 ft.

Depths and Numbers of Drives. Ordinarily the depth to which a plank can be driven is limited by its ability to resist the shock due to driving, and in unfavorable material a plank may become shattered before it is driven to the above-quoted depths. If the required depth cannot be reached by the first planks or DRIVE, a second, and sometimes a third and fourth set of planks are employed. As the BREAST-PIECES supporting the first line of planks must remain in place, the planks in the second set or DRIVE have to be placed inside of the breast-pieces, thus reducing the size of the excavation by the amount of the necessary offset. Where more than one drive is required the first drive should be started at a sufficient distance outside to allow the planks forming the second or the second and third drives to be placed outside of the required area for the bottom of the excavation.

Cutting and Fitting Sheeting Planks. The sheeting planks may be SQUARE-EDGED where there is no water or fine loose sand, but where water or running sand is to be excluded the planks should be TONGUED AND GROOVED, or SPLINED. The use of tongued and grooved planks has the additional advantage that the planks are more readily kept in line. It is usual to cut the bottom edge of each plank on a slight angle, so that in driving it is WEDGED against the preceding plank. The top of each plank may be fitted to receive an iron DRIVING-CAP; or, if this is not used, the upper corners of the plank should be cut off so that the effect of the blows will be concentrated along its vertical axis, and the tendency of the plank to SPLIT, due to a blow on one corner, thus diminished.

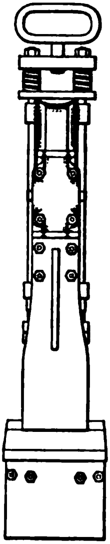

Fig. 35. Small Power-hammer for Driving Sheeting Planks

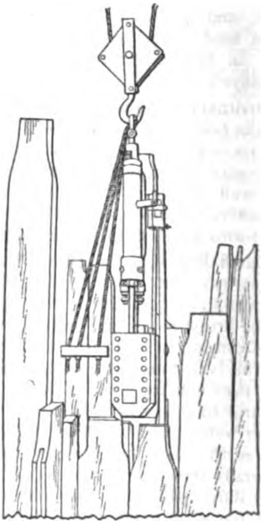

Fig. 36. Large-size Power-hammer and Sheeting Planks

The Means Employed for Driving the Sheeting vary with the depth and the size of the sheeting. For small jobs and for moderate depths of drive, the primitive method of DRIVING BY HAND with ringed wooden MAULS still prevails. For work involving a considerable amount of driving, and in all cases for long drives, POWER-HAMMERS driven either by steam or compressed air are preferably employed. A small-sized power-hammer (Fig. 35) resembles a STEAM-DRILL and may be handled by two or three men without any special lifting-appliances. The larger sizes of power-hammers (Figs. 36 and 37) are practically small, power, pile-driving hammers arranged with a special DRIVING-HEAD to fit the sheeting employed. Such hammers are handled by DERRICKS or are carried in a frame similar to a pile-driver frame. Ordinary DROP-HAMMERS are sometimes used, but are not as advantageous as the RECIPROCATING POWER-HAMMERS, as the blow struck by the drop-hammer shatters the plank, while the frequent light blows of the power-hammer tend to keep the planks and the adjacent material in motion and accomplish the required work with less damage to the sheet-piling. The weights and dimensions of several types of pile-driving hammers are given in Table XI, page 204.

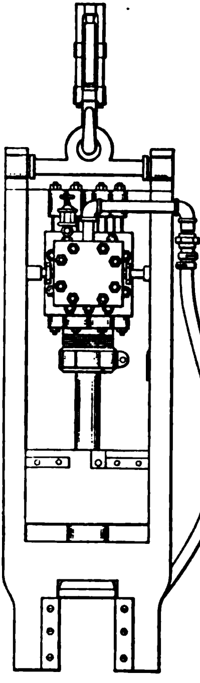
Fig. 37. Large-size Power-hammer for Driving Sheeting Planks

Manner of Driving Sheeting Piles. In practice, a shallow excavation is first made to the proper line for the outside of the sheeting planks. The top BREAST-TIMBER is temporarily secured in place and the lower end of the planks placed between this timber and the bank. If the planks are long, temporary TOP GUIDES or STAY-BRACES are arranged so as to keep the planks vertical until they have been driven well into the ground and held by the permanent BREAST-PIECES. The planks are then driven as the excavation progresses, each plank being driven a few inches in turn. As the driving goes on the material under the lower edge of the planks is loosened with a shovel or with a crowbar, the operation being so conducted that the planks are held true to line. The horizontal breast-timbers and their braces are placed in position as the excavation progresses. If inclined braces are to be used the excavation in the center is taken out first, leaving a sloping bank against the sides of the excavation. This permits of the placing of the inclined braces and of the beds for their points of support before there is any danger to the bank. After the first breast-piece and its inclined brace are set in place, the second and subsequent breast-pieces and braces are put in as the excavation proceeds.

Sheet-Piling for Excavations Below Water-Level. These excavations may be made by the SHEET-PILING METHOD if there is not too much water and if water can be drained out of the material without inducing a flow of sand or clay below the bottom of the sheet-piling. In some cases, where unfavorable conditions exist, but where there is an underlying stratum of impervious material, it is possible to drive the sheeting in advance of the excavation, so that the bottom of the sheeting makes a tight joint with the impervious stratum, cutting off the flow of water and material. Where a considerable amount of water finds its way into the excavation, the water must be led to a SUMP or depression from which it is ejected by means of a PUMP or a STEAM-SYPHON. Where the foundation-bed is below water-level and the material is sand, clay, or other material which would be softened by the action of the water, it should be protected by having the sump at a considerable distance from the area to be used for the sup-

Table XI. Weights and Dimensions of Pile-Driving Hammers

Size-No.	Total net weight	Weight of ram	Dimensions over all			Cylinder			Steam-boiler H. P. required	Comp. air, free air per min	Size of hose	Distance between jaws	Width of jaws	Duty, size of piles or piling hammer will drive
			Height	Width	Depth	Diam.	Stroke	Strokes per min						
	lb	lb	in	in	in	in	in			cuft	in	in	in	
Warrington Steam Pile-Hammers Manufactured by Vulcan Iron Works, Chicago, Ill.														
0	16 000	7 500	180	....	....	16½	48	60	60	....	2½	26	9¼	Hvy concrete piles
1	9 850	5 000	144	....	....	13½	42	65	40	....	2	20	8¼	18″ sq or rd piles
2	6 500	3 000	138	....	....	10½	36	70	25	....	1½	19	7¼	14″ sq or rd piles
3	3 800	1 800	96	....	....	8	30	80	18	....	1¼	18	6¼	10″ sq or rd piles
4	1 350	550	84	....	....	4	24	80	8	....	1	14	4¼	4″×12″ sheeting
5	800	....	68	10	10	4	7½	300	10	....	1	....	....	3″×12″ sheeting
Cram Steam Pile-Hammers Manufactured by A. F. Bartlett & Co., Saginaw, Mich.														
B	8 400	5 500	144	....	....	....	40	70	25	....	2½	27	8¼	18″ sq or rd piles
C	5 500	3 090	144	....	....	....	40	70	18	....	2	20	8¼	14″ sq or rd piles
D	4 200	2 250	102	....	....	....	24	80	15	....	1¾	20	8¼	10″ sq or rd piles
E	1 000	430	78	....	....	....	12	80	15	....	1¼	12	5¼	4″×12″ sheeting
Union Pile-Hammers Manufactured by Union Iron Works, Hoboken, N. J.														
0	12 100	2 550	118	28	20	10½	24	100	50	750	2	28	8½	Hvy concrete piles
1	8 000	1 548	94	28	18	9½	21	110	30	600	1½	28	8½	18″ sq or rd piles
2	5 500	890	81	25	15	7¼	16	130	18	300	1¼	25	6½	14″ sq or rd piles
3	4 500	663	74	23	13	6¼	14	135	15	200	1¼	23	5½	10″ sq or rd piles
4	2 500	363	60	20	11	5¼	12	150	10	150	1	20	4½	6″×12″ sheeting
5	1 400	214	47	17	9	4¼	9	200	8	100	1	17	4½	4″×12″ sheeting
6	850	129	40	14	8	3¼	7	250	5	60	¾	14	3⅜	2″×12″ sheeting
7	365	70	31	10	6	2⅜	5	300	3	40	¾	10	3⅜	1″×6″ sheeting
Goubert Steel-Pile Driving-Hammer Manufactured by A. A. Goubert, New York, N. Y.														
3	5 000	1 500	76	29	17	8	14	150	50	660	2	24	8¼	18″ sq or rd piles
2	3 400	800	62	24	14	6¼	10	160	25	340	1½	22	6¼	12″ sq or rd piles
1	950	200	43	16	10½	4	8	200	10	150	1¼	....	....	4″ sheeting
New Monarch Steam Pile-Hammer Manufactured by Henry J. McCoy Co., New York, N. Y.														
1	7 000	1 500	90	24	24	9	12½	125	35	600	2	24	8¼	18″ sq or rd piles
2	4 600	850	72	20	20	7¼	11	150	20	300	1½	20	8¼	14″ sq or rd piles
3	2 800	450	54	18	18	4¾	7	175	15	150	1	18	8¼	6″×12″ sheeting
4	800	125	48	14	14	3¼	6	250	10	65	¾	....	....	3″×12″ sheeting
McKiernan-Terry Pile-Hammers Manufactured by McKiernan-Terry Drill Co., New York, N. Y.														
9	7 500	1 500	77	21	27⅜	15	12	200	60	600	2	21	6½	18″ sq or rd piles
7	5 000	800	67	21	22⅞	12½	10	225	35	350	1½	21	6½	14″ sq or rd piles
5	1 500	200	56	11	14⅞	7	8½	300	20	200	1¼	11	4¼	4″×12″ sheeting
3	640	68	54	9	9½	3¼	5¾	300	15	150	1	9	3½	3″×12″ sheeting
1	145	21	42	8	6½	2¼	3¾	500	10	100	¾	8	2⅛	2″×10″ sheeting
Ingersoll-Rand Sheet Pile-Driver Manufactured by Ingersoll-Rand Co., New York, N. Y.														
G1	1 200	200	80	11¼	11	4	7¼	300	10	110	1¼	....	....	4″×12″ sheeting

part of the footing. This may be accomplished by making the area to be sheeted and excavated large enough to accommodate the sump outside of the supporting area, or by sinking a separate excavation to be used exclusively as a sump; or the same result may in some cases be accomplished by the use of DRIVE-WELLS, driven to a point below the level of the footing in which continued pumping may reduce the level of the water to a point below the footing. Care also should be taken, when the level for the footing is reached, to prevent the foundation-bed from being disturbed and softened by unnecessary tramping of workmen over the surface of the excavation.

The foundation-bed should be left as nearly as possible in its original or natural condition.

Steel Sheeting has been largely employed recently in place of wooden sheeting. It has the advantage that it can be driven in advance of the excavation, thereby reducing the likelihood of any flow of material under the sheeting. It also has the advantages of affording greater strength for a given thickness of sheeting, of being driven to a greater depth, and in many cases of being withdrawn and used over again. As generally manufactured, it has the further advantage of being INTERLOCKING, so that there is less danger of its getting out of line and leaving openings between adjacent pieces.

All of these advantages have been considered by engineers in using steel instead of wooden sheeting.

The Use of Steel Sheeting. The fundamental idea of steel sheeting is not new, as CAST-IRON SHEET-PILING was used in England as far back as 1822 and various combinations of steel plates have been used in coffer-dams. The general use of steel sheeting started in this country in 1899 when Luther P. Friestedt drove experimental INTERLOCKING CHANNEL-BAR SECTIONS. Since that time it has come into general use, and with its aid many excavations have been made with STEEL SHEET-PILING which would have been impracticable with timber sheeting.

Earth-Pressure on Steel Sheeting. In using STEEL SHEETING, it should be borne in mind that the EARTH-PRESSURE coming on the steel sheeting is the same as the earth-pressure coming on timber sheeting, and the breast-pieces and braces should be as strong as in the case of timber sheeting. Certain forms or sections of steel sheeting offer considerable resistance to bending due to the lateral earth-pressure. With such forms the horizontal breast-pieces may be spaced farther apart than with ordinary timber sheeting or steel sheeting not having this property; but the strength of the breast-pieces and of their braces must be sufficient to take up the entire load coming on the sheeting, irrespective of the spacing between such breast-pieces, for in case there is a failure in these the entire sheeting will fail.

Different Forms of Steel Sheeting. Various TYPES OF STEEL SHEETING are on the market. In making a selection between different forms of sheeting, the character of the material to be encountered should be borne in mind, as the simpler, more compact sections will penetrate hard or gravelly soils with less danger of deformation than the more complicated sections made up of thin plates and shapes. The various companies manufacturing different forms of sheet-piling publish catalogues containing data as to the weight and also giving the properties of the different sections. These catalogues may be obtained from the manufacturers, but for convenience illustrations of some of the principal sections, with their dimensions and weights and other details, are given in the following pages.

There are other types of steel sheeting than those shown in Figs. 38 to 44

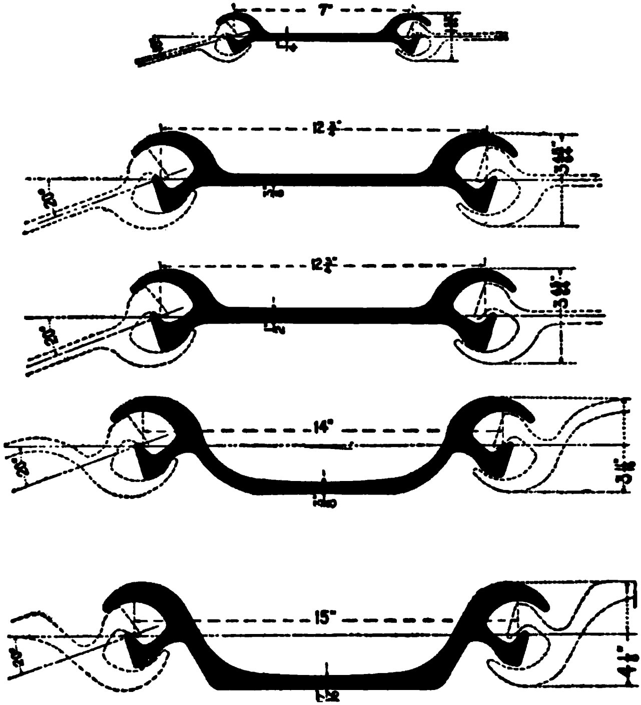

Fig. 38. Lackawanna Steel Sheet-piling

Lackawanna Steel Sheet-Piling *

Composition and Dimensions of Sections

Sections	Per linear foot, lb	Per square foot, lb
Straight-web, ¼ in thick	12.54	21.5
Straight-web, ⅜ in thick	37.187	35
Straight-web, ½ in thick	42.5	40
Arched-web, 14 in long	40.83	35
Arched-web, 15 in long	60	48

This piling is adapted to straight or circular work.

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* Manufactured by the Lackawanna Steel Company.

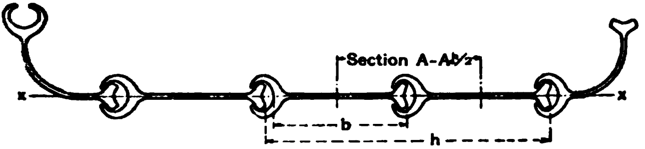

Fig. 39. United States Steel Sheet-piling

United States Steel Sheet-Piling *

Composition and Dimensions of Sections

Size	Web in	*b* in	*h*/2 in
12½ in, 38 lb..........	⅜	12½	13¼
9 in, 16 lb............	¼	9	9¼

This piling is adapted to straight or circular work.

* Manufactured by the Carnegie Steel Company.

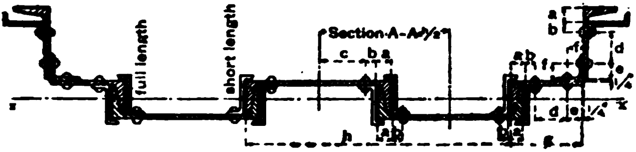

Fig. 40. Friestedt Interlocking Channel-bar Piling

Friestedt Interlocking Channel-Bar Piling *

Composition and Dimensions of Sections

No.	Description	Channels		Zees		*h*/2, in
		In	Lbs per ft	In	Lbs per ft	
1	10 in, 28 lb	10	15	3⅛×¼	4.8	9
2	10 in, 34 lb	10	20	3⅛×¼	4.8	9
3	12 in, 34 lb	12	20.5	3⅝×⅜	8.6	10⅞
4	12 in, 39 lb	12	25	3⅝×⅜	8.6	10⅞
5	15 in, 39 lb	15	33	4⅛×⅜	9.2	13½
6	15 in, 45 lb	15	40	4⅛×⅜	9.2	13½

* Manufactured by the Carnegie Steel Company.

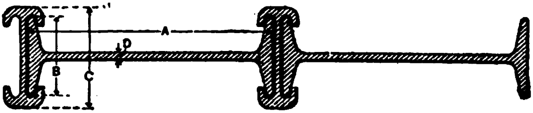

Fig. 41. Standard Sheet-piling

Standard Sheet-Piling *

Composition and Dimensions of Sections

No.	Size, in	Weight per square foot, lb	A	B	C	D
1	12×5	35.0	12	3.94	5	0.34
2	12×5	36.25	12	3.97	5	0.37
3	15×6	37.20	15	4.75	6	0.37
4	15×6	39.75	15	4.81	6	0.44
5	15×6	42.25	15	4.87	6	0.50

An interlocking bar is wedged to each beam at the mill and the two pieces are driven as a unit.

* Manufactured by the Jones & Laughlin Steel Company.

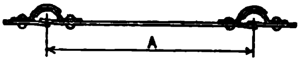

Fig. 42. Spring-lock Sheet-piling

Spring-Lock Sheet-Piling *

Composition and Dimensions of Sections

Distance, A	15¼ in	19¼ in	23¼ in
$\frac{3}{16}$-in plate, weight per square foot, in pounds.	17	14½	13½
¼-in plate, weight per square foot, in pounds.	20	17	16

Plates may be obtained curved to any radius for circular work.

* Manufactured by the Mitchell-Tappen Company.

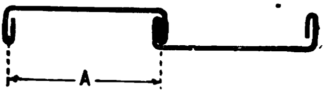

Fig. 43. Slip-joint Sheet-piling

Slip-Joint Steel Sheet-Piling *

Composition and Dimensions of Sections

Distance, A	6 in	9 in	12 in	15 in
No. 14-gauge, weight per square foot, in pounds.	5.4	5.8	5.7	5.6
No. 16-gauge, weight per square foot, in pounds.	4.3	4.0	3.9	......

* Manufactured by the Mitchell-Tappen Company.

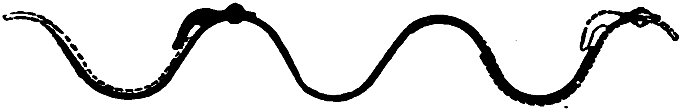

Fig. 44. Wemlinger Steel Sheet-piling

Wemlinger Steel Sheet-Piling *

Composition and Dimensions of Sections

No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Depth of corrugation	2	2	2	2½	2½	2½	2½	4	4	4
Thickness	1/16	7/64	1/8	7/64	1/8	5/32	3/16	3/16	1/4	5/16
Width, center to center of lap	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	18	18	18
Weight per square foot in pounds	5	7.5	8.5	8	9.5	11.5	13.5	15	19	23.5

The dimensions given are in inches.

* Manufactured by the Wemlinger Steel Piling Company.

The Poling-Board or Chicago Method is a special method of excavation in general use in Chicago and in occasional use elsewhere for excavations which go to a great depth in clay or in other suitable material. It has the advantage over the ordinary sheet-piling method that the lining of the excavation is not driven. The method is not generally used for trenches or for square excavations as a circular excavation is more readily handled. The success of the method depends entirely upon the character of the material to be encountered, as the excavation is first made and the sides of the excavation afterwards supported. The method in detail for a circular excavation for a pier-foundation may be described as follows:

(1) A circular excavation slightly in excess of the size required for the pier is carried down to a depth of 5 ft, great care being taken to have the sides of the excavation vertical and true to the circle.

(2) Vertical planks called LAGGING-PIECES, 5 ft in length and slightly beveled on their edges so that each piece may be considered as a stave with radial joints corresponding to the size of the required circle, are set in place against the walls of the excavation. These planks are held in place by two or more steel rings, generally made in quadrants, so that they may be conveniently handled and bolted together. The planks are wedged firmly against the walls of the excavation by means of wooden wedges driven between the planks and the iron rings.

(3) As soon as the first set of lagging is complete, the excavation is carried down for another section, 5 ft in depth, and another section of lagging is put in place and secured in the same manner.

Depth and Character of Excavations in the Poling-Board Method. In the manner described above the excavation may be carried down for an indefinite distance, a depth of 100 ft having frequently been attained. In many cases the bottom of the excavation is BELLED OUT to a larger diameter than the excavation for the main shaft of the pier with the object of reducing the load of the foundation-bed to a unit load less than the safe unit load on the main shaft of the pier. This method is not adapted for running sand nor for clay that is not solid enough to stand with vertical sides during the necessary interval between making the excavation and placing the lagging. In some cases where a stratum of quicksand has been encountered, the excavation has been carried past it by the use of a cylindrical shell of steel, forced by jacks through it to an underlying impervious layer of clay; but in general this method is dependent for its success upon a continuous body of impervious material.

The Open-Caisson Method or Well-Curb Method is used for piers to be carried to a considerable depth, and has advantages over the sheet-piling method in certain materials. It is a development of the old method used in sinking masonry wells and, in its modern form, consists of a structure which eventually forms part of the pier itself and which is arranged with an open chamber at its base in which men may excavate the material under the structure and allow it to settle as the excavation proceeds. It is evident that a central opening or shaft must be left in the structure to permit of the passage of men and material.

Details of the Open-Caisson Method. In detail, the method may be described as follows: First a CURB or CUTTING-EDGE of timber or steel, following the outline of the pier, is constructed on the surface of the ground. The outer face of this curb is generally vertical and is protected with a steel plate which extends below the main section of the curb, so as to form a cutting-edge or sharp downward projection serving to penetrate the soil slightly in advance of the excavation. On this curb a wall of timber, concrete, or masonry is constructed, inside of which the so-called WORKING-CHAMBER affords room for the workmen to be employed in excavating. Above the working-chamber the walls may continue to a height corresponding to the required height of the pier, leaving the central space to be filled in after the required depth is reached; or a roof may be built over the working-chamber and the entire cross-section of the pier filled with concrete or masonry excepting only a small central opening large enough to accommodate a HOISTING-TUB or BUCKET and to permit of the ingress and egress of the men employed in sinking the construction. In practice, the excavation is started before the pier-structure is carried up to its final height, after which the excavation and the building up of the pier progresses simultaneously, the constantly increasing weight of the structure aiding the sinking of the pier. When the excavation has reached rock or a firm substratum, further excavation is stopped and the working-chamber and the central opening are packed full of concrete, leaving finally a complete pier-structure extending from the rock to the proper level to receive the steel grillage or other construction coming on the pier.

Advantages of the Open-Caisson Method. This method of construction has the advantages that the workmen at all times are protected, that obstructions, such as boulders or logs, may be removed from under the cutting-edge, and that when rock is encountered, ample opportunity is afforded for the proper preparation of the rock-surface to receive the final concrete filling. If a moderate amount of water is encountered, not accompanied by a flow of material, it can generally be taken care of by means of pumps.

Dredged Wells are similar to the open caissons described in the previous paragraphs and are used where large quantities of water are encountered. The construction of the piers is similar to that of the piers used in the open-caisson method; but the central shaft and working-chamber are designed to permit of the use of a CLAM-SHELL DREDGE or other form of dredge, and the water is allowed to rise to its natural level in the working-chamber and shaft. This method can be used to advantage when a considerable amount of water-bearing sand or other material is found overlying level rock or other firm foundation-bed. When the dredging and the sinking of the pier-structure have been carried down to the hard underlying strata it is sometimes possible to pump out the water. If this is not practicable the bottom may be prepared by divers for the reception of the concrete filling, and the concrete may be deposited through water, care being taken to use some special arrangement to protect the concrete from being injured by loss of its cement-content, in the process of deposition.

The Well-Digger's Method is also occasionally used in making PIT-EXCAVATIONS under walls or in cramped locations. By this method the sides of the excavation are supported by planks placed horizontally. The method of placing the planks is as follows: A shallow excavation, the depth of a plank, is made by ordinary methods, and a SET, consisting of four planks fitting the four sides of the excavation, is secured in place. Before proceeding with the general excavation of the pit a trench is dug directly alongside and underneath one of the side planks of the FIRST SET. As soon as this trench is deep enough to accommodate the planks for the SECOND SET, the side of the trench under the plank already in place is cut to a vertical face, the plank placed in position and the loose earth temporarily back-filled against it. As soon as the four planks forming the SECOND SET have been put in place by this method, the two side planks are wedged against the bank, the end-planks being used as struts. The end-planks are wedged into position and nailed or cleated to the side planks forming a PRESSURE-RESISTING FRAME supporting the side of the excavation. A continuation of this method enables the excavation to be carried on indefinitely, provided there is no flow of water or run of material causing an inflow of material into the excavation.

The Pneumatic-Caisson Method. Where piers or foundation walls have to be carried to a considerable depth through water-bearing materials, and especially where large bodies of quicksand are encountered, the PNEUMATIC-CAISSON METHOD must be resorted to. This method is based upon the PRINCIPLE OF A DIVING-BELL and may be briefly described as follows: The construction of the pier is similar to the piers previously described as used in the open-caisson and dredged-well construction, except that the working-chamber and shaft are made air-tight and connected with a device called an AIR-LOCK, so that compressed air may be introduced into the working-chamber. The object of the compressed air is to prevent water entering into the working-chamber. This is accomplished in accordance with the well-known PRINCIPLE OF THE DIVING-BELL by having the compressed air constantly kept at a pressure which will counterbalance the water-pressure at the level of the cutting-edge of the working-chamber. The pressure of the air evidently must vary with the depth of the cutting-edge below water-level. A column of water 1 in square in cross-section weighs .43⅓ lb per vertical ft, and it will therefore be counterbalanced by an air-pressure of .43⅓ lb per sq in over the normal air-pressure. If the column of water is 30 ft in height, it will weigh thirty times .43⅓ lb, or will be counterbalanced by an air-pressure of 13 lb per sq in above the atmospheric pressure.

The Maximum Air-Pressure in the Pneumatic Caisson in which men can work for short periods is about 43 lb per sq in above atmospheric pressure, corresponding to a depth below water-level of about 100 ft. At this depth the work is carried on in shifts of from two to three hours duration, and great care must be exercised in coming out of the AIR-PRESSURE. The physiological effects of compressed air are often serious; pains in the joints, damage to the ear-drums resulting in deafness, and the so-called CAISSON-DISEASE render work at high pressure extremely hazardous.

The Air-Lock Used in Connection with the Pneumatic Caisson is a device for the purpose of retaining the air in the caisson and at the same time permitting the passage of men and material in and out. It consists essentially of a metallic AIR-TIGHT CHAMBER or SHELL connected to the working-chamber either directly or to an air-tight lining or extension of the central shaft-opening. This air-chamber has two doors, one at the bottom, opening downward into the shaft and the other in the upper head of the air-lock chamber, also opening downward and affording a direct connection to the open air. In the operation of an air-lock one of these two doors must at all times be closed so as to prevent the free escape of air through the air-lock. If the bottom door is closed, it will be held firmly to its seat by the uplift of the compressed air in the shaft, which is at all times in direct communication with the working-chamber. If, under these conditions, the upper door is open, the interior of the air-lock will be in direct communication with the open air and the air contained in the lock will evidently be at atmospheric pressure. Workmen and materials may then enter the air-lock. In order to pass into the shaft and working-chamber, it is necessary, first, to close the upper door, and secondly, to shift the so-called EQUALIZING VALVE and admit compressed air into the space between the two doors, until the air-pressure is brought up to the air-pressure in the working-chamber and shaft. Pressure on the upper side of the lower door will then equal the pressure on the lower side and the lower door may be opened, the upper door being firmly held against its seat by the compressed air in the air-lock. As soon as the lower door opens, the men and material may be passed into the shaft and working-chamber. In coming out the operations are reversed; men and material enter the air-lock through the open lower door, the lower door is closed and held tightly against its seat, and the equalizing valve is shifted, affording a connection between the interior of the air-lock and the external air. The compressed air escapes through the equalizing valve, reducing the pressure in the air-lock to atmospheric pressure, and the upper door has atmospheric pressure on both sides of it. It may then be opened, giving free connection with the outside air.

The Design of Pneumatic Caissons. The first consideration is, of course, to have the final structure a permanent and sufficient pier to carry the load to be imposed upon it. To this end the cross-section of the pier at all points from top to bottom should be capable of carrying safely the maximum load. As the cross-section of the pier is generally, in the finished pier, composed of solid concrete, the cross-section will be determined by the allowable load on the concrete. For piers the cross-section will generally be square or circular; for walls the caisson will generally be not less than 6 ft in width, as it is difficult to sink caissons having a width less than 6 ft. If the caisson is to be carried to solid rock, the bearing on the rock need be no larger than the cross-section of the concrete pier; but if the excavation does not go to rock, it is frequently desirable to BELL OUT the base of the pier so as to reduce the loading on the foundation bed to a unit load less than that allowable on concrete. The operation of BELLING OUT is difficult in some materials; in a compact material it can be generally accomplished without serious difficulty.

Piers Sunk by the Pneumatic-Caisson Method may be constructed of various combinations of materials. The side walls and roof of the working-chamber were formerly frequently constructed of timber. In many cases they are now formed of steel; but in recent designs the working-chamber is generally formed of reinforced concrete, the only structural steel used being an angle or a plate and angle composing the cutting-edge. The outside of the caisson is preferably made vertical. The superimposed pier is generally of the same size as the working-chamber, at least it is generally so in piers sunk for buildings.

A Typical Design for a Caisson Built of Reinforced Concrete is given in Fig. 45, in which AB is the angle-iron and plate forming the so-called CUTTING-EDGE and C is the WORKING-CHAMBER formed by the side walls DE and DE and by the roof EE. The concrete side walls are reinforced with steel rods attached to the cutting-edge, and extending upward into the body of the pier, and the roof and body of the pier are reinforced to take care of stresses due to construction and sinking. In building up the working-chamber, the interior forms are arranged so as to support the concrete which makes the roof. These are subsequently removed. The exterior forms may constitute a permanent part of the structure, in which case they are called a coffer-dam, or they may be removed as soon as the concrete has sufficiently set. At the center of the pier an opening is left to serve as the shaft or opening connecting the working-chamber with the air-lock. The sides of this opening or of the upper part of it only, are lined with an air-tight steel shell. To the upper end of the steel shell the air-lock is connected. If the height of the pier does not exceed 40 ft the construction of it may be completed before the excavation is commenced. Generally, however, the construction of the pier is stopped as soon as the working-chamber and from 5 to 10 ft of the superimposed pier has been constructed; then sufficient excavation is done, without the use of compressed air, to carry the cutting-edge down to water-level. This is called ditching the caisson and is done so that the caisson will have some slight lateral support from the soil before the construction is carried up high enough to make it top-heavy. When the entire pier or the first section is finished, excavation is resumed and the whole structure is sunk as the excavation progresses, care being taken to remove any obstruction from beneath the cutting-edge. During the progress of sinking compressed air is conducted to the working-chamber through the supply-pipe *G*, the excavated material being hoisted through the shaft *F*. The shaft *F* is fitted with a ladder for the use of the workmen.

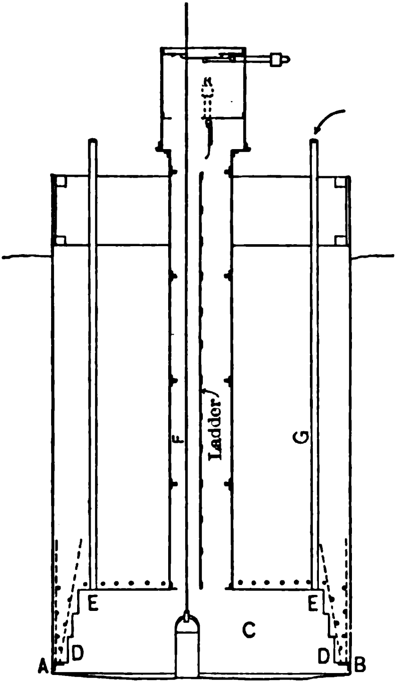

Fig. 45. Typical Form of Reinforced-concrete Caisson

Details of Caisson-Sinking and Filling. In sinking the caisson and superimposed pier, care must be taken to maintain it in a vertical position. This end may be accomplished in large caissons by means of the excavation itself. In case one side of the caisson is high the excavation on that side will be carried somewhat in advance of the excavation on the low side, and the material under the cutting-edge of the high side will be removed while a bank of material is kept under the cutting-edge of the low side. These methods, however, are of little avail when the caisson is narrow. In such cases that part of the caisson which is above ground is held in position by guides or other devices; but it frequently happens that the caisson in its final condition is considerably out of its correct location and considerably out of plumb. In general, therefore, the size of the caisson should be made larger than the minimum size necessary, in order to allow for errors in its final location. When the caisson has reached the required depth the foundation-bed is prepared for the reception of the concrete filling and the working-chamber filled with it, care being taken that it completely fills all voids and is in perfect contact with the roof. Finally, the air-lock and the steel lining of the shaft are removed and the shaft-opening filled with concrete to the proper level to receive the GRILLAGE or other construction forming the base of the column which is to rest on the caisson.

The Height of Caisson-Piers. The height of a pier cannot be exactly fixed until it is known to what depth the caisson must sink in order to reach the foundation-bed. If the rock is found at a greater depth than anticipated, additional height is added to the top of the pier after the caisson is in its final position; but if, on the other hand, the rock is found unexpectedly high, the top of the pier will have to be cut off. If the finished elevation of the pier is to be below the level of the general excavation, it is usual to extend the exterior surface of the pier to the required height by means of a temporary chamber-structure called a COFFER-DAM, the height of which corresponds to the depth of the finished surface below the level of the general excavation. Inside of this COFFER-DAM some STEEL GRILLAGES may conveniently be set.

The Freezing Process for Excavations. This method has sometimes been employed in making excavations. In this country its use has been limited to one or two mining-shafts, but in Germany it has been resorted to in making excavations for building-foundations. The method consists in driving steel pipes into the ground. These pipes are closed at the bottom and at the top are connected to smaller pipes through which brine, at an extremely low temperature, is made to circulate. The refrigerating effect results in freezing the water contained in the soil, converting quicksand to a frozen mass resembling soft sandstone. When the freezing has progressed sufficiently to form a solid wall or coffer-dam around the excavation, the material inside the frozen wall may be excavated. This method has the advantage, theoretically, of being applicable to excavations of any depth. There are many precautions necessary, and for the present, at any rate, it should only be considered as a possibility.

31. Protection of Adjoining Structures

General Considerations. The COMMON LAW provides that any person making an excavation is responsible for resulting damage to adjoining property. STATUTE LAWS as embodied in the building codes of different cities may modify or limit this responsibility, but in general, excavations should be made in such a manner as to cause the least possible damage to surrounding property. Where there are no adjoining structures it is generally sufficient to slope the sides of the excavation so as to prevent the sliding of material into the excavation, or, at least, to sheet-pile and brace the sides of the excavation; but where the excavation is to be made alongside of an existing structure, and carried below the footings of such structure, it is necessary to take special measures for its protection. Such work is described as SHORING, UNDERPINNING and PROTECTING ADJOINING STRUCTURES, and may involve the carrying of the weight of part or all of the buildings on temporary supports, the removal of the old footings and the construction of new footings at lower elevations.

Shoring. When the excavation for the new building does not go much below the adjoining footings and when the material is fairly solid, it may suffice to transfer a portion of the load of the wall to temporary footings. This may be accomplished by means of heavy inclined posts called SHORES, arranged to act as INCLINED COLUMNS or STRUTS. Each SHORE consists of a post, the lower end of which rests on a PLATFORM, generally consisting of planks and timbers arranged so as to form a temporary spread footing. This platform should be placed at a depth which will insure that subsequent operations will not undermine it. The upper end of the post fits into a hole or niche cut into the wall to be supported. The post itself may be a timber with a square cross-section, usually 12 by 12 in, and of the required length. Provision is made, between the platform and the lower end of the post, for WEDGES or JACKS, so that when operated their lifting effect transfers part of the weight of the wall from its footing to the temporary foundation or platform. During this operation all parts of the temporary structure are in compression and brought into bearing, and the material under the platform is compressed and solidified as much as possible.

Kinds of Shores. If the SHORE is to act preferably for LIFTING only, it is kept as nearly vertical as possible and is known as a LIFTING SHORE. If it is to act preferably to combine a horizontal PUSHING action with the lifting action, it is placed at a considerable angle from the vertical and is then known as a PUSHING SHORE or STEADYING SHORE. In arranging such shores care should be taken to have the niche cut close to a floor-level of the building to be shored, as otherwise the horizontal component of the thrust of the shores might buckle the wall.

Numbers and Sizes of Shores. Where a wall is light, a number of smaller shores should be used in preference to a few large ones. Where a wall is high, two or more shores of varying lengths may be used, and these may conveniently be placed in the same vertical plane and rest on the same platform.

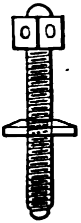

Fig. 46. Standard Type of Steel Screw-jack

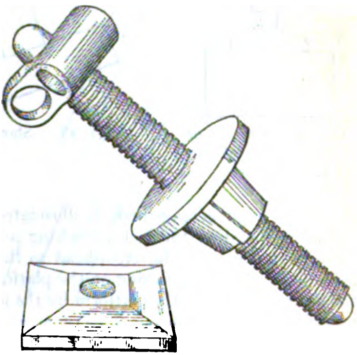

Fig. 47. Standard Type of Steel Screw-jack

Wedges and Screw-Jacks. In transferring the load of a wall from its own footing to the temporary platform, use is made of wooden or steel WEDGES, SCREW-JACKS, or HYDRAULIC JACKS; or, wedges and jacks may be used in combination. Wooden wedges should be made of hard wood and are generally arranged in pairs, both wedges being driven at the same time. The lifting effect of such wooden wedges is powerful, but where a considerable settlement of the temporary foundation is anticipated, it is more convenient to use screw-jacks, as they can take up a considerable settlement.

Materials and Types of Screw-Jacks. The SCREW-JACKS usually manufactured for this purpose are made of cast iron and have rough threads, with too coarse a pitch to have much lifting effect. Screw-jacks of a better kind are made of steel and have a machine-thread of small pitch. Such jacks can be obtained capable of lifting weights up to 100 tons. Figs. 46 and 47 represent standard forms of screw-jacks. When a single screw-jack is used in connection with a post or shore, a hole to receive the threaded portion of the jack is bored in the end of the timber used for the shore, the end being squared to receive the nut. Such an arrangement is called a PUMP and is illustrated in Fig. 48. When a lifting effect greater than that exerted by a single jack is required, the jacks are arranged in pairs in connection with a short timber or CROSS-HEAD. Such an arrangement is illustrated in Fig. 49. It has the advantage that after operating the jacks, blocking and wedges can be placed between the platform-timbers and the cross-head so that the post resting on the cross-head has a direct and solid bearing on the platform. By this method the load of the wall can be thrown on the platform by the jacks and after the blocking and wedging is in position the jacks can be removed.

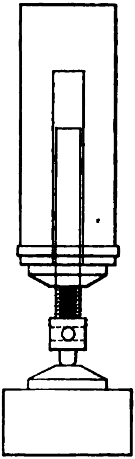
Fig. 48. Pump, or Screw-jack let into End of Shore

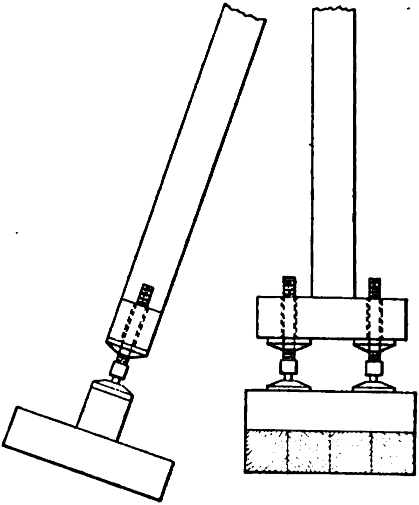
Fig. 49. Shore, Screw-jacks and Timber Cross-head

Hydraulic Jacks. Where excessively heavy loads are to be lifted, HYDRAULIC JACKS may be used in place of screw-jacks but an objection to them is that they are liable to SLACK BACK under the load. While the load, therefore, should not be permanently supported on hydraulic jacks, they may be used to take the load temporarily while the blocking and wedging are being placed between the cross-head and the temporary footing. In this way an indefinite number of shores may be set and taken care of with a single pair of hydraulic jacks.

Example of Shoring. Fig. 50 shows the method used in SHORING the ornamental front wall of a heavy building, advantage having been taken of the numerous deep margin-drafts shown in the section. In order to avoid the necessity of cutting niches for the tops of the shores, nine hardwood blocks, *a*, *a*, etc., were fitted to the margin-draft grooves in the masonry. Nine similar blocks, *b*, *b*, etc., were gained into and bolted to the vertical timber *VV*, space being

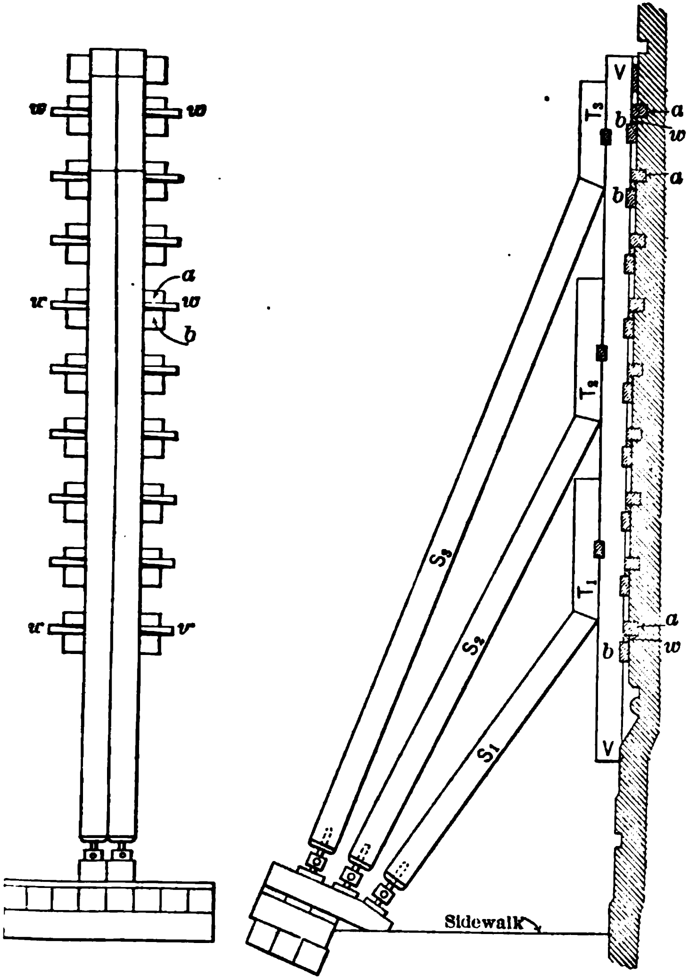

Fig. 50. Shoring an Ornamented Wall

left between the *a* blocks and the *b* blocks for adjusting wedges *w*, *w*, etc. Three headpieces, T_1, T_2 and T_3 were keyed and bolted to *VV* and transmitted to it the uplift of the three shores, S_1, S_2 and S_3. Each shore had a 60-ton screw-jack at its base. Each shore is shown fitted with a pump or detached extension-piece arranged for the screw-jack.

Needling. NEEDLES or GIRDERS are employed when part or all of the weig of the wall has to be carried, as when the old footing is to be removed and t wall UNDERPINNED or carried down to a new footing at a greater depth.

Example of Needling and Underpinning. Fig. 51 represents a typical case UNDERPINNING, the several operations being as follows:

(1) **The General Excavation** is carried down to within a few inches of th bottom of the footing *BB* under the wall *W*.

(2) **The Pit** *DDDD*, properly braced and protected by sheet piling, is sun to approximately the level of the proposed excavation, this PIT being place at a safe distance from the existing wall. In good material it may be safe t have this pit approach to within a few feet of the footing course of the wall, but in material which is liable to run it should not approach the wall closer than its depth. No hard and fast rule can be given, and in every case great care should be taken to prevent any movement of the material from under the adjoining footing.

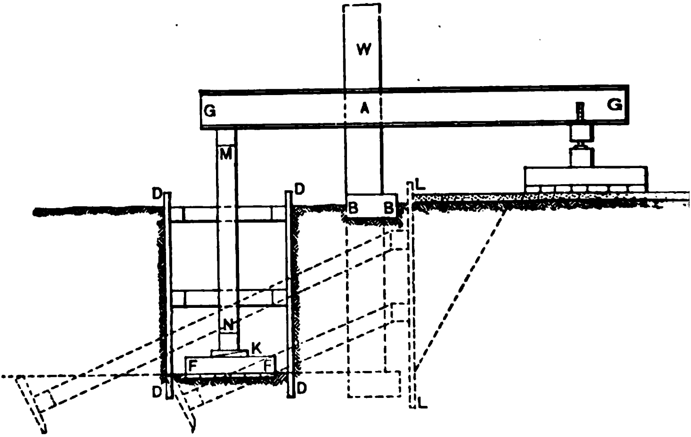

Fig. 51. Wall-needling and Underpinning

(3) **The Platforms.** On the bottom of this pit-excavation, a PLATFORM *FF* is placed, generally composed of heavy timbers resting on a base of heavy planks, and acting as a support for the outer end of the needle. During the construction of this pit a similar pit may be dug on the inside of the wall to provide for the support of the inside end of the needle; but as this involves the destruction of the cellar-floor the method of procedure inside the building is generally different from this. If the material is solid it is sometimes sufficient to place the platform for the support of the inside end of the needle directly on the cellar-floor and at such a distance from the wall that the necessary excavation for the new footing will not disturb it; or the platform may be placed on the cellar-floor and a line of sheeting *LL*, properly braced, so placed that the excavation can be made for the new footing. This is generally sufficient to prevent any serious settlement of the temporary platform for the inside end of the needle.

(4) **The Insertion of the Needles.** Having provided a support for each end of the NEEDLE it only remains to cut a hole through the wall, as at *A*, insert the needle *GG*, put the post and blocking *MN* under the outside end of the needle, and the blocking and jacks under the inside end. The post *MN* may be fitted with wedges as shown at *K*, or with one or more screw-jacks. The needle *GG* may consist of one or more heavy timbers or one or more steel I beams. In any case, the load to come on this needle should be figured and its strength made ample to safely support such load. As soon as the weight of the wall *W* is transferred to the needles and to the temporary platforms prepared to receive the load, that part of the wall which is below the needles and all of the footing may be removed and all of the excavation for the new footing made.

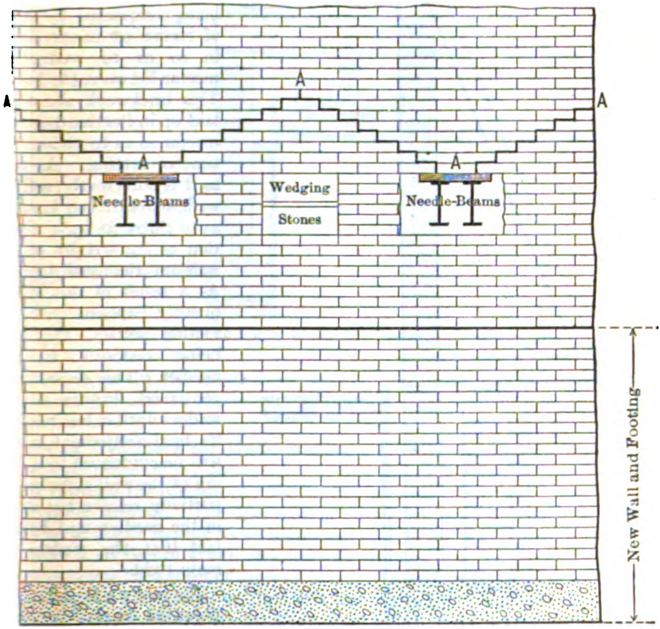

Fig. 52. Needling a Brick Wall

Needling a Brick Wall. Fig. 52 shows the elevation of a brick wall supported by NEEDLES. If the needles are carrying the entire weight of the wall, it is evident that at the level of their upper surfaces the entire weight will be transferred through those parts of the wall which are immediately above them, and that above these points the material composing the wall will CORBEL OUT in both directions as indicated in Fig. 52 by the heavy zigzag lines *AAAAA*. All of the wall below this line will be supported simply by COHESION to the part of the wall above it. An experienced man can determine the location of this line by the sound given by the wall on being struck by a hammer. All of the wall below this line is HANGING and liable to fall as soon as the support given by the footing is removed. The hanging parts of the wall may be removed or suspended by rods and chains to the needles. If they are not so suspended a crack will form along the line *AAAAA*.

Transferring the Load to the New Underpinning. As soon as the new footing has been put in place and the new wall carried up ready to receive the old wall, provision must be made for REVERSING THE OPERATION, that is, for transferring the load onto the new underpinning wall and footing. This is generally done by means of a number of GRANITE BLOCKS set in pairs between the needles and fitted with STEEL WEDGES. After setting these blocks, the space between the base of the old wall and the top of the upper wedging block is filled in with brickwork, the mortar in the last joints being compacted by means of PIECES OF SLATE driven in so as to wedge the mortar between the bricks. This brickwork should be laid up in Portland-cement mortar so as to reduce the time of setting. As soon as it is sufficiently set, the wedges are driven home so as to throw at least a portion of the weight of the wall on the new footing. As a result of this it frequently happens that this footing settles, the load being restored to the needles. This necessitates continued driving on the wedges until it has reached its final settlement, which will be evidenced by a lifting of the wall sufficient to partially relieve the stress in the needles and by the fact that the wedges remain tight.

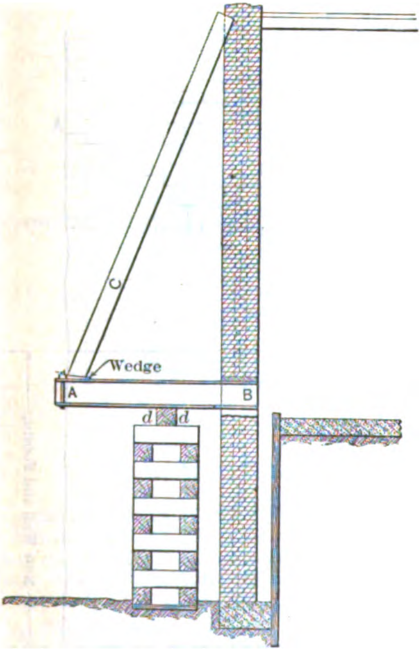

Fig. 53. The Figure-four Method of Needling

Removal of the Needles, etc. As soon as the entire weight of the wall has been transferred to the footing and the footing has demonstrated that it is capable of supporting the weight of the wall without further settlement, all of the temporary work, including the needles, can be removed, the needle-holes bricked up and the repairs made to the cellar of the adjoining building.

The Figure-Four Method of Needling. In certain cases it is impractical to employ a NEEDLE-BEAM projecting on both sides of the wall, as for example when the occupancy of the adjoining building is such as to make it impractical to have a needle-beam projecting into the cellar space. In such cases the so-called FIGURE-FOUR NEEDLE has been employed (Fig. 53). In this case the needle *AB* acts as a CANTILEVER. Part of the load of the wall is carried by the inclined shore *C* and another equal or nearly equal part is carried by the needle at *B*, the needle-beam *AB* being really balanced on the block *dd*.

Spring-Needles. Fig. 54 shows a method frequently employed, known as the SPRING-NEEDLE METHOD. In this case the needle engages with the wall to be supported and also with an adjoining wall. A temporary platform is placed as close to the wall to be supported, *W*, as is practicable. The uplift of the jack tending to lift the needle-beam acts on both walls, but on account of its being located nearer to the wall to be lifted, a large proportion of its effect is exerted thereon.

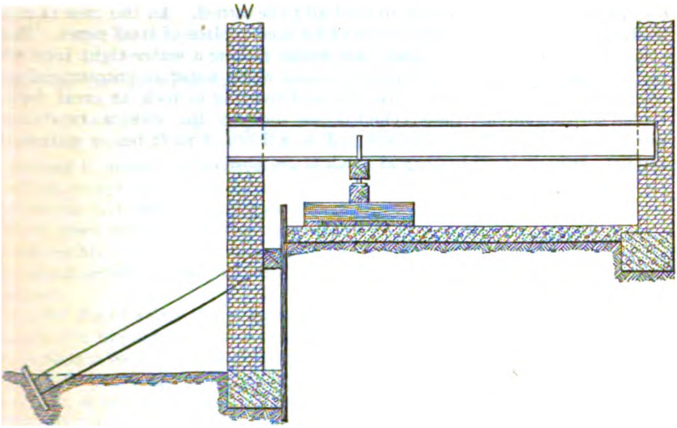

Fig. 54. The Spring-needle Method of Underpinning

Pipes or Cylinders for Underpinning are frequently used for the support of a wall and have many advantages, as they not only afford a support for the footing through the operations affecting the stability of the wall, but also form a permanent support. The operation in brief is as follows: A hole or niche is cut in the wall and footing to be supported, of sufficient size to permit the introduction of a section of STEEL PIPE, in such manner that the center of the pipe will come below the center of the wall to be supported, the height being sufficient to accommodate a section of pipe and also the means employed to drive it. The pipe may be driven (1) by HYDRAULIC JACKS or by SCREW-JACKS, placed between the top of the pipe and the wall itself, as by the patented BREUCHAUD METHOD; (2) it may be driven by means of a POWER-HAMMER driven either by steam or compressed air; or (3) in some cases, where the material is fine sand or clay, the pipe may be JETTED or the JET-METHOD may be used in combination with either jacks or power-hammers. In any case the first section of pipe is driven into the ground and additional sections are added until the lower end of the pipe encounters rock or some material possessing sufficient stability to insure the required support. The material entering the pipe is removed by a WATER-JET or by other means and the space filled with concrete. As soon as the concrete has set sufficiently the pipe is capped with a special casting on which short steel I beams are arranged to distribute the support of the pipe over a considerable part of the base of the wall to be supported. These I beams correspond to the wedging blocks used in the ordinary methods before described. vision is frequently made for STEEL WEDGES between the cap and the base steel beam, but it is generally found sufficient to thoroughly grout in the between the base of the wall and the steel beams after the niche itself has bricked up.

Cylinders for Underpinning Very Heavy Walls. The description i preceding paragraph is intended to cover the use of pipes varying in size 6 to 20-in in diameter, according to the load to be carried. In the case of e sively heavy walls, CAST-IRON CYLINDERS are used in place of steel pipes. cylinders are arranged in sections, each section making a water-tight joint the preceding section, and are generally used where water is encountered where it is necessary to carry down the underpinning to rock at great de Under such conditions these cylinders are sunk by the PNEUMATIC-CA METHOD. Such cylinders have been sunk to a depth of 70 ft below water and have been designed to carry as much as 400 tons.

CHAPTER III

MASONRY WALLS. FOOTINGS FOR LIGHT BUILDINGS.* CEMENTS AND CONCRETES

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1. Footings for Light Buildings

Footing Courses in General.† Every foundation or bearing wall overlying anything except solid rock should rest on a footing or base projecting beyond the wall on each side. On wet or very compressible soils these footings may be built of steel beams or of reinforced concrete, as described in Chapter II, but on reasonably firm soils and for buildings of moderate size and weight the footings are generally of concrete, stone, or brick. Footings answer two important purposes:

(1) By distributing the weight of a structure over a larger area of bearing surface, the pressure per square foot on the foundation-bed is diminished and the tendency to vertical settlement correspondingly lessened.

(2) By increasing the area of the base of a wall, footings add to its stability and form a protection against the danger of the work being thrown out of plumb by any forces that may act on it. Nearly every building law requires that every foundation wall or pier and every cellar or basement wall or pier shall have a footing at least 12 in wider, that is, 6 in on each side, than the thickness of the wall or pier, and this may be considered as the minimum projection, except in rare instances where there may be a special reason for making it less. On firm soils and for comparatively light buildings a projection of 6 in on each side of a wall will generally reduce the unit pressure, that is, the pressure per square foot, to the safe resistance of the soil, but it is always wise to proportion the footings to a uniform unit pressure, as explained in Chapter II, Subdivision 8. To have any useful effect, footings must be well bedded and have sufficient transverse strength to resist the upward reactions on the projections.

Stone Footings for Walls with Ordinary Loads. Stone cellar walls and basement walls generally have stone footings, although if the walls are heavily loaded a bottom footing of coarse concrete is advisable under the stone footing. If practicable, stone footings should consist of stones having a width equal to that of the footing. If impracticable to obtain stones of this size, then two stones should be used, meeting under the middle line of the wall. In any event each footing course should extend inside of the course above, a distance equal to at least one and one-half times the projection, otherwise the stones will not properly transmit the loads and reactions and the footing courses will tend to open at the joints, as in Fig. 1.

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* For a complete discussion of foundations in general and the mechanical principles involved in their strength and stability, for walls, piers, etc., below the basement or cellar floor, see Chapter II.

† For a complete discussion of footing courses for heavy buildings and of the theories of the stresses developed in offset, projecting, or cantilever footings, see Chapter II, especially Subdivisions 17 to 23.

Stone footings should be of hard, strong and durable stones, always laid on their natural bed and solidly bedded in mortar. As a general rule, for light buildings, and where the loads per unit of foundation-bed are much less than the allowable pressure, the thickness of each course is made about equal to its projection beyond the course above. The most common defect in large-stone footings is that the stones are not properly bedded, as it is more difficult to bed a large stone than a small one. The stones should be laid in a thick bed of mortar and worked sidewise with a bar until firmly settled in place.

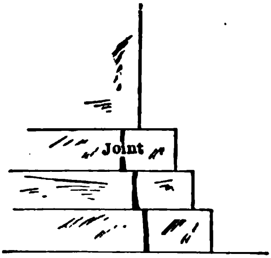

Fig. 1. Stone Footing. Openings at Joints

Offsets in Masonry Footings.[*] The projections of the footing courses beyond the wall, or beyond the courses above, must be carefully considered, whatever the material of the footings. If the projection of the footing or offset of the courses is too great for the strength of the stone, brick, or concrete, the footing will crack, as shown in Fig. 2. The proper offset for each course depends upon the vertical load, the transverse strength of the material, the resisting power of the foundation-bed and the thickness of the course.[†]

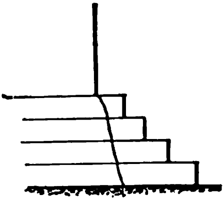

Fig. 2. Crack in Footing from Excessive Offsets

Tables for Offsets for Masonry Footing Courses.[‡] As stated in Chapter II, in the discussion of the design of stepped footings, there are rule-of-thumb methods giving so-called safe projections for given depths of footings or giving the ratios between the projections and the depths of the courses. Tables of offsets for footing courses of different materials have been computed from the flexure-formula applied to the projecting footing courses considered as CANTILEVER BEAMS uniformly loaded by the upward pressures on the under side. Although these tables, so computed, are incorporated in some building codes, they cannot be safely used without numerous restrictions, exceptions and modifications, and hence they are, in general, unreliable and of use only as approximations. As these tables are still inserted in engineers' and architects' handbooks, the table of offsets for masonry footing courses, in a revised form, is retained in this chapter with the recommendation that for footings of several offsets it be used with caution and that for such footings the methods explained in Chapter II be used when greater accuracy of results is required.

Notes Regarding Use of Table I. The values in Table I are computed from the formula $l = \frac{1}{6} d \sqrt{S_f/wf}$ which is derived from the FLEXURE-FORMULA for a uniformly loaded cantilever beam, and slightly changed to make the numerical coefficient of the second member of the equation the value shown.[§] In this equation, l = the maximum allowed offset of the footing course in inches, d = the thickness of the footing course in inches, S_f = the modulus of rupture

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[*] See Offset Footings, Chapter II, especially Subdivisions 17 and 22.

[†] See Chapter II, Subdivision 22, for a complete discussion of the principles involved in the design of projecting footings, ratio of projection to depth of footing, etc., for homogeneous slabs, separate-layer footings, etc.

[‡] See Chapter II, Subdivision 22, page 180.

[§] See, also, formula in Chapter II, Subdivision 22.

Table I. Approximate Values of Offsets for Masonry Footing Courses in Terms of the Thickness of the Course

The values are computed with a factor of safety of 10.

Material of the footings	S_f in pounds per square inch	w in tons per square foot		
		0.5	1.0	2.0
North River Bluestone (ordinary run)	3 000	4.1	2.9	2.0
Granite (average)	1 850	3.2	2.2	1.6
Limestone (average)	1 375	2.8	2.0	1.4
Sandstone (average)	1 375	2.8	2.0	1.4
Brickwork (good bricks in natural-cement mortar, 1 : 2, 60 days old)	125	0.8	0.6	0.4
Brickwork (hard-burned bricks in Portland-cement mortar, 1 : 3, 60 days old)	400	1.6	1.1	0.7
Concrete (Portland cement, 1 : 2 : 4, 1 month old)	300	1.3	0.9	0.6
Concrete (Portland cement, 1 : 2 : 4, 6 months old)	400	1.5	1.1	0.7

of the materials in pounds per square inch, w = the determined or assumed pressure on the bottom surface of the footing course considered, in tons of 2 000 per sq ft, and f = the factor of safety used. The table gives the values of l/d for three unit pressures w. For example, if w is taken at 2 tons per sq ft, then for limestone or sandstone footings l/d = 1.4, and if d, the thickness of the footing course, is 12 in, the offset or projection should be 16 or 17 in. The values given in the table for S_f, the modulus of rupture for the materials, differ very slightly from those given in Subdivision 22 of Chapter II, in Table I of Chapter XV and in Table III of Chapter XVI. If results are required based upon different fiber-stresses, upon a different factor of safety, or upon different pressures per square foot, the formula may be used instead of the table. It should always be borne in mind that as each footing course transmits the entire weight of the wall and its load, the pressure will be greater per square foot on the upper courses, and that the offsets should be made proportionately less; and that the values in Table I, when applied to stone-masonry footings, are really valid for the lower offset only, and then only when the footing is built of stones the thickness of which is equal to the thickness of the course, which have a projection of less than half their length, and which are well bedded in cement mortar.

Concrete Footings.* For buildings of great weight, except the very heaviest, and especially for those built on a clay soil, concrete generally makes the best footing, and it is even preferable to and generally cheaper than large slabs of stone. When the concrete is properly made and used, it attains a strength equal to that of most stones, and under walls, being devoid of joints, it is like a CONTINUOUS BEAM, having sufficient strength to span any soft spots that happen to be in the foundation-bed. When deposited in thin layers and well rammed, concrete becomes firmly bedded on the bottom of the trenches, so that there is no possible chance for settlement except that due to the compression of the soil.

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* For an example of concrete-footing design, see Chapter II, Subdivision 22. For reinforced-concrete-footing design, see Chapter II, Subdivision 24. See, also, Chapter XXV, paragraphs relating to footings, pages 978 to 982.

Preparing the Trenches. For footings, concrete made with Portland cement is preferable, and it should have a thickness of at least 8 in, even under light buildings; and for buildings of more than two stories, a thickness of at least 12 in. On firm soils, such as hard clay, the trenches should be accurately dug and trimmed to the exact width of the footings, so that the concrete will fill them. When the foundation-bed is of loose gravel or sand it is generally necessary to set up planks to confine the concrete and form the sides of the footings. These planks may be held in place by stakes; they should be left in place until the concrete has become hard, which generally requires from two to four days, after which they may be pulled up and dirt filled in against the concrete. The proportions and manner of mixing concrete are described in the latter part of this chapter.

Depositing the Concrete. Concrete should be used as soon as mixed and should always be deposited in layers, which as a rule should not exceed 6 in in thickness, especially for the first layer. On small jobs where the work is done by hand the concrete is usually carried to the trenches in wheel-barrows and dumped into the trenches. The height from which the concrete is dumped, however, should not exceed 4 ft above the bottom of the trench, because when it falls from a greater height the heavy particles are apt to separate from the lighter ones. As soon as the concrete has been deposited in the trenches, it should be leveled off and then tamped with a wooden rammer weighing about 20 lb, until the water in the concrete is brought to the surface. Concrete should not be permitted to dry too quickly, and if twenty-four hours elapse between the deposits of the successive layers, the top of each layer should be sprinkled before the next is put in place. For buildings over five stories high, it is a good idea to place a stone footing course above the concrete footing, if suitable stones for the purpose can be obtained.

Brick Footings. Where the foundation walls are of brick, the footings are usually brick or concrete. For interior walls on dry ground, and in many localities for outside walls, brick footings are fully as good as stone footings, provided good, hard bricks are used and the footings are properly built. Brick footings should always start with a DOUBLE COURSE on the foundation-bed and then be laid in single course for ordinary footings, the outside of the work being laid all HEADERS, as in the accompanying illustrations, and no course projecting more than one-fourth the length of a brick beyond the one above it, except in the case of an 8-in or 9-in wall. For brick footings under high or heavily loaded walls, each projecting course should be made double, the HEADER-COURSE above and the STRETCHER-COURSE below. Figs. 3, 4, 5 and 6 show footings for walls

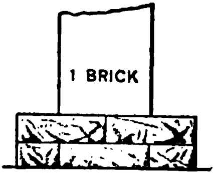

Fig. 3. Brick Footing. Wall One Brick Thick

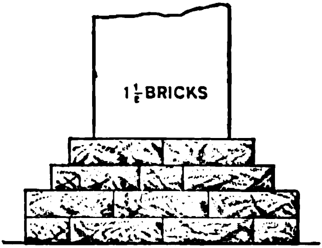

Fig. 4. Brick Footing. Wall One and One-half Bricks Thick

varying from one brick to three bricks in thickness. The bricks used for footings should be the hardest and soundest that can be obtained, should be laid in cement mortar and should be either grouted or thoroughly slushed up, so that every joint shall be entirely filled with mortar. The writer favors GROUTING for brick footings, that is, the using of a thin mortar to fill the inside joints, as he has always found that it gives very satisfactory results. The bottom course of the footing should always be laid in a bed of mortar spread on the bottom of the trench after the latter has been carefully leveled. All bricks laid in warm or dry weather should be thoroughly wet before laying, for, if laid dry, they rob the mortar of a large percentage of the moisture it contains, greatly weakening the adhesion and strength of the mortar. Careful attention should be given to the laying of the footing courses of buildings, as upon them the stability of the work largely depends. If the bottom courses are not solidly bedded, if any rents or voids are left in the beds of the masonry, or if the materials themselves are unsound or badly put together, defects in the superstructure are almost sure to show themselves sooner or later, and almost always at a period when remedial efforts are difficult and expensive.

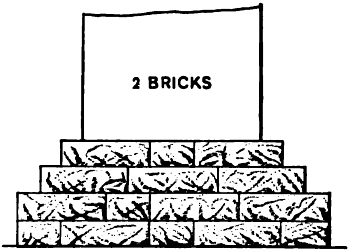

Fig. 5. Brick Footing. Wall Two Bricks Thick

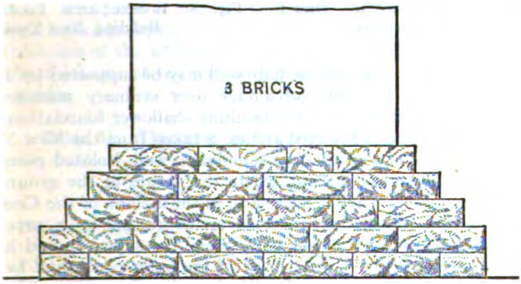

Fig. 6. Brick Footing. Wall Three Bricks Thick

Inverted Arches.* In a few buildings in which the external walls are divided into piers with wide openings between them, and in which the supporting power of the soil is not more than 2 or 3 tons per sq ft, it was thought desirable to connect the bases of the piers by means of INVERTED ARCHES, for the purpose of distributing the weight of the piers over the whole length of the footings. Examples of inverted-arch footings are shown in Figs. 7 † and 8,† which represent respectively the construction employed in the Drexel Building in Philadelphia and the World Building in New York City. Unless the piers are about equally loaded, however, it is generally impossible to distribute the weight evenly, and if the arches extend to an angle of the building, the end-arch must be provided with ties of sufficient strength to resist the THRUST of the arch, as otherwise it may push out the corner-pier. It is usually better to build the piers with separate footings, projecting equally on all sides of the pier, and each proportioned to the load supported. The intermediate wall may be supported by steel beams or by arches. About the only advantage over ordinary masonry footings possessed by inverted arches is in the resulting shallower foundations.

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* For an example worked out in full, showing the method of proportioning inverted arches, see Chapter III, Building Construction and Superintendence, Part I, Masons' Work, by F. E. Kidder.

† From the Engineering Record, May, 1899, and Nov., 1890.

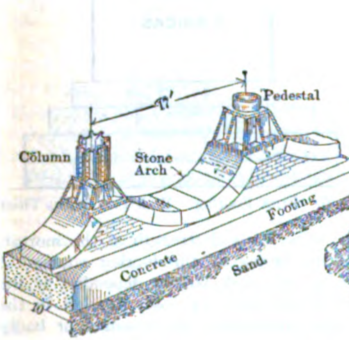

Fig. 7. Inverted-arch Footing. Drexel Building, Philadelphia

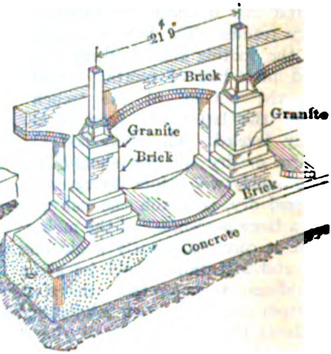

Fig. 8. Inverted-arch Footing. World Building, New York

The following, relating to inverted arches, is taken from the New York building law: "If, in place of a continuous foundation wall, isolated piers are to be built to support the superstructure, where the nature of the ground and the character of the building make it necessary, in the opinion of the Commissioner of Buildings having jurisdiction, inverted arches resting on a proper bed of concrete, both designed to transmit with safety the superimposed loads, shall be turned between the piers. The thrust of the outer piers shall be taken up by suitable wrought-iron or steel rods and plates." (Law of 1906.)

2. Cellar Walls and Basement Walls

Definitions. These terms are generally applied to walls which are below the surface of the ground or below the water-table or first-floor beams, which support the superstructure and which go down to the FOUNDATION WALLS, properly so called. (See Chapter II, Divisions 1 and 29.) Walls whose chief office is to withhold a bank of earth, such as the walls around areas, are called RETAINING-WALLS. (For retaining-walls, see Chapter IV.)

Materials for Cellar and Basement Walls. These walls may be built of brick, stone or concrete. BRICK is suitable only in very dry soils or for a party wall with a cellar or basement on each side of it. PORTLAND-CEMENT CONCRETE is an excellent material for foundation walls, and is being more extensively used in their construction every year. The concrete may be filled in between wooden forms, which hold it in place until it has set, or concrete blocks molded so as to form a solid wall may be used. If POURED CONCRETE is used the forms should be removed as soon as the concrete has set and the walls should be sprinkled once or twice a day, if the weather is dry, so that the concrete will not dry too quickly Good hard LEDGE-STONE, especially if it comes from the quarry with flat beds, makes not only a strong wall but, if well built, one that will stand the effects of moisture and the pressure of the earth much better than a brick wall. Between a good stone wall and a wall of Portland-cement concrete, there is probably not much choice, except perhaps in the matter of expense, the relative cost of stonework and concrete varying in different localities. A wall built of soft stones, or stones that are very irregular in shape, with no flat surfaces, is greatly inferior to a concrete wall, or even to a wall of good hard bricks, and should be used only for dwellings or light buildings. Stone walls should never be less than 18 in thick, and should be well bonded, with full and three-quarter headers, and all spaces between the stones should be filled solid with mortar and broken stones or spalls. The MORTAR for stonework should be made of cement and sharp and rather coarse sand. The outside walls of cellars and basements should be PLASTERED smooth on the outside with 1 : 2, or 1 : 1½ cement mortar, from ½ to ¾ in thick. In heavy-clay soils it is a good idea to BATTER the walls on the outside, making them from 6 in to 1 ft thicker at the bottom than at the top.

Thickness of Cellar and Basement Walls. This is usually governed by that of the walls above, and also by the depth of the wall. Nearly all building regulations require that the thickness of the cellar and basement wall, to the depth of 12 ft below the grade-line, shall be 4 in greater than the thickness of the wall above for brick, and 8 in greater for stone, and that for every additional 10 ft or part thereof in depth, the thickness shall be increased 4 in. In all large cities the thickness of the walls of buildings is controlled by law. For buildings in which the thickness of the walls is not so governed, the following table will serve as a guide:

Table II. Thickness of Cellar and Basement Walls

Height of building	Dwellings, hotels, etc.		Warehouses	
	Brick, in	Stone, in	Brick, in	Stone, in
Two stories	12 or 16	20	16	20
Three stories	16	20	20	24
Four stories	20	24	24	28
Five stories	24	28	24	28
Six stories	28	32	28	32

3. Walls of the Superstructure

Brick and Stone Walls. Very little is known regarding the STABILITY of walls of buildings beyond what has been gained by practical experience. The only stresses in any horizontal sections of such walls, which can be determined with any accuracy, are the direct weight of the walls above and the pressure due to the floors and roof. In most walls, however, there is a tendency to BUCKLE, to overcome which it is necessary to make them thicker than would be required to resist the DIRECT CRUSHING STRESS. The resistance to fire should also be taken into account in deciding upon the thickness of any given wall.

The strength of a wall depends also very much upon the quality of the materials used and upon the way in which the wall is built. A wall bonded every 12 in in height, and with every joint slushed full with good rich mortar, is as strong as a poorly built wall 4 in thicker. Walls laid with cement mortar are also much stronger than those laid with lime mortar, and a brick wall built with bricks that have been well wet just before laying is very much stronger than one built with dry bricks.

Thickness of External Walls. In nearly all the larger cities of the country the minimum thickness of the walls is prescribed by law or ordinance, and as these requirements are generally ample they are commonly adhered to by architects when designing brick buildings. Table III * gives the thickness of brick walls required for MERCANTILE BUILDINGS in representative cities of different sections of the United States, and affords about as good a guide as one can have, because the values given, as a rule, represent the judgment of well-qualified and experienced persons. Walls for DWELLINGS are generally permitted to be 4 in less in thickness than for warehouses, although in some cities little or no distinction is made between business blocks and dwellings.

Table IV gives the thickness required for the brick walls of dwellings, tenements, hotels and office-buildings in Chicago. The thickness given is the minimum that should be allowed for the walls of such buildings. Most cities require 13-in walls for the upper story of three-story buildings and for large two-story dwellings. In St. Louis the two upper stories of dwellings are required to be 13 in, the next two below, 18 in, the next two 22 in, and the next two 26 in thick.

In compiling Table III the top of the second floor was taken at 19 ft above the sidewalk, and the height of the other stories at 13 ft 4 in, including the thickness of the floor, as the New York and Boston laws and the laws of some other cities give the height of the walls in feet instead of in stories. When the height of stories exceeds these measurements the thickness of the walls in some cases will have to be increased. The Chicago ordinance (1914) specifies that "where 12-in walls are used, the story-heights shall not exceed 18 ft, where 16-in walls are used, the story-heights shall not exceed 24 ft, and where 20-in walls are used, the story-heights shall not exceed 30 ft."

General Rule for Thickness of Walls. Although there are great differences in the thicknesses given in Table III, more indeed than there should be, a general rule might be formulated from it, for MERCANTILE BUILDINGS over four stories in height, which would be somewhat as follows:

For bricks equal to those used in Boston or Chicago, make the thickness of the three upper stories 16 in, of the next three below 20 in, the next three 24 in and the next three 28 in. For a poorer quality of material make only the two upper stories 16 in thick, the next three 20 in, and so on down. In buildings less than five stories in height the top story may be 12 in thick.

In determining the thickness of walls the following general principles should be recognized:

(1) That walls of warehouses and mercantile buildings should be heavier than those used for living or office purposes.

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* Since this table was compiled, some provisions of some laws have been changed, but the requirements relating to the thicknesses of walls vary but little from those given. As building laws of different cities are amended from time to time, architects and builders must be guided by the code in force in the city in which a building is to be erected. The table represents the average requirements at the present time (1915) and is useful for comparative purposes and as a guide for those building outside of cities, or where no special building laws are in force.

Table III.* Thickness in Inches of Walls for Mercantile Buildings and, Except in Chicago, for All Buildings Over Five Stories in Height

Height and location of building		Stories							
		1st	2d	3d	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th
Two stories	Boston	16	12	....	....	....	....	....	....
	New York	12	12	....	....	....	....	....	....
	Chicago	12	12	....	....	....	....	....	....
	Minneapolis	12	12	....	....	....	....	....	....
	St. Louis	18	13	....	....	....	....	....	....
	Denver	13	13	....	....	....	....	....	....
	San Francisco	17	13	....	....	....	....	....	....
	New Orleans	13	13	....	....	....	....	....	....
Three stories	Boston	20	16	16	....	....	....	....	....
	New York	16	16	12	....	....	....	....	....
	Chicago	16	12	12	....	....	....	....	....
	Minneapolis	16	12	12	....	....	....	....	....
	St. Louis	18	18	13	....	....	....	....	....
	Denver	17	17	13	....	....	....	....	....
	San Francisco	17	17	13	....	....	....	....	....
	New Orleans	13	13	13	....	....	....	....	....
Four stories	Boston	20	16	16	16	....	....	....	....
	New York	16	16	16	12	....	....	....	....
	Chicago	20	16	16	12	....	....	....	....
	Minneapolis	16	16	12	12	....	....	....	....
	St. Louis	22	18	18	13	....	....	....	....
	Denver	21	17	17	13	....	....	....	....
	San Francisco	17	17	17	13	....	....	....	....
	New Orleans	18	18	13	13	....	....	....	....
Five stories	Boston	20	20	20	20	16	....	....	....
	New York	20	16	16	16	16	....	....	....
	Chicago	20	20	16	16	16	....	....	....
	Minneapolis	20	16	16	12	12	....	....	....
	St. Louis	22	22	18	18	13	....	....	....
	Denver	21	21	17	17	13	....	....	....
	San Francisco	21	17	17	17	13	....	....	....
	New Orleans	18	18	18	13	13	....	....	....
Six stories	Boston	24	20	20	20	20	16	....	....
	New York	24	20	20	20	16	16	....	....
	Chicago	20	20	20	16	16	16	....	....
	Minneapolis	20	20	16	16	16	12	....	....
	St. Louis	26	22	22	18	18	13	....	....
	Denver	26	21	21	17	17	13	....	....
	San Francisco	21	21	17	17	17	13	....	....
	New Orleans	22	18	18	18	13	13	....	....
Seven stories	Boston	24	20	20	20	20	20	16	....
	New York	28	24	24	20	20	16	16	....
	Chicago	20	20	20	20	16	16	16	....
	Minneapolis	20	20	20	16	16	16	12	....
	St. Louis	26	26	22	22	18	18	13	....
	Denver	26	21	21	21	17	17	17	....
	New Orleans	22	22	18	18	18	13	13	....
Eight stories	Boston	28	24	20	20	20	20	20	16
	New York	32	28	24	24	20	20	16	16
	Chicago	24	24	20	20	20	16	16	16
	Minneapolis	24	20	20	20	16	16	16	12
	St. Louis	30	26	26	22	22	18	18	13
	Denver	30	26	21	21	21	17	17	17
	New Orleans	22	22	22	18	18	18	13	13

* See footnote on page 230.

Table III (Continued).* Thickness in Inches of Walls for Mercantile Buildings and, Except in Chicago, for all Buildings Over Five Stories in Height

Height and location of building		Stories											
		1st	2d	3d	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
Nine stories	Boston	28	24	24	20	20	20	20	20	16	....	....	....
	New York	32	32	28	24	24	20	20	16	16	....	....	....
	Chicago	24	24	24	20	20	20	16	16	16	....	....	....
	Minneapolis	24	24	20	20	20	16	16	16	12	....	....	....
	St. Louis	30	30	26	26	22	22	18	18	13	....	....	....
	Denver	30	26	26	21	21	21	17	17	17	....	....	....
Ten stories	Boston	28	28	24	24	20	20	20	20	20	16	....	....
	New York	36	32	32	28	24	24	20	20	16	16	....	....
	Chicago	28	28	24	24	24	20	20	20	16	16	....	....
	Minneapolis	24	24	24	20	20	20	16	16	16	12	....	....
	St. Louis	34	30	30	26	26	22	22	18	18	13	....	....
	Denver	30	30	26	26	21	21	21	17	17	17	....	....
Eleven stories	Boston	36	32	32	28	28	24	20	20	20	20	16	....
	New York	36	36	32	28	28	24	24	20	20	16	16	....
	Chicago	28	28	24	24	24	20	20	20	16	16	16	....
	St. Louis	34	34	30	30	26	26	22	22	18	18	13	....
	Denver	30	30	26	26	26	21	21	21	17	17	17	....
Twelve stories	Boston	36	36	32	32	28	28	24	20	20	20	20	16
	New York	40	36	36	32	32	28	24	24	20	20	16	16
	Chicago	28	28	28	24	24	24	20	20	20	16	16	16
	St. Louis	34	34	34	30	30	26	26	22	22	18	18	13
	Denver	30	30	30	26	26	26	21	21	21	17	17	17

* See footnote on page 230.

Table IV.† Thickness of Enclosing Walls for Residences, Tenements, Hotels and Office-Buildings. Chicago Building Ordinance

Number of stories	Basement	Stories											
		1st	2d	3d	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
Basement and One-story	12	8	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Two-story	12	12	8	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Three-story	16	12	12	8	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Four-story	20	16	16	12	12	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Five-story	20	16	16	16	12	12	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Six-story	20	20	16	16	16	12	12	....	....	....	....	....	....
Seven-story	24	24	20	20	16	16	12	12	....	....	....	....	....
Eight-story	24	24	24	20	20	16	16	12	12	....	....	....	....
Nine-story	28	24	24	20	20	20	16	16	12	12	....	....	....
Ten-story	28	24	24	24	20	20	20	16	16	12	12	....	....
Eleven-story	28	28	24	24	24	20	20	20	16	16	12	12	...
Twelve-story	32	28	28	24	24	24	20	20	20	16	16	12	12

† These thicknesses are allowed when certain requirements are fulfilled in regard to lengths of walls, heights of stories, etc. For these modifying restrictions and for the classifications of buildings in regard to their uses the building laws must be consulted. The table is inserted in this form as a useful general guide and as an illustration of the average contemporary practice.

(2) That high stories and clear spans exceeding 25 ft require thicker walls.

(3) That the length of a wall is a source of weakness, and that the thickness should be increased 4 in for every 25 ft over 100 or 125 ft in length. In New York the thicknesses given in the table must be increased for buildings exceeding 105 ft in depth on the lot. In Western cities the tables are compiled fo warehouses 125 ft in depth, as that is the usual depth of lots in those cities.

(4) That walls containing over 33% of openings should be increased in thickness.

(5) That partition walls may be 4 in less in thickness than the outside walls if not over 60 ft long, but that no partition should be less than 8 in thick.

Walls Faced with Ashlar. "In reckoning the thickness of walls, ASHLAR shall not be included unless the walls are at least 16 in thick and the ashlar is at least 8 in thick, or unless alternate courses are at least 4 and 8 in to allow bonding with the backing. Ashlar shall be properly held by metal clamps to the backing or properly bonded to the same." *

Stone Walls should generally be 4 in thicker than required for brick walls.

Hollow Walls.† Hollow walls are undoubtedly desirable for dwellings, and might well be used for other buildings not more than four or five stories in height, account of the security afforded from the weather. Owing to the fact that they are usually more expensive than solid walls and occupy more space, they are not very extensively used in this country.

The Boston building law requires that "vaulted walls shall contain, exclusive of withes, the same amount of material as is required for solid walls, and the masonry on the inside of the air-space in walls over two stories in height shall be not less than 8 in thick, and the parts on either side shall be securely tied together with ties not more than 2 ft apart in each direction."

Walls of Concrete Blocks. Blocks made of Portland-cement concrete, and formed in molds, are frequently used for building walls and partitions that are comparatively thin and bear light loads. Patents have been taken out on different forms of blocks and on machines or processes for making the same, and many buildings have been erected with walls built of these blocks. Most of the blocks are molded so as to form hollow walls. Block construction of this kind has an advantage over poured walls, in that the blocks are thoroughly seasoned before they are set and hence no provision is required for expansion or contraction. For the thin, light walls above mentioned the concrete-block construction is better adapted than solid concrete. The expense of forms is avoided and also the tendency to crack and to leave an unsatisfactory surface-finish. Concrete blocks may be substituted for any ordinary stone or brick masonry. Building laws usually require the thickness of walls of hollow concrete blocks to be not less than that required for brick walls. They should not be used in party walls. (See, also, Chapter XXIII, Subdivision 2.)

Walls of Hollow Tiles. Hollow tiles are used for the external walls of dwellings and sometimes for factories in some locations and under certain restrictions. For example, the building laws (1913) of the District of Columbia allow approved hollow tiles, not less than 12 in in thickness, to be used for the external walls of dwellings located not less than 3 ft from the side or party line of the lot. The Philadelphia laws do not allow the use of hollow tiles for any external wall or heavy bearing partition. As far as fire-resistance is concerned, construction of hollow tiles is, of course, superior to wooden construction, and its use is increasing, the outside walls being usually covered with cement or stucco, although occasionally left with the finished texture of the tile surface. The reason hollow tiles are prohibited by building ordinances for certain uses is because when heated and then suddenly cooled by water they are apt to crack from the sudden contraction. Recent conflagrations have shown that hard-burned terra-cotta will crack and fall to pieces under severe heat alone. (See, also, Chapter XXIII, Subdivision 2.)

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* Boston Building Law, in force in 1915.

† For a full description of the details of construction of hollow, brick walls, see pages 367 to 375 of Building Construction and Superintendence, Part I, Masons' Work, by F. E. Kidder.

Party Walls. There is much diversity in building regulations regarding the thickness of party walls, although they all agree in that such walls should never be less than 12 in thick. About one-half of the laws require that party walls shall be of the same thickness as external walls; the remainder are about equally divided between making the party walls 4 in thicker or thinner than for independent side walls. When the walls are proportioned by the rule previously given the author believes that the thickness of the party walls should be increased 4 in in each story. The floor-load on party walls is obviously twice that on side walls, and the necessity for thorough fire-protection is greater in the case of party walls than in other walls.

Enclosing Walls for Steel, Skeleton Construction. In buildings of the skeleton type the outer masonry walls are usually supported either in every story or every other story by the steel framework, and carry nothing but their own weight. Such walls may, therefore, be considered as only one or two stories high, and are usually made only 12 in thick for the whole height of a twelve-story or fifteen-story building. For SKELETON CONSTRUCTION, the Chicago ordinance allows ENCLOSING WALLS of 12-in thickness for all stories. The New York City building law requires the use of 12-in enclosing walls for 75 ft of the uppermost height thereof, or to the nearest tier of beams to that measurement, and 4 in additional thickness for every lower 60-ft section or to the nearest tier of beams to such vertical measurement, down to the tier of beams nearest to the curb-level. But, on account of the severity of some of the requirements as applied to very high buildings of skeleton construction, permission is frequently given by the Commissioners of Buildings, who are empowered to modify the building laws within certain limits, to reduce the thicknesses of curtain walls for very high buildings, according to the peculiar circumstances of each case, without endangering the strength and safety of the building. A few of the earlier tall buildings were built with SELF-SUSTAINING WALLS, starting from the foundation, while columns were introduced merely to support the floors and to give additional stiffness. "The World Building, New York City, erected in 1890, is an extreme example of high-building construction, with self-sustaining walls. The main roof is 191 ft above the street-level, making thirteen main stories, above which is a dome containing six stories, in all, a height of 275 ft above the street. The self-sustaining walls are built of sandstone, brick and terra-cotta, the thickness increasing from 2 ft at the top to as much as 11 ft 4 in near the bottom, where the walls are offset to a concrete footing 15 ft wide. The walls are vertical on the outside faces, the thickness being varied by inside offsets, so that the columns are recessed into the walls at the bottom, but emerge and are some distance clear of the walls at the top." *

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* From Architectural Engineering, by J. K. Freitag.

4. Natural Cements *

Properties and Uses of Natural Cements. The first hydraulic cements used in this country were NATURAL CEMENTS, manufactured by the calcination of argillaceous limestone containing sufficient silica, alumina and iron oxide to confer hydraulic properties when the burned rock was pulverized and gauged with water. These natural cements were very widely manufactured and used until recent years, when they have been practically completely replaced by Portland cement. Natural cements vary in color from light yellow to dark brown according to the content of oxide of iron, and in distinction to Portland cements they are not uniform in their composition or behavior. The chemical composition and physical characteristics of various natural cements vary within wide limits, not only between cements manufactured in different mills, but between the products of the same mill at different times. Natural cements set more rapidly than Portland cements and are slower in developing strength. The production of natural cement in the United States for 1913 was 800 000 barrels, while during the same year the production of Portland cement was 92 000 000 barrels; from which it is seen that the natural-cement industry is relatively almost extinct. Natural cement may be used in massive masonry where weight rather than strength is the essential feature. It is used, also, for certain special purposes, such as in the manufacture of safes and in certain industries where a quick-setting cement is necessary. Where economy is the governing factor, a comparison may be made between the use of natural cement and a leaner mixture of Portland cement that will develop the same strength.

Weight. The specifications of the American Society for Testing Materials require that a bag of natural cement shall contain 94 lb, net, of cement, and that each barrel of natural cement shall contain three bags of this NET WEIGHT.

Strength. A natural-cement mortar, in order to comply with the requirements of the standard specifications of the American Society for Testing Materials, must show a TENSILE STRENGTH, for the neat cement, of at least 150 lb per sq in, when one week old, and 250 lb at the end of 28 days; or, when mixed with three parts of standard Ottawa sand, 50 lb at the end of one week, and 125 lb at the end of 28 days. The strength of 1 : 2 natural-cement mortar is about equal to that of 1 : 4 Portland-cement mortar.

Proportions of Natural Cement and Sand for Mortar and Concrete. For mortar for rubble-stone masonwork and ordinary brickwork, one part of natural cement may be mixed with three parts of sand, by measure.

Hydraulic Lime. A product closely related to natural cement is HYDRAULIC LIME. This is manufactured in the same way as natural cement, but the rock used contains sufficient lime to permit it to slake like quicklime. When the resulting product is pulverized, it sets and hardens as an hydraulic cement. Hydraulic limes are largely manufactured in Europe, and especially in France and Belgium, but in the United States they have been manufactured only in a few localities. This is due to the fact that while rock of suitable composition is widely found, the impurities are not uniformly distributed through it, but are found in layers or seams which prevent the material from being uniformly burned. The portion of the rock immediately adjacent to and including the seam of impurities overburns, frequently melting like a slag, while the purer portions consist simply of quicklime; and while the resulting mass slakes partly, the product when pulverized is unreliable as a cement.

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* Practical data relating to Cements, Limes and Plasters were furnished the Editor by the Charles Warner Company of Wilmington, Del. For Limes and Plasters, see Part III, pages 1462 to 1472.

Grappier Cement is a BY-PRODUCT produced during the calcination of HYDRAULIC LIME.

La Farge Cement is an imported NON-STAINING GRAPPIER CEMENT. It develops nearly the same strength as the Portland cements.

5. Artificial Cements

The Artificial Cements used in the United States include Portland cement and Puzzolan or slag cement.

Portland Cement. The principal artificial cement in this country to-day is PORTLAND CEMENT. It is manufactured from two raw materials which are ground to extreme fineness to secure an intimate mix before burning, and it is from this fact that it derives its name, ARTIFICIAL CEMENT. These materials must be so proportioned that in the finished cement, silica, alumina, iron oxide and lime will be present in a certain ratio which must be maintained within close limits. In the Lehigh Valley region of Pennsylvania, in which are located some of the leading Portland-cement mills of the United States, the raw materials used are limestone and cement-rock. The cement-rock is an impure limestone carrying argillaceous or clay-matter. In order to bring the lime-content up to the required percentage, it is usually found necessary in this region to add limestone. In other districts the raw materials used are limestone and clay, limestone and shale, marl and clay and also blast-furnace slag and limestone. The product from the last-mentioned mixture should not be confused with the common slag cement or Puzzolan cement, as the slag is simply used as a raw material supplying silica, alumina, iron oxide and lime; and with the exception of the use of slag to furnish these ingredients, the process of manufacture and the properties are substantially the same as for the other Portland cements. The raw mix in a Portland cement mill is analyzed at most mills several times each hour to keep the composition of the cement within the proper limits. The raw material, which is pulverized as fine as the finished cement, is burned in rotary kilns, the fuel used in most instances being powdered coal. From the kiln it issues in the form of CLINKER, the name given to the semivitrified product. After cooling, calcium sulphate in the form of gypsum is added to control the set and the product is pulverized and packed for shipment. The manufacture and properties of Portland cement have been made the subject of careful study by the American Society for Testing Materials and by the American Society of Civil Engineers. The result of this study is embodied in the standard specifications of the American Society for Testing Materials, extracts from which are given in the paragraphs following. These specifications furnish a reliable guide for the acceptance or rejection of any shipment of cement and have been very widely adopted by the leading architects and engineers of this country. These specifications do not stipulate that Portland cement shall consist of any one particular composition, but in this respect confine themselves to the limitation of the magnesia (MgO) and anhydrous sulphuric acid (SO_3) content. The reason for this is that with different raw materials it is found necessary to vary the composition of the cement to obtain the correct physical properties in the finished material. Different cements which satisfy the requirements of these standard specifications are generally considered satisfactory cements for use, although the composition of one may vary in some particulars from that of another. The CHEMICAL COMPOSITION of a good brand of Portland cement is about as follows: Lime, 62; silica, 23; alumina, 8; and impurities, such as iron oxide, magnesia, and sulphuric acid, 7.

STANDARD SPECIFICATIONS FOR PORTLAND CEMENT.* The following extracts give the most important requirements for Portland cement:

DEFINITION. This term is applied to the finely pulverized product resulting from the calcination to incipient fusion of an intimate mixture of properly proportioned argillaceous and calcareous materials, and to which no addition greater than 3% has been made subsequent to calcination.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY. The specific gravity of cement shall be not less than 3.10. Should the test of cement as received fall below this requirement, a second test may be made upon a sample ignited at low red heat. The loss in weight of the ignited cement shall not exceed 4%.

FINENESS. It shall leave by weight a residue of not more than 8% on the No. 100, and not more than 25% on the No. 200 sieve.

TIME OF SETTING. It shall not develop initial set in less than 30 minutes, and must develop hard set in not less than 1 hour, nor more than 10 hours.

TENSILE STRENGTH. The minimum requirements for tensile strength for briquettes 1 sq in in cross-section shall be as follows, and the cement shall show no retrogression in strength within the periods specified:

NEAT CEMENT

AGE	STRENGTH
24 hours in moist air	175 lb per sq in
7 days (1 day in moist air, 6 days in water)	500 lb per sq in
28 days (1 day in moist air, 27 days in water)	600 lb per sq in

ONE PART CEMENT, THREE PARTS STANDARD OTTAWA SAND

AGE	STRENGTH
7 days (1 day in moist air, 6 days in water)	200 lb per sq in
28 days (1 day in moist air, 27 days in water)	275 lb per sq in

CONSTANCY OF VOLUME. Pats of neat cement about 3 in in diameter, ½ in in thickness at the center, and tapering to a thin edge, shall be kept in moist air for a period of 24 hours.

(1) A pat is then kept in air at normal temperature and observed at intervals for at least 28 days.

(2) Another pat is kept in water maintained as near 70° F. as practicable, and observed at intervals for at least 28 days.

(3) A third pat is exposed in any convenient way in an atmosphere of steam, above boiling water, in a loosely closed vessel for 5 hours.

These pats, to satisfactorily pass the requirements, shall remain firm and hard and show no signs of distortion, checking, cracking, or disintegrating.

SULPHURIC ACID AND MAGNESIA. The cement shall not contain more than 1.75% of anhydrous sulphuric acid (SO_3), nor more than 4% of magnesia (MgO).

Puzzolan or Slag Cements are not used extensively and never in important work. Their manufacture and properties may be briefly described as follows: Blast-furnace basic slag is granulated by running it in a molten condition into water. This accomplishes two objects. The slag is broken up into fine particles and the sudden chilling enhances its hydraulic properties. These particles are dried and ground with hydrated lime, in the proportion of from 15 to 25% of hydrated lime and from 75 to 85% of granulated slag. Such cement, known as SLAG CEMENT, is slow-setting and slow-hardening, and does not develop as much strength as natural or Portland cement. Slag cements are characterized by their light lilac color, their extreme fineness and their low specific gravity. They are considered unreliable for use except for foundation-work under ground where they are not exposed to air or running water.

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* From the Standard Specifications for Cement adopted August 16, 1909, by the American Society for Testing Materials. See, also, Chapter XXIV, page 912, where, in a foot-note, reference is made to a Report of a Joint Conference, published April 28, 1915, recommending changes in the standard specifications for cement.

Stainless Cements. Any ordinary Portland or natural cement will stain limestones, some porous marbles, some granites and some other light-colored stones. The best non-staining material is lime, that is, lime free from excess of iron oxide. There are some Portland cements, however, which are called NON-STAINING CEMENTS, and where care is used in their manufacture and they are free or comparatively free from iron oxide, they cause no trouble. Among the non-staining cements which have been extensively used for masonry on which staining would be objectionable, is La Farge Cement, before mentioned. It is made at Teil, France, is light-colored and contains a small percentage of iron and soluble salts. There are other non-staining cements on the market. For setting stones, and in order to RETARD THE SETTING of the cement until the stones are well bedded, 1 part by volume of lime-paste is usually mixed with 4 parts of the cement.

Cost of Portland Cement. Portland cement can now (1915) be purchased in this country at prices ranging from 90 cents to $2.50 per barrel, free on board cars at the mills. The cost of the sacks and the freight are extra. The retail price for single barrels varies from about $2.00 to $2.50 per barrel. As a rule, the cost of cement in carload lots is about 85 cts per bbl at the mills. An extra charge of 10 cts per bbl for bags is made when the cement is delivered in paper bags. The extra charge is 40 cts, if delivered in cloth, but the mills refund this 40 cts when the bags are returned in good condition. There is a charge of 40 cts when the cement is furnished in wooden barrels and no allowance is made for barrels returned. It is generally cheaper in the end to buy the cement in cloth bags and return the empty bags. For about 500 miles, the freight-charges are about 40 cts per bbl of cement, making the total cost per bbl for this distance $1.25, when purchased in cloth bags and when the 40 cts per bag are refunded. Testing costs from 3 to 5 cts per bbl, or from $5 to $6 per carload. Unloading and storing near the station cost about 3 cts per bbl, and about 2 cts per bbl are usually added to the costs to allow for handling and returning empty sacks, and freight-charges for and damage to same. Teaming costs about 5 cts per bbl per mile. The total cost, therefore, according to these average costs, is about $1.38 per bbl for the cement ready for use for mortar or concrete. (For Cost of Concrete, see page 249.)

Water Required in Mixing Cement Mortar. Good Portland cement requires relatively little water to make a good mortar. Neat cement will take from 20 to 22% (by weight) of water to produce the normal consistency, a quick-setting cement requiring more water than one that is slow-setting. If a greater quantity of water is required, it indicates the presence of an excess of free lime. When sand is mixed with cement, in the proportion of 3 to 1, not more than from 9 to 12½% (by weight) of water will be required. Natural cements and slag cements require more water than do Portland cements. Too much water drowns the cement, retards the setting and weakens the mortar. Cements can also be weakened or even spoiled by a deficiency of water.

Portland-Cement Mortar. For first-class mortar not more than 3 bbl of sand should be added to 1 bbl of cement. For rubble stonework under ordinary conditions a mortar composed of 4 parts of sand to 1 of cement will answer every purpose, and be much stronger than lime mortar. For the top surface of floors and walks, from 1 to 1½ parts of sand may be mixed with 1 part of cement.

1 to 3 Portland-cement mortar has about the same strength at the end of one year as 1 to 1 natural-cement mortar. Mortar made with fine sand requires a much larger quantity of cement to obtain a given strength than mortar made with coarse sand.

Effects of Low Temperatures and Freezing on Cement Mortars. The rate of setting and hardening of cement mortar is greatly affected by the temperature, and the exposure and loading of new work often depends upon the prevailing temperature. The freezing of natural-cement mortars should be entirely avoided as it seriously injures them. Although freezing greatly retards the hardening of Portland-cement mortars and concretes, it does not appear to injure them. Thin coats of mortar, such as plaster, and troweled surfaces or those on which free moisture is formed should not be applied in freezing weather as they are apt to scale. In general, it is undesirable to work with mortar or concrete in freezing weather, as the difficulties of properly mixing and placing the materials are then increased; it must be admitted, however, that successful work with Portland-cement mortar and concrete has been done in temperatures considerably below freezing.

The Effect of Salt in Mortar. When salt is added to the water of mixture, the freezing-point is lowered, and, within certain limits, the freezing of the mortar or concrete is prevented. The ultimate strength of mortar does not appear to be reduced when the amount of salt does not exceed 10%. Tetmajer gives the amount of salt required to lower the freezing-temperature as equal to 1% of the weight of the water per degree F. below 32°. The rule for the proportion of salt used in the works at Woolwich Arsenal, is said to have been as follows: "Dissolve 1 lb of rock-salt in 18 gal of water when the temperature is at 32° F., and add 3 oz of salt for every three degrees of lower temperature."

Effect of Hot Water and of Soda. Hot water hastens the setting of Portland-cement mortar, and 2 lb of carbonate of soda in 1 gal of water, boiled and mixed in mortar, hastens the setting and lessens the danger of freezing.

Quantity of Mortar required for Masonry and Plastering.* "One bbl of Portland cement and 3 bbl of sand, thoroughly and properly mixed, will make 3½ bbl, or 12 cu ft of good strong mortar. This will be sufficient to lay up 1½ cu yd of rough stone, or about 750 bricks, with from ¼ to ⅜-in joints, or cover 125 sq ft of surface, 1 in thick, or 250 sq ft, ½ in thick."

"One bbl of natural cement and 2 bbl of lime, mixed with about ½ bbl of water, will make 8 cu ft of mortar, sufficient to lay 522 common bricks, with from ¼ to ⅜-in joints, or about 1 cu yd of rough rubble."

For the top coat of walks or floors, 1 bbl of Portland cement and 1 of sand will cover from 75 to 80 sq ft, ½ in thick, or from 50 to 56 sq ft, ¾ in thick.

One bbl of Portland cement and 1½ bbl of sand will cover from 110 to 120 sq ft of floor, ½ in thick, or from 75 to 80 sq ft, ¾ in thick.

The Mixing of Mortar. Mortar may be mixed by hand or by mechanical mixers, the latter being preferable for the mixing of large quantities. When the mixing is by hand, it should be done on platforms made water-tight to prevent the loss of cement. The cement and sand should be mixed dry in small batches and in the proportions required, the platform being clean. Water is added and the whole mass remixed until it is homogeneous and leaves the mixing hoe clean when drawn out. Mortar should never be retempered after it has begun to set.

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* These figures can be considered as approximate only, as the amount of mortar will vary on different jobs.

Adhesive Strength of Portland Cement, Sulphur and Lead for Anchoring Bolts.[*] "Fourteen holes were drilled in a ledge of solid limestone, seven of them being 1⅜ and seven 1⅝ in in diameter, and all being 3½ ft deep. Seven ¾ and seven 1-in bolts were prepared with thread and nut on one end and with the other end plain but ragged for a length of 3½ ft.

"Four were anchored with sulphur, four with lead and six with cement, mixed neat. Half the number of the ¾-in and 1-in bolts being thus anchored with each of the three materials, all stood until the cement was two weeks old. Then a lever was rigged and the bolts pulled, with the following results.

"Sulphur: Three bolts out of four developed their full strength 16 000 and 31 000 lb. One 1-in bolt failed by drawing out, under 12 000 lb. Lead: Three bolts out of four developed their full strength, as above. One 1-in bolt pulled out, under 13 000 lb. Cement: Five of the bolts out of six broke without pulling out. One 1-in bolt began to yield in the cement at 26 000 lb, but sustained the load a few seconds before it broke.

"While this experiment demonstrated the superiority of cement, both as to strength and ease of application, it did not give the strength per square inch of area. To determine this, four specimens of limestone were prepared, each 10 in wide, 18 in long and 12 in thick, two of them having 1¾-in holes, and two of them 2¾-in holes drilled in them. Into the small holes 1-in bolts were cemented, one of them being perfectly plain round iron, and the other having a thread cut on the portion which was embedded in the cement. Into the 2¾-in holes were cemented 2-in bolts similarly treated, and the four specimens were allowed to stand 13 days before completing the experiment. At the end of this time they were put into a standard testing-machine and pulled. The plain 1-in bolt began to yield at 20 000 lb and the threaded one at 21 000 lb. The 2-in plain bolt began to yield at 34 000 lb and the threaded one at 32 000 lb, the force in all cases being very slowly applied. The pump was then run at a greater speed, and the stones holding the 2-in bolts split at 67 000 lb in the case of the smooth one and at 50 000 lb in the case of the threaded one.

"It is thus seen that for anchoring bolts in stone, cement is more reliable, stronger and easier of application than either lead or sulphur, and that its resistance is from 400 to 500 lb per sq in of surface exposed. It is also a well-ascertained fact that it preserves iron rather than corrodes it. The cement used throughout the experiment was an English Portland cement."

6. Concrete[†]

Properties and Uses of Concrete.[‡] There is probably no material that is so enduring or better adapted for foundations, walks and basement floors, etc., than cement concrete, and for certain classes of buildings it is used with advantage for the walls, floors and interior supports. There are now thousands of buildings in this and other countries in which all of the structural portions are formed of reinforced concrete, and the use of Portland-cement concrete for a great variety of purposes is rapidly extending, due to the reduced price of Portland cement, and to a better appreciation and understanding of its properties and merits. Concrete may be defined as an artificial stone, made by uniting cement, water and what is called an aggregate, consisting of small and large particles of sand or screenings and gravel or broken stone; and when made with good Portland cement, in proper proportions, it becomes so hard and strong that when pieces of it are broken, the line of fracture often passes through the particles of stone, showing that the adhesion of the cement to the stone is greater than the cohesive strength of the stone itself.

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[*] The test of these materials is reported in the American Architect, page 105, vol. xxiv.

[†] The subject of concrete in general, including plain or mass-concrete and reinforced concrete, is to-day so important, and the available data so vast in amount that only those brief statements of general principles and of the best engineering practice that are the most important for the architect and builder to know can be included in a handbook of this kind. For full treatments of the subject, the readers are referred to the numerous recent treatises, tests, proceedings of engineering societies, etc.

[‡] For reinforced Concrete, see Chapter XXIV; for Concrete Foundations, Chapter II; for Reinforced-Concrete Factory Construction, Chapter XXV; and for Strength of Concrete, Chapter V. See, also, Chapter XXIII, pages 817 and 844.

The Aggregates.[*] "Extreme care should be exercised in selecting the aggregates for mortar and concrete, and careful tests made of the materials for the purpose of determining their qualities and the grading necessary to secure maximum density or a minimum percentage of voids. A convenient coefficient of density is the ratio of the sum of the volumes of materials contained in a unit volume to the total unit volume. (See, also, page 914.)

"(1) **Fine Aggregates** should consist of sand, crushed stone, or gravel screenings, graded from fine to coarse and passing when dry a screen having ¼-in diam holes; it preferably should be of siliceous material, and should be clean, coarse, free from dust, soft particles, vegetable loam or other deleterious matter, and not more than 6% should pass a sieve having 100 meshes per lin in. Fine aggregates should always be tested. Fine aggregates should be of such quality that mortar composed of one part Portland cement and three parts fine aggregate by weight when made into briquettes will show a tensile strength at least equal to the strength of 1 : 3 mortar of the same consistency made with the same cement and standard Ottawa sand. This is a natural sand obtained at Ottawa, Ill., passing a screen having 20 meshes and retained on a screen having 30 meshes per lin in. It is prepared and furnished by the Ottawa Silica Company, for 2 cts per lb, free on board cars, at Ottawa, Ill., under the direction of the Special Committee on Uniform Tests of Cement of the American Society of Civil Engineers. If the aggregate be of poorer quality the proportion of cement should be increased in the mortar to secure the desired strength. If the strength developed by the aggregate in the 1 : 3 mortar is less than 70% of the strength of the Ottawa-sand mortar, the material should be rejected. To avoid the removal of any coating on the grains, which may affect the strength, bank sands should not be dried before being made into mortar, but should contain natural moisture. The percentage of moisture may be determined upon a separate sample for correcting weight. From 10 to 40% more water may be required in mixing bank or artificial sands than for standard Ottawa sand to produce the same consistency.

"(2) **Coarse Aggregates** should consist of crushed stone or gravel which is retained on a screen having ¼-in diam holes and graded from the smallest to the largest particles; they should be clean, hard, durable and free from all deleterious matter. Aggregates containing dust and soft, flat or elongated particles should be excluded from important structures."

Any kind of stone is suitable for the coarse aggregate which has such strength that the strength of the concrete is not limited by the strength of the stone. Great strength is of little advantage beyond this minimum. The stones generally employed are granites, traps and limestones. Shales and sandstones of deficient strength should be tested before use. Screened gravel generally makes a good coarse aggregate. "The maximum size of the coarse aggregate is governed by the character of the construction. For reinforced concrete and for small masses of unreinforced concrete, the aggregate must be small enough to produce with the mortar a homogeneous concrete of viscous consistency which will pass readily between and easily surround the reinforcement and fill all parts of the forms. For concrete in large masses the size of the coarse aggregate may be increased, as a large aggregate produces a stronger concrete than a fine one, although it should be noted that the danger of separation from the mortar becomes greater as the size of the coarse aggregate increases."

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[*] Most of the matter of this paragraph, and of following paragraphs relating to concrete, consists of data and conclusions formulated by the joint committees of the Am. Soc. C. E., Am. Soc. for Test. Mats., Am. Ry. Eng. and Maint. of Way Asso., and Asso. of Am. Portland Cement Manfrs. In regard to Aggregates, etc., see, also, the same subjects in Chapter XXIV, pages 913 and 914, and foot-notes on page 913 in that chapter.

The use to be made of the concrete determines the maximum size of the coarse aggregate. When used in mass-concrete construction, such as heavy walls, the maximum size may run up to 2½ and 3 in with good results. For reinforced work and thin walls, however, it is necessary to reduce the maximum size to 1 in or less. It has been found that the following are the maximum sizes for the coarse aggregate of plain or mass-concrete in the best practice: for foundations, 2½ in; for abutments, 2 in; for arch-rings, 1¼ in; and for copings, thin walls, etc., 1 in.

"Cinder concrete should not be used for reinforced-concrete structures. It may be allowable in mass for very light loads or for fire-protection purposes. The cinders used should be composed of hard, clean, vitreous clinkers, free from sulphides, unburned coal, or ashes. (See, also, page 914.)

"**Water for Mixing Concrete.** The water used in mixing concrete should be free from oil, acid, alkalies, or organic matter."

Preparing and Placing Mortar and Concrete. "(1) **Proportions.**[*] The materials to be used in concrete should be carefully selected, of uniform quality, and proportioned with a view to securing as nearly as possible a maximum density.

"(a) Unit of Measure. The unit of measure should be the cubic foot. A bag of cement, containing 94 lb, net, should be considered the equivalent of 1 cu ft. The measurement of the fine and coarse aggregates should be by loose volume.

"(b) Relation of Fine and Coarse Aggregates. The fine and coarse aggregates should be used in such relative proportions as will insure maximum density. In unimportant work it is sufficient to do this by individual judgment, using correspondingly higher proportions of cement; for important work these proportions should be carefully determined by density-experiments and the sizing of the fine and coarse aggregates should be uniformly maintained or the proportions changed to meet the varying sizes.

"(c) Relation of Cement and Aggregates. For reinforced-concrete construction, one part of cement to a total of six parts of fine and coarse aggregates, measured separately, should generally be used. For columns, richer mixtures are generally preferable, and in massive masonry or rubble concrete a mixture of 1 : 9 or even 1 : 12 may be used. These proportions should be determined by the strength or the wearing-qualities required in the construction at the critical period of its use. Experienced judgment based on individual observation and tests of similar conditions in similar localities is an excellent guide as to the proper proportions for any particular case. For all important construction, advance tests should be made of concrete, of the materials, proportions and consistency to be used in the work. These tests should be made under laboratory conditions to obtain uniformity in mixing, proportioning and storage, and in case the results do not conform to the requirements of the work, aggregates of a better quality should be chosen or richer proportions used to obtain the desired results."

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[*] See, also, in Chapter XXIV, paragraphs relating to these subjects on page 915, d foot-note relating to the same, on page 913 of that chapter.

Professor Turneaure of the University of Wisconsin gives the following as the proportions of cement, sand and coarse aggregate generally used for various classes of work:

For reinforced columns and structural parts requiring extra strength	from 1 : 1 : 2 to 1 : 1½ : 3
For buildings, thin walls, reinforced concrete, tanks and impervious construction	from 1 : 2 : 4 to 1 : 2½ : 4½
For structures requiring great strength rather than mass	from 1 : 2½ : 5 to 1 : 3 : 6
For structures requiring mass rather than strength, foundations, etc.	from 1 : 3 : 6 to 1 : 4 : 8

"(a) **Mixing Concrete.** The ingredients of concrete should be thoroughly mixed and the mixing should continue until the cement is uniformly distributed and the mass is uniform in color and homogeneous. As the maximum density and greatest strength of a given mixture depend largely on thorough and complete mixing, it is essential that the work of mixing should receive special attention and care. Inasmuch as it is difficult to determine, by visual inspection, whether the concrete is uniformly mixed, especially where limestone or aggregates having the color of cement are used, it is essential that the mixing should occupy a definite period of time. The minimum time will depend on whether the mixing is done by machine or hand.

"(a) Measuring Ingredients. Methods of measurement of the proportions of the various ingredients should be used which will secure separate and uniform measurements of cement, fine aggregate, coarse aggregate and water at all times.

"(b) Machine-Mixing. When the conditions will permit, a machine-mixer of a type which insures the uniform proportioning of the materials throughout the mass should be used, as a more uniform consistency can be thus obtained. The mixing should continue for a minimum time of at least one minute after all the ingredients are assembled in the mixer.

"(c) Hand-Mixing. When it is necessary to mix by hand, the mixing should be on a water-tight platform and especial precautions should be taken to turn all the ingredients together at least six times and until they are homogeneous in appearance and color."

The most satisfactory method * of mixing concrete by hand is to first prepare for the mixing of the materials, a tight floor of planks, or, better still, of sheet iron with the edges turned up about 2 in. Upon this platform should first be spread the sand, and upon this the cement. The two should then be thoroughly and immediately mixed by means of shovels or hoes until of an even color. Enough water should be added to make a thin mortar which is then spread again. The gravel, if used, should then be added, and then the broken stone. Gravel and stone should be first thoroughly wet, if originally dry. The mass should be turned until all the ingredients are thoroughly incorporated and all the stone and gravel covered with mortar, this requiring from four to six turnings.

"(d) **Consistency.** The materials should be mixed wet enough to result in a concrete of such a consistency that it will flow into the forms and about the metal reinforcement when used, and which, at the same time, can be conveyed from the mixer to the forms without separation of the coarse aggregate from the mortar.

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* This paragraph is condensed from several recent specifications.

"(e) Retempering. Mortar or concrete should not be remixed with water after it has partly set."

(3) **Placing Concrete.** "(a) Methods. Concrete after the completion of the mixing should be handled rapidly, and in as small masses as is practicable, from the place of mixing to the place of final deposit, and under no circumstances should concrete be used that has partly set. A slow-setting cement should be used when a long time is likely to occur between mixing and placing. Concrete should be deposited in such a manner as will permit the most thorough compacting, such as can be obtained by working with a straight shovel or slicing tool kept moving up and down until all the ingredients have settled in their proper places by gravity and the surplus water has been forced to the surface. Special care should be exercised to prevent the formation of LAITANCE,* which hardens very slowly and forms a poor surface on which to deposit fresh concrete. All LAITANCE should be removed. When suspended work is resumed, concrete previously placed should be roughened, thoroughly cleansed of foreign material and laitance, thoroughly wetted and then slushed with a mortar consisting of one part Portland cement and not more than two parts fine aggregate. The faces of concrete exposed to premature drying should be kept wet for a period of at least seven days."

"(b) Mixing and Depositing Concrete in Freezing Weather. Concrete should not be mixed or deposited at a freezing temperature, unless special precautions are taken to avoid the use of materials covered with ice-crystals or containing frost, and to provide means to prevent the concrete from freezing after being placed in position and until it has thoroughly hardened. As the coarse aggregate forms the greater portion of the concrete, it is particularly important that this material be heated to well above the freezing-point.

"(c) Rubble Concrete. Where the concrete is to be deposited in massive work, its value may be improved and its cost materially reduced by the use of clean stones thoroughly embedded in the concrete and as near together as is possible while still entirely surrounded by concrete.

"(d) Depositing Concrete Under Water. In placing concrete under water it is essential to maintain still water at the place of deposit. The use of TREMIES,† properly designed and operated, is a satisfactory method of placing concrete through water. The concrete should be mixed very wet (more so than is ordinarily permissible) so that it will flow readily through the tremies and into the places with practically a level surface. The coarse aggregate should be smaller than ordinarily used, and never more than 1 in in diameter. The use of gravel facilitates mixing and assists the flow of concrete through the tremies. The mouth of the tremie should be buried in the concrete so that it is at all times entirely sealed and the surrounding water prevented from forcing itself into the tremie; the concrete will then discharge without coming in contact with the water. The tremie should be suspended so that it can be lowered quickly when it is necessary either to choke off or prevent a too rapid flow; the lateral flow should preferably be not over 15 ft. The flow should be continuous in order to produce a monolithic mass and to prevent the formation of laitance in the interior. In large structures it may be necessary to divide the mass of concrete into several small compartments or units, filling one at a time. With proper care it is possible in this manner to obtain as good results under water as in the air."

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* Laitance is a whitish, gelatinous substance of about the same composition as cement but with little tendency to harden. It accompanies a disintegration of some of the cement from the surface of concrete which is exposed to the action of water in which it is deposited. The concrete is thus weakened and the laitance, also, weakens the bond between old and new material and should be removed before fresh concrete is placed.

† A tremie is a round or square box or tube of wood or plate iron open at the top and bottom. The diameter varies from 12 to 24 in. The tremie rests in the deposited concrete, extends above the water-level and is kept full of concrete, which escapes at the bottom as the tube is shifted over the surface.

Forms for Concrete. "Forms should be substantial and unyielding, so that the concrete will conform to the designed dimensions and contours, and should be tight in order to prevent the leakage of mortar. The time for removal of forms is one of the most important considerations in the erection of a structure of concrete or reinforced concrete. Care should be taken to inspect the concrete and ascertain its hardness before removing the forms. So many conditions affect the hardening of concrete, that the proper time for the removal of the forms should be decided by some competent and responsible person, especially where the atmospheric conditions are unfavorable. It may be stated, in a general way, that forms should remain in place longer for reinforced concrete than for plain or massive concrete, and that the forms for floors, beams and similar horizontal structures should remain in place much longer than for vertical walls. When the concrete gives a distinctive ring under the blow of a hammer, it is generally an indication that it has hardened sufficiently to permit the removal of the forms with safety. If, however, the temperature is such that there is any possibility that the concrete is frozen, this test is not a safe reliance, as frozen concrete may appear to be very hard."

Shrinkage of Concrete and Temperature-Changes. "Shrinkage of concrete, due to hardening and contraction from temperature-changes, causes cracks, the size of which depends on the extent of the mass. The resulting stresses are important in monolithic construction and should be considered carefully by the designer; they cannot be counteracted successfully, but the effects can be minimized. Large cracks produced by quick hardening or wide ranges of temperature can be broken up to some extent into small cracks by placing reinforcement in the concrete; in long continuous lengths of concrete, it is better to provide shrinkage-joints at points in the structure where they will do little or no harm. Reinforcement is of assistance and permits longer distances between shrinkage-joints than when no reinforcement is used. Small masses or thin bodies of concrete should not be joined to larger or thicker masses without providing for shrinkage at such points. Fillets similar to those used in metal castings, but of larger dimensions, for gradually reducing from the thicker to the thinner body, are of advantage. Shrinkage-cracks are likely to occur at points where fresh concrete is joined to that which is set, and hence in placing the concrete, construction-joints should be made on horizontal and vertical lines, and, if possible, at points where joints would naturally occur in dimension-stone masonry."

Effect of Heat on Concrete Fireproofing.* "The actual fire-tests of concrete and reinforced concrete have been limited, but experience, together with the results of tests thus far made, indicates that concrete, on account of its low rate of heat-conductivity and the fact that it is incombustible, may be used safely for fireproofing purposes. The dehydration of concrete probably begins at about 500° F. and is completed at about 900° F.; but experience indicates that the volatilization of the water absorbs heat from the surrounding mass, which, together with the resistance of the air-cells, tends to increase the heat-resistance of the concrete, so that the process of dehydration is very much retarded. The concrete that is actually affected by fire remains in position and affords protection to the concrete beneath it. The thickness of the protective coating required depends on the probable duration of a fire which is likely to occur in the structure and should be based on the rate of heat-conductivity. The question of the conductivity of concrete is one which requires further study and investigation before a definite rate for different classes of concrete can be fully established. However, for ordinary conditions it is recommended that the metal in girders and columns be protected by a minimum of 2 in of concrete; that the metal in beams be protected by a minimum of 1½ in of concrete, and the metal in floor-slabs be protected by a minimum of 1 in of concrete. It is recommended that in monolithic concrete columns, the concrete to a depth of 1½ in be considered as protective covering and not included in the effective section. It is recommended that the corners of columns, girders and beams be beveled or rounded, as a sharp corner is more seriously affected by fire than a round one."

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* See, also, Chapter XXIII, pages 817 and 818.

Waterproofing Concrete. "Many expedients have been used to render concrete impervious to water under normal conditions, and also under pressure-conditions that exist in reservoirs, dams and conduits of various kinds. Experience shows, however, that where mortar or concrete is proportioned to obtain the greatest practicable density and is mixed to a rather wet consistency, the resulting mortar or concrete is impervious under moderate pressure. A concrete of dry consistency is more or less pervious to water, and compounds of various kinds have been mixed with the concrete, or applied as a wash to the surface for the purpose of making it water-tight. Many of these compounds are of but temporary value, and in time lose their power of imparting impermeability to the concrete. In the case of subways, long retaining-walls and reservoirs, provided the concrete itself is impervious, cracks may be so reduced by horizontal and vertical reinforcement properly proportioned and located, that they are too minute to permit leakage or are soon closed by infiltration of silt. Coal-tar preparations applied either as a mastic or as a coating on felt or cloth-fabric are used for waterproofing, and should be proof against injury by liquids or gases. For retaining-walls and similar walls in direct contact with the earth, the application of one or two coatings of hot coal-tar pitch to the thoroughly dried surface of concrete is an efficient method of preventing the penetration of moisture from the earth." (See, also, Waterproofing for Foundations, Part III, pages 1629 to 1637.)

Surface-Finish of Concrete. "Concrete is a material of an individual type and should not be used in imitation of other structural materials. One of the important problems connected with its use is the character of the finish of exposed surfaces. The finish of the surface should be determined before the concrete is placed, and the work conducted so as to make possible the finish desired. For many forms of construction the natural surface of the concrete is unobjectionable; but frequently the marks of the boards and the flat, dead surface are displeasing, thus making some special treatment desirable. A treatment of the surface either by scrubbing it while green or by tooling it after it is hard, which removes the film of mortar and brings the aggregates of the concrete into relief, is frequently used to remove the form-markings, break the monotonous appearance of the surface, and make it more pleasing. The plastering of surfaces should be avoided, for even if carefully done, the plaster is likely to peel off under the action of frost or temperature-changes."

Design of Massive Concrete. "In the design of massive or plain concrete, no account should be taken of the tensile strength of the material, and sections should usually be proportioned, so as to avoid tensile stresses, except in slight amounts, to resist indirect stresses. This will generally be accomplished, in the case of rectangular shapes, if the line of pressure is kept within the middle third of the section, but in very large structures, such as high masonry dams, a more exact analysis may be required. Structures of massive concrete are able to resist unbalanced lateral forces by reason of their weight; hence the element of weight rather than strength often determines the design. A relatively cheap and weak concrete, therefore, will often be suitable for massive concrete structures. It is desirable generally to provide joints at intervals to localize the effect of contraction. Massive concrete is suitable for dams, retaining-walls, and piers and short columns in which the ratio of length to least width is relatively small. Under ordinary conditions this ratio should not exceed six. It is also suitable for arches of moderate span, where the conditions as to foundations are favorable."

Quantities of Materials Required per Cubic Yard of Concrete.* The following tables give the quantities of Portland cement required to make 1 cu yd of mortar and the quantities of cement, sand and stone required to make 1 cu yd of concrete. They are based upon formulas deduced by Halbert P. Gillette.

Barrels of Portland Cement per Cubic Yard of Mortar

Voids in sand, 35%, 1 bbl of cement yielding 3.65 cu ft of cement paste

Proportion of cement to sand	1 to 1	1 to 1½	1 to 2	1 to 2½	1 to 3	1 to 4
	bbl	bbl	bbl	bbl	bbl	bbl
Barrel specified to be 3.5 cu ft	4.22	3.49	2.97	2.57	2.28	1.76
Barrel specified to be 3.8 cu ft	4.09	3.33	2.81	2.45	2.16	1.62
Barrel specified to be 4.0 cu ft	4.00	3.24	2.73	2.36	2.08	1.54
Barrel specified to be 4.4 cu ft	3.81	3.07	2.57	2.27	2.00	1.40
Cubic yard of sand per cu yd of mortar...............	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.0

Barrels of Portland Cement per Cubic Yard of Mortar

Voids in sand, 45%, 1 bbl of cement yielding 3.4 cu ft of cement paste

Proportion of cement to sand	1 to 1	1 to 1½	1 to 2	1 to 2½	1 to 3	1 to 4
	bbl	bbl	bbl	bbl	bbl	bbl
Barrel specified to be 3.5 cu ft	4.62	3.80	3.25	2.84	2.35	1.76
Barrel specified to be 3.8 cu ft	4.32	3.61	3.10	2.72	2.16	1.62
Barrel specified to be 4.0 cu ft	4.19	3.46	3.00	2.64	2.05	1.54
Barrel specified to be 4.4 cu ft	3.94	3.34	2.90	2.57	1.86	1.40
Cubic yard of sand per cu yd of mortar..............	0.6	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0

"In using these tables remember that the proportion of cement to sand is by volume and not by weight. If the specifications state that a barrel of cement shall be considered to hold 4 cu ft, for example, and that the mortar shall be

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* Quoted, by permission, from the Handbook of Cost Data for Contractors and Engineers, by Halbert P. Gillette, published by The Myron C. Clark Publishing Company, Chicago, Ill. See 1914 revised edition, pages 538 to 540. This handbook contains complete and voluminous data on quantities, costs, etc., of building materials and operations.

1 part cement to 2 parts sand, then 1 bbl of cement is mixed with 8 cu ft of sand, regardless of what is the actual size of the barrel, and regardless of how much cement paste can be made with a barrel of cement. If the specifications fail to state what the size of a barrel will be, then the contractor is left to guess.

"If the specifications call for proportions by weight, assume a Portland cement barrel to contain 380 lb of cement, and test the actual weight of a cubic foot of the sand to be used. Sand varies extremely in weight, due both to the variation in the per cent of voids, and to the variation in the kind of minerals of which the sand is composed. A quartz sand having 35% voids weighs 107 lb per cu ft; but a quartz sand having 45% voids weighs only 91 lb per cu ft. If the weight of the sand must be guessed at, assume 100 lb per cu ft. If the specifications require a mixture of 1 part of cement to 2 parts of sand, by weight, we will have 380 lb (or 1 bbl) of cement mixed with 2 times 380, or 760 lb of sand; and if the sand weighs 90 lb per cu ft, we shall have 760 divided by 90, or 8.44 cu ft of sand to every barrel of cement. In order to use the tables above given, we may specify our own size of barrel; let us say 4 cu ft; then, 8.44 divided by 4 gives 2.11 parts of sand by volume to 1 part of cement. Without material error we may call this a 1 to 2 mortar, and use the tables, remembering that our barrel is now 'specified to be' 4 cu ft. If we have a brand of cement that yields 3.4 cu ft of paste per bbl and sand having 45% voids, we find that approximately 3 bbl of cement per cu yd of mortar will be required.

"It should be evident from the foregoing discussions that no table can be made, and no rule can be formulated that will yield accurate results unless the brand of cement is tested and the percentage of voids in the sand determined. This being so, the sensible plan is to use the tables merely as a rough guide, and, where the quantity of cement to be used is very large, to make a few batches of mortar, using the available brands of cement and sand in the proportions specified. Ten dollars spent in this way may save a thousand, even on a comparatively small job, by showing what cement and sand to select."

Ingredients in One Cubic Yard of Concrete *

Sand-voids, 40%; stone-voids, 45%; Portland-cement barrel yielding 3.65 cu ft paste. Barrel specified to be 3.8 cu ft

Proportions by volume	1 : 2 : 4	1 : 2 : 5	1 : 2 : 6	1 : 2½ : 5	1 : 2½ : 6	1 : 3 : 4
Barrels cement per cu yd concrete	1.46	1.30	1.18	1.13	1.00	1.25
Cubic yard sand per cu yd concrete	0.41	0.36	0.33	0.40	0.35	0.53
Cubic yard stone per cu yd concrete	0 82	0.90	1.00	0.80	0.84	0.71
Proportions by volume	**1 : 3 : 5**	**1 : 3 : 6**	**1 : 3 : 7**	**1 : 4 : 7**	**1 : 4 : 8**	**1 : 4 : 9**
Barrels cement per cu yd concrete	1.13	1.05	0.96	0.82	0.77	0.73
Cubic yard sand per cu yd concrete	0.48	0.44	0.40	0.46	0.43	0.41
Cubic yard stone per cu yd concrete	0 80	0.88	0.93	0.80	0.86	0.92

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* This table is to be used where cement is measured packed in the barrel, for the ordinary barrel holds 3.8 cu ft.

"It will be seen that the above table can be condensed into the following:

"**Rule.** Add together the number of parts and divide this sum into ten, the quotient will be, approximately, the number of barrels of cement per cubic yard.

"Thus for a 1 : 2 : 5 concrete, the sum of the parts is 1 plus 2 plus 5, which is 8; then 10 divided by 8 is 1.25 bbl, which is approximately equal to the 1.30 bbl given in the table. Neither this rule nor this table is applicable if a different size of cement-barrel is specified, or if the voids in the sand or stone differ materially from 40% and 45% respectively. There are such innumerable combinations of varying voids, and varying sizes of barrels, that the author does not deem it worth while to give other tables."

Ingredients in One Cubic Yard of Concrete *

Sand-voids, 40%; stone-voids, 45%; Portland-cement barrel yielding 3.65 cu ft of paste. Barrel specified to be 4.4 cu ft

Proportions by volume	1 : 2 : 4	1 : 2 : 5	1 : 2 : 6	1 : 2½ : 5	1 : 2½ : 6	1 : 3 : 4
Barrels cement per cu yd concrete	1.30	1.16	1.00	1.07	0.96	1.08
Cubic yard sand per cu yd concrete	0.42	0.38	0.33	0.44	0.40	0.53
Cubic yard stone per cu yd concrete	0.84	0.95	1.00	0.88	0.95	0.71

Proportions by volume	1 : 3 : 5	1 : 3 : 6	1 : 3 : 7	1 : 4 : 7	1 : 4 : 8	1 : 4 : 9
Barrels cement per cu yd concrete	0.96	0.90	0.82	0.75	0.68	0.64
Cubic yard sand per cu yd concrete	0.47	0.44	0.40	0.49	0.44	0.42
Cubic yard stone per cu yd concrete	0.78	0.88	0.93	0.86	0.88	0.95

* This table is to be used when the cement is measured loose, after dumping it into a box, for under such conditions a barrel of cement yields 4.4 cu ft of loose cement.

Cost of Concrete. (For Cost of Cement, see page 238.) The average cost of sand may be taken at 30 cts per cu yd to cover digging and loading, but when washed or screened the cost averages between 40 and 55 cts per cu yd. Hauling and freight-charges generally raise the cost of sand, ready to unload at the site, to from 90 cts to $1.10 per cu yd, and about 15 cts per yd additional must be added, if unloaded from cars. Gravel costs from $1.20 to $1.40 per cu yd, unloaded at the job, and crushed stone from $1.45 to $1.60. These prices are, of course, average prices only, and include moderate-haul teaming and unloading. For hand-mixing and placing of soft concrete, and spreading without any ramming, the labor-cost varies from 90 cts to $1.30 per cu yd. This is for handling in barrows materials that are conveniently at hand. This cost will be much higher for dry concrete, and hand-mixing costs may reach $2 or $3 per cu yd. For machine-mixing alone and with machines taking four bags to the batch, the cost of mixing may be even as low as 50 or 60 cts per cu yd. For placing alone, the cost is about 75 cts per cu yd; this includes wheeling the concrete, dumping it in place and spreading and spading it into forms. This cost could be almost doubled where unusual care had to be exercised to obtain a good surface and where there was an extra amount of spading. The costs are reduced for heavy mass-concrete, and have been as low as 50 or 60 cts per cu yd for machine-mixing and placing together, by mixer and derrick or by tracks and cars. The following approximate schedule * of labor-costs for mixing and placing concrete is given by L. H. Allen of the Aberthaw Construction Company, in Professor Hool's excellent treatise:

For footings	$1.50 per cu yd
For floor-slabs not exceeding 4½ in in thickness	$1.60 per cu yd
For floor-slabs exceeding 5 in in thickness	$1.00 per cu yd
For columns and thin walls	$1.50 per cu yd
For walls exceeding 18 in in thickness	$1.00 per cu yd
For dams and thick retaining-walls	$0.70 per cu yd

For the unit cost due to the cost of the tools, plant and supplies, $1 may be taken as an average for jobs requiring from 4 000 to 10 000 cu yd of concrete. It varies, of course, with the character and magnitude of the work. The cost for this item is reduced in larger jobs, falling to 80 or even 70 cts per cu yd; and it is increased in operations of less magnitude to from $1 to $1.50 per cu yd, for, say, 3 000 cu yd of concrete. When the amount of concrete required is as small as 600 or 700 cu yd, hand-mixing is generally more economical than machine-mixing. Mr. Allen summarizes * the cost of 1 cu yd of concrete for a building requiring 5 000 cu yd of reinforced-concrete work in floors and columns as follows, the cost of forms and steel and finishing of the surface not being included:

Cement, 1⅔ bbl, at $1.38 per bbl	$2.30
Sand, ½ cu yd, at $1 per cu yd	0.50
Stone, 1.35 tons, at $1.40 per ton	1.89
Labor, per cu yd	1.35
Plant, per cu yd	1.00
Total, per cu yd	$7.04

In this summary the exact theoretical proportions or quantities of cement, sand and stone required for 1 cu yd of concrete, and deduced from formulas, are not adhered to, the author stating that the exact theoretical proportions are the net quantities of the materials determined by careful experiment, that "conditions on actual construction work do not approach those of laboratory work and that there is always a considerable waste of cement, sand and stone." In view of these facts, he states that, "when estimating quantities, it is not safe to allow less than the following amounts of cement for different proportions of mix:

1 : 1½ : 3 mix	2.00 bbl per cu yd
1 : 2 : 4 mix	1.66 bbl per cu yd
1 : 2½ : 5 mix	1.40 bbl per cu yd
1 : 3 : 6 mix	1.20 bbl per cu yd"

It is customary to allow ½ cu yd of sand and 1 cu yd of crushed stone, to 1 cu yd of concrete, and to estimate the weight of crushed stone at 100 lb per cu ft.

The Weight of Concrete varies from 110 to 155 lb per cu ft, according to the material used. Concrete of the usual proportions weighs from 140 to 150 lb per cu ft. Trap-rock concrete weighs from 148 to 155; limestone or gravel concrete, from 142 to 148; and cinder concrete from 80 to 115 lb per cu ft.

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* Reinforced Concrete Construction, by George A. Hool, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

The Strength of Concrete. See Chapter V.

Earlier Examples of Portland-Cement Concrete. From the foregoing it is seen that for foundation-work to-day, mass-concrete varies in proportions from a 1 : 3 : 6 to a 1 : 4 : 8 mix. Some of the earlier examples are added for comparison.

Foundations of the United States Naval Observatory, Georgetown, D. C.: 1 part cement, 2½ sand, 3 gravel, 5 broken stone. (1 bbl of cement, 380 lb, made 1.18 yd of concrete.)

Foundations of the Cathedral of St. John the Divine, New York: 1 part Portland cement, 2 parts sand, 3 parts quartz gravel of pieces from 1½ to 2 in diameter. (17 000 bbl of cement made 11 000 yd of concrete.)

Manhattan Life Insurance Building, New York, filling of caissons: 1 part sen Portland cement, 2 parts sand, 4 parts broken stone.

Johnston Building (15 stories), New York, filling of caissons: 1 part Portland cement, 3 parts sand, 7 parts stone, finished on top for brickwork with 1 part cement and 3 parts gravel.

Professor Baker states that the concrete foundations under the Washington Monument were made of 1 part Portland cement, 2 parts sand, 3 parts gravel and 4 parts broken stone, and that this mixture stood, when six months old, a load of 2 000 lb per sq in, or 144 tons per sq ft.

CHAPTER IV

RETAINING-WALLS, BREAST-WALLS AND VAULT-WALLS

By

GRENVILLE TEMPLE SNELLING

MEMBER OF AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS

1. Mechanical Principles Involved

General Principles. Before discussing more in detail the problems relating to masonry structures, in which, if improperly constructed, a tendency to slide or overturn on their bases may be developed, a familiarity with what are known as the THEOREM OF FRICTION and the THEOREM OF THE MIDDLE THIRD will be of assistance in comprehending the methods indicated for rendering such structures stable.

Theorem of Friction. If a body rests on an inclined plane it will remain stationary until the angle ϕ, that the plane makes with the horizontal, becomes so great that the FRICTION developed between the surfaces of the body and the plane is no longer sufficient to prevent the body from sliding down the plane (Fig. 1).

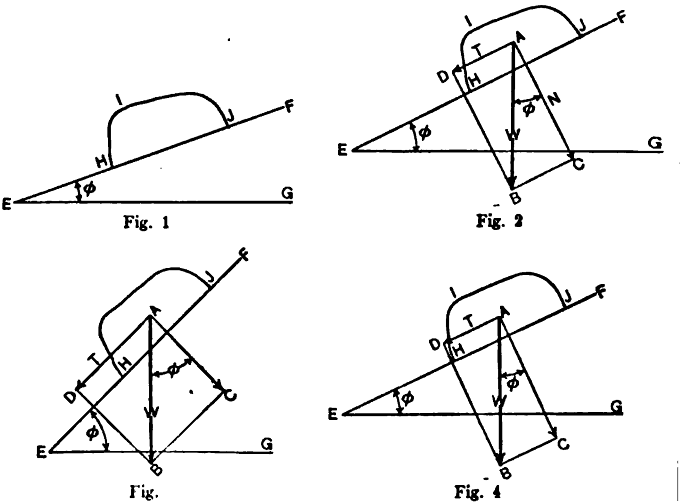

Fig. 1 Fig. 2 Fig. Fig. 4

Figs. 1, 2, 3 and 4. Body on Inclined Plane. Graphical Representation of Forces

Assume the body *HIJ* resting on the plane *EF*. The weight, *W*, of this body is shown graphically by the line *AB*, applied at its center of gravity *A* (Fig. 2).

This weight can be resolved into two component forces, one, AC, normal to the inclined plane and the other, AD, parallel to it. It is the parallel or tangential force which tends to pull the body down the plane and which is resisted by the friction developed between the two surfaces. The friction developed between any two surfaces in contact depends upon the nature of the materials of which they are composed and the intensity of the forces pressing them together; and it resists the tendency to slide only up to a certain point. As the angle ϕ, which the inclined plane makes with the horizontal, increases, the tangential component T, of the weight W, increases, until it becomes greater than the frictional resistance, and the body moves down the plane (Fig. 3). From trigonometry,

$$T = W \sin\phi$$

$$N = W \cos\phi, \quad \text{or,} \quad T = N \tan\phi$$

There is evidently a position of the plane, intermediate between the positions shown in Figs. 1 and 3, in which the component force T is just balanced by the friction and in which the body remains at rest although just on the point of sliding (Fig. 4). If the angle which the inclined plane makes with the horizontal, at the moment when the body is just about to slide, be designated by ϕ, the friction developed between the two surfaces will be equal to $N \tan\phi$, since, when the angle of inclination of the plane to the horizontal is ϕ, the tangential component of the weight just balances the friction. From the equation $T = N \tan\phi$ it is evident that the friction is directly proportional to N and to $\tan\phi$. Tan ϕ is then known as the COEFFICIENT OF FRICTION and ϕ as the ANGLE OF REPOSE, or, in the case of stone surfaces, it is often known as the ANGLE OF FRICTION.

The following Table I gives the average values of these constants as determined by experiment.

Table I. Coefficients and Angles of Friction

Kind of surface	Coefficient of friction, tan ϕ	Angle of friction, ϕ
Granite, limestone and marble:		
Soft dressed upon soft dressed	0.70	35° 00′
Hard dressed upon hard dressed	0.55	28 50
Hard dressed upon soft dressed	0.65	33 00
Stone, brick or concrete:		
Masonry upon masonry	0.65	33 00
Masonry upon wood (with the grain)	0.60	31 00
Masonry upon wood (across the grain)	0.50	26 40
Masonry upon dry clay	0.50	26 40
Masonry upon wet or moist clay	0.33	18 20
Masonry upon sand	0.40	21 50
Masonry upon gravel	0.60	31 00
Soft stone upon steel or iron	0.40	21 50
Hard stone upon steel or iron	0.30	16 40

In this discussion only the weight AB (Figs. 2, 3 and 4), of the body has been considered; but the body might be subjected to the action of other forces besides the force of gravity, in which case these other forces would be combined with the weight in order to find the resultant, this resultant being again resolved into a tangential and a normal component. Since the angle BAC is equal to the angle *FEG* (Figs. 2, 3 and 4), given a certain normal pressure exerted by the body on the plane, the amount of the tangential pressure *T* depends upon the angle *FEG*. The problem in actual practice reduces itself to so arranging the conditions that no matter what the position of the plane may be, the angle ϕ, which the resultant *W*, makes with the normal *N*, to the plane, will not be greater than the ANGLE OF FRICTION or REPOSE.

Theorem of the Middle Third. When any surface is subjected to pressure from the action of any force or forces, this TOTAL PRESSURE may be considered as a SYSTEM OF AN INFINITE NUMBER OF PARALLEL FORCES, equal or unequal in intensity. These forces will have a RESULTANT, whose MAGNITUDE, DIRECTION and POINT OF APPLICATION can be determined, either graphically, or by moments, as explained in Chapter VI. The determination of these three elements of this resultant force may at times become of the utmost importance to the engineer.

Pressure of this nature is technically known as the STRESS to which the surface in question is subjected. (See Chapter I.) When the INTENSITY OF A STRESS is not the same at different points of a surface, it is called a VARYING STRESS, while if, on the contrary, its intensity remains the same at every point of the surface, it is called a UNIFORM STRESS.

When a stress varies it may do so in one or two ways. It may vary UNIFORMLY, that is to say, in a uniform manner, following some definite law of variation, so that, knowing this law, its intensity may be determined for any given point of the surface; or NON-UNIFORMLY, following no law. When a stress varies in the former manner it is called a UNIFORMLY VARYING STRESS This is the case most frequently met with in engineering problems.

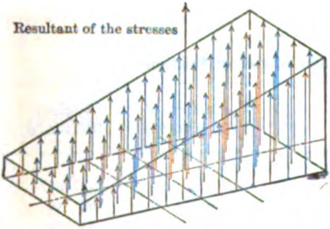

Fig. 5. Resultant within Middle Third

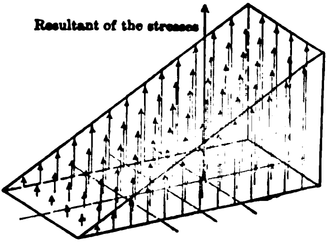

Fig. 6. Resultant at Middle Third

In dealing with ISOLATED FORCES, such as concentrated loads on a beam, we are usually interested in determining the MAGNITUDE and POINT OF APPLICATION of the RESULTANT of these forces. When, however, the question is one of STRESS, or of an unlimited number of forces, the problem that usually presents istelf is one in which the resultant is known, in magnitude, direction and point of application, and in which it is required to determine the DISTRIBUTION OF THE STRESS to which the surface is subjected. Or, in actual practice, it is required to so arrange the parts of the structure that this resultant shall have such a magnitude, direction and point of application that the stress to which the surface under consideration is subjected shall not exceed certain LIMITS OF SAFETY, determined beforehand by experience. For example, when the resultant of a known amount of pressure or stress acts at the CENTER OF GRAVITY of the surface subjected to the stress, this stress is UNIFORMLY DISTRIBUTED over the surface.

When the resultant acts at a distance of two-thirds the total width of the surface from one edge or boundary line of the surface, and at one-third the width from the other edge, the stress is UNIFORMLY VARYING; and its INTENSITY at the edge farthest from the point of application of the resultant is ZERO and at the other edge a MAXIMUM or twice the average stress. When, however, the total amount of the stress remaining the same, the point of application of the resultant is at a greater distance from one edge than two-thirds the total width of the surface, a certain part of the surface adjacent to the edge furthest from the resultant is subjected to a STRESS OF A CONTRARY NATURE to that distributed over the rest of the area; that is to say, if the stress to which the major part of the surface is subject is a COMPRESSIVE stress, the stress acting on the remainder of the surface is a TENSILE stress. The stresses in a surface resulting from three different positions of the resultant force may be illustrated graphically, as shown in Figs. 5, 6 and 7.

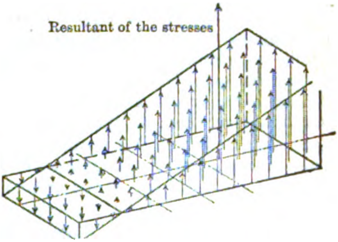

Fig. 7. Resultant beyond Middle Third

2. Retaining-Walls

Definitions. A RETAINING-WALL is a wall built to resist the pressure of earth, sand, or other filling or backing deposited behind it after it is built, as distinguished from a BREAST-WALL or FACE-WALL, which is a similar structure built to prevent the fall of earth which is in its undisturbed, natural position, but from which part has been excavated, leaving a vertical or inclined face. Fig. 8 is an illustration of the two kinds of wall.

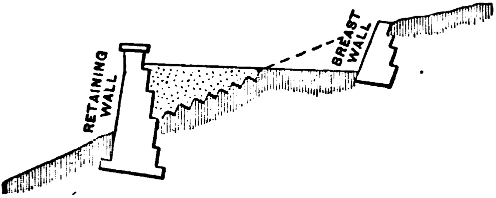

Fig. 8. Retaining-wall and Breast-wall

Theories of Retaining-Walls. A great deal has been written on the THEORY OF RETAINING-WALLS, and many theories, involving elaborate calculations for determining the CONJUGATE PRESSURES in the earth-backing behind the wall, have been developed for computing the THRUST which a bank of earth exerts against such a wall, and for determining the FORM of wall which offers the greatest resistance with the least amount of material. There are so many conditions, however, upon which the thrust exerted by the backing depends, such as the cohesion of the earth, the dryness of the material, the mode of backing up the wall, etc., that in practice it is impossible to determine the exact thrust which will be exerted against a wall of a given height. It is necessary, therefore, in designing retaining-walls, to be guided by experience rather than by theory. As the theories of retaining-walls are so vague and unsatisfactory, we shall not include any in this work, but offer, rather, such suggestions, rules and cautions as have been established by practice and experience. A construction suggested from empirical data, which has been found to work well in practice, for determining the THRUST OF THE EARTH-BACKING and the DIMENSIONS OF THE WALL to properly resist this thrust, is given on page 257.

In designing a retaining-wall the backing as well as the wall itself must be carefully considered. THE TENDENCY OF THE BACKING TO SLIP is very much less when the material is in a dry state than when it is saturated with water, and hence every precaution should be taken to secure good drainage. Besides surface-drainage, there should be openings left in the wall for the water which may accumulate behind it to escape.

The manner in which the material is filled against the wall, also, affects the stability of the backing. If the ground is made irregular, with steppings, as shown in Fig. 8, and the earth well rammed in layers inclined DOWN FROM the wall, the pressure will be very trifling, provided that attention is paid to drainage. If, on the other hand, the earth is tipped in the usual manner, in layers sloping DOWN TOWARDS the wall, almost the full pressure of the earth will be exerted against it, and it must be made strong enough to withstand such pressure.

Slopes of Repose and Angles of Repose. Cases may occur in practice in which the conditions are not such as are shown in Fig. 8, which shows only a limited amount of fill or new material put in behind the wall on top of the original slope of the grade; cases in which, on the contrary, the wall has been built on the natural surface of the ground with a view to creating an entirely new terrace or embankment and where all the material back of the wall is new.

All of this material does not beat upon the wall and tend to overturn it, for sand or loose earth taken from an excavation and deposited on the surface of the ground does not spread itself out like a liquid but piles up in a mound. This PILING UP is due to the FRICTION developed between the separate particles as they slide one over the other while being dumped. This phenomenon is observed in the action of any solid material broken up into separate particles; and although the SLOPE OF THE SIDES of such a mound varies with different materials, it is, in general, the same for the same material. The angle of this slope is known as the ANGLE OF NATURAL SLOPE of the material. This angle for the materials generally used for fill is given in the following Table II.

Table II. Slopes of Repose, Angles of Repose and Weights of Loose Materials

Kind of earth	Slope of repose*	Angle of repose	Weight in lb per cu ft
Sand, clean	1.5 to 1	33° 41′	90
Sand and clay	1.33 to 1	36 53	100
Clay, dry	1.33 to 1	36 53	100
Clay, damp, plastic	2 to 1	26 34	100
Gravel, clean	1.33 to 1	36 53	100
Gravel and clay	1.33 to 1	36 53	100
Gravel, sand and clay	1.33 to 1	36 53	100
Soil	1.33 to 1	36 53	100
Soft rotten rock	1.33 to 1	36 53	110
Hard rotten rock	1 to 1	45 00	100
Bituminous cinders	1 to 1	45 00	65
Anthracite ashes	1 to 1	45 00	30

* The slope is that of horizontal to vertical projection.

Pressures on Retaining-Walls. Even under the conditions shown in Fig. 8, only a part of the filled-in material will exert a pressure on the wall. It would be natural to suppose that the part of the fill exerting pressure on the wall would be determined by the ANGLE OF NATURAL SLOPE, all material from a natural horizontal grade up to this angle being able to take care of itself, and all the material above the angle needing the wall to hold it in place. Experiment shows that this is not strictly true, for as the earth settles into place certain forces of INTERNAL ELASTICITY and tendencies toward a state of EQUILIBRIUM come into play creating INTERNAL STRESSES which produce the CONJUGATE PRESSURES already referred to. The exact determination of these INTERNAL STRESSES demands relatively complicated calculations which would be out of place in a book of this character. The construction given in the following paragraphs for determining the SLOPE OF THE CLEAVAGE-PLANE, between that part of the backing which sustains itself and the triangular fill which actually bears on the wall, is sufficiently accurate, however, for all practical purposes.

The Slope of the Cleavage-Plane. The following construction (Figs. 9 and 10), based upon empirical data, for determining first, the PRISM OF EARTH which exerts pressure on the back of the wall and secondly, the proper DIMENSIONS for the wall, has been found to work well in practice, when certain necessary precautions are taken. These include proper DRAINAGE behind the wall, proper RAMMING of the fill and efficient BRACING of the wall during its construction.

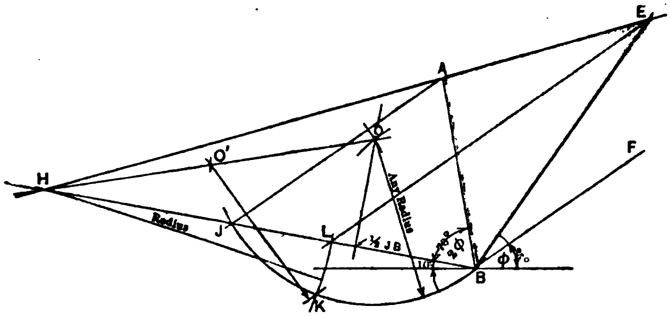

Fig. 9. Method of Determining the Prism of Earth

In the calculations to determine the pressure of the earth and the weight of the wall, a slice 1 ft thick is first considered. Then the area of the triangle *ABE* is proportional to the volume and weight of the slice of earth causing pressure on the wall, and as the area of the cross-section of the wall is proportional to the volume and weight of the slice of the wall itself.

To determine the PRISM OF EARTH which exerts pressure against the back of the wall, decide first upon the BATTER to be given to the back of the wall. In this case it made 80° with the horizontal, an angle slightly greater than that advised by Trautwine. Draw *BH* (Fig. 9), making an angle *ABH*, equal to 2ϕ, with the back of the wall; continue this line until it meets at *H* the slope of the surface of the earth back of the wall, prolonged. From *A*, the top of the wall, draw *AJ* parallel to *BF* the natural slope of the fill. This has been taken at 35°, as a fair average value. Erect a perpendicular from the middle of *JB*, and with any point, *O*, as a center, on this perpendicular, describe an arc passing through *J* and *B*. Draw *HO* and bisect it, and with *O'* as a center and *OO'* a radius, describe the arc cutting the arc *JKB* at *K*. Again, with a radius and with *H* as center, describe the arc *KL*, and finally, from *L*, draw *LE* para to *JA*. The intersection of this line with the surface of the ground locates

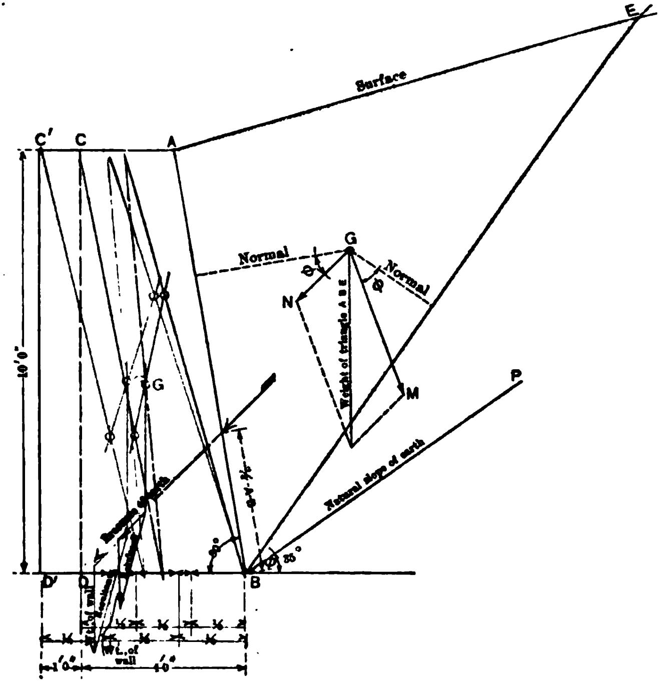

Fig. 10. Method of Determining Dimensions of Retaining-wall

point *E*. The line *EB* is the line of the CLEAVAGE-PLANE which separates th part of the backing which bears against the wall from the part which exerts n lateral pressure.

Having found the DIMENSIONS OF THE VOLUME OF EARTH, the thrust of whic must be resisted by the wall, the next step is to determine what the DIMENSION OF THE WALL should be to properly resist this thrust. Usually one or two tria are necessary before the proper solution of the problem is found. In the ex ample given, a preliminary trial was made with a thickness at the base of 4 f This construction is shown with the green lines (Fig. 10).

After drawing the triangle representing the base of the PRISM OF EARTH, fin its center of gravity, *G* (Chap. VI). From this point draw two normals, one t the back of the wall and the other to the line of the CLEAVAGE-PLANE. Dra the two lines, *GM* and *GN*, making angles *φ* with these normals. Lay off ve tically from the center of gravity, at any convenient scale of so many squa inches to the linear inch, the area of the triangle of the base of the prism, the area, as already explained, being proportional to the volume of the prism and its weight. Resolve this weight-line along the two lines *GM* and *GN* (Chap. VI). This will give the MAGNITUDE and DIRECTION of the THRUST or pressure of the earth against the wall. Apply this pressure at a point on the back of the wall one-third of the distance from the bottom, as shown by the arrow. This is the force which may tend to OVERTURN the wall and which tends to make it SLIDE along the base.

To resist these OVERTURNING and SLIDING-TENDENCIES, the weight of the wall combined with the pressure of the earth behind it should produce a resultant which satisfies the following conditions. First, its MAGNITUDE should not be great enough to cause a unit pressure on the foundation-bed greater than it can safely bear; secondly, it should pass within the MIDDLE THIRD of the base so that the stress over the entire area of the base will be a COMPRESSIVE stress; and thirdly, it should make an angle with a normal to the plane of the foundation-bed not greater than the ANGLE OF FRICTION between the stone, brickwork, concrete, or other masonry of the footings and the sand, clay, or rock of the foundation-bed.

In order to determine these conditions, the CENTER OF GRAVITY of the cross-section of the wall must be determined and a vertical line drawn through this point until it intersects the line of the EARTH-THRUST produced. It is at this intersection of the LINES OF ACTION of the two forces that their RESULTANT acts. To find the CENTER OF GRAVITY of the cross-section of the wall, the method of dividing the trapezoid into two triangles has been followed, the center of gravity of each triangle being found and these two points being joined by a line. The intersection of this line with the median line drawn between the base and the top of the wall is the center of gravity of the trapezoid. In this example, for convenience, the scale used for the composition of the forces of the pressure of the earth and the weight of the wall is one-half the scale used for the resolution of the forces representing the weight of the earth-prism.

In the first trial, shown by the green lines, the first and third conditions necessary to insure stability are fulfilled; but the second is not, the resultant passing outside the MIDDLE THIRD of the base. This indicates, theoretically, a slight TENSILE stress or a tendency for the joints at the back of the wall to open. Another trial, therefore, is shown with the red lines, the thickness of the wall being increased as shown by the rectangle *CC'D'D*. In this second trial the WEIGHT OF THE WALL is necessarily increased while the EARTH-THRUST remains the same. As in this case the resultant passes within the middle third, it is concluded that a wall of these dimensions, 5 ft base by 10 ft height and with an 80° batter, will be safe and will properly resist the thrust of the earth-backing.

Details of Construction. Retaining-walls are generally built with a BATTERING, that is, a SLOPING face, as walls of this form are the strongest for a given amount of material; and if the courses are INCLINED DOWN TOWARDS THE BACK, the tendency to slide on each other will be resisted, and it will not be necessary to depend upon the adhesion of the mortar. The importance of making the resistance independent of the adhesion of the mortar is obviously very great, as it would otherwise be necessary to delay the backing up of the wall until the mortar had thoroughly set, which might require several months.

In brickwork it is advisable to let every third or fourth course below the frost-line project an inch or two. This increases the friction of the earth against the back and causes the resultant of the forces acting behind the wall to become more nearly vertical, and to fall farther within the base, increasing the stability.

It also conduces to strength to make the courses of varying heights throughout the thickness of the wall, and to have some of the stones, especially those near the back, sufficiently high to extend through two or three courses. By this means the whole masonry becomes more effectually interlocked or bonded together as one mass and is less liable to bulge. The courses of masonry are often laid with their beds SLOPING IN, as in Fig. 15, to overcome the tendency of the courses to slide on each other.

Where the ground freezes to a great depth, the back of the wall should be SLOPED FORWARD for three or four feet below its top surface, as at *OC* (Fig. 11), and this slope should be quite smooth, so as to lessen the hold of the frost and prevent displacement.

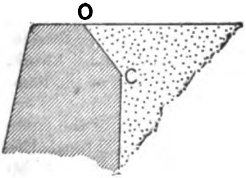

Fig. 11. Retaining-wall for Deep-freezing Earth

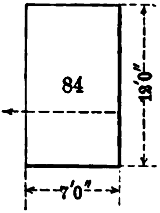

Fig. 12. Retaining-wall with Rectangular Cross-section

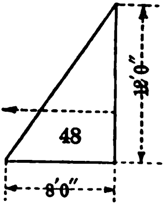

Fig. 13. Retaining-wall with Triangular Cross-section

Figs. 12, 13, 14 and 15 show the approximate RELATIVE VERTICAL SECTIONAL AREAS of walls of different shapes that would be required to resist the pressure of a bank of earth 12 ft high. The first three examples are calculated to resist the maximum thrust of wet earth, while the last shows the modified form usually adopted in practice.

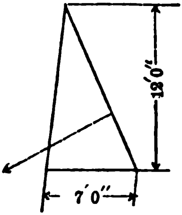

Fig. 14. Retaining-wall with Triangular Cross-section

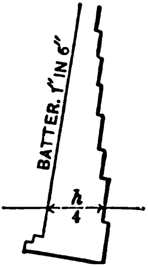

Fig. 15. Retaining-wall with Stepped Back

Notes on the Thickness of Retaining-Walls. As has been stated, about the only practical rules for retaining-walls are the empirical rules based upon experience and tests. Trautwine* gives the following Table III for the thickness at the base of vertical retaining-walls with a sand backing deposited in the usual manner. The first column contains the vertical height *CD* (Fig. 16) of the earth as compared with the vertical height of the wall, *AB*. The latter is assumed to be 1, so that the table begins with a backing of the same height as the wall. These vertical walls may be battered to any extent not exceeding 1½ in to 1 ft, or 1 in 8, without affecting their stability and without increasing the base.

If the wall is built as in Fig. 17, with the ground practically level with the top, the top of the wall should be not less than 18 in thick, and the thicknesses at *a*, *a*, etc., just above each step, should be from one-third to two-fifths of the

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* The Civil Engineer's Pocket-Book, John C. Trautwine.

Table III. Proportions of Retaining-Walls

(Thickness of wall at the base in parts of the height, *AB*, Fig. 16)

Total height of the earth compared with the height of the wall above ground	Wall of cut stone in mortar	Wall of rubble or brick, good mortar	Wall of good, dry rubble
1	0.35	0.40	0.50
1.1	0.42	0.47	0.57
1.2	0.46	0.51	0.61
1.3	0.49	0.54	0.64
1.4	0.51	0.56	0.66
1.5	0.52	0.57	0.67
1.6	0.54	0.59	0.69
1.7	0.55	0.60	0.70
1.8	0.56	0.61	0.71
2	0.58	0.63	0.73
2.5	0.60	0.65	0.75
3	0.62	0.67	0.77
4	0.63	0.68	0.78
6	0.64	0.69	0.79
14	0.65	0.70	0.80
25	0.66	0.71	0.81
or more	0.68	0.73	0.83

height from the top of the wall to each of these levels. If the earth is banked above the top of the wall, the thicknesses should be increased as indicated by the table given above. If built upon ground that is affected by frost or surface-water, the footings should be carried sufficiently below the surface of the ground at the base to insure against heaving or settling.

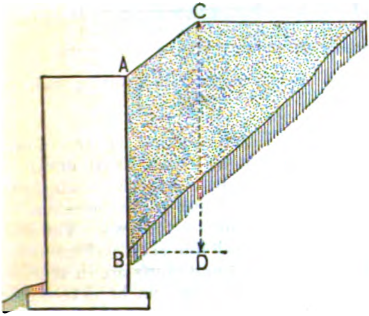

Fig. 16. Retaining-wall with Raised Sand Backing

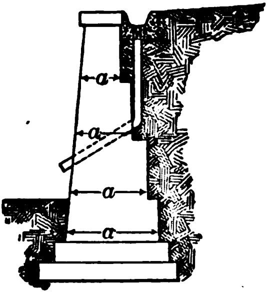

Fig. 17. Retaining-wall with Stepped Back

Reinforced-Concrete Retaining-Walls. With the constantly increasing use of REINFORCED CONCRETE for various purposes, there has come, also, the construction of retaining-walls in this material. Figs. 18,* 19* and 20* show three designs by A. L. Johnson for retaining-walls to satisfy the

* Plain and Reinforced Concrete, Taylor and Thompson.

requirements of banks 5, 10 and 20 ft high. The wall shown in Fig. 20 i reinforced at intervals with COUNTERFORTS. The walls themselves in Figs. 1 and 19 act as CANTILEVER BEAMS. The FOOTINGS, in all three cases, ar subjected to two principal external forces, the resultant of the resistin upward pressure of the foundation-bed and the resultant of the downward pressures of the fill. In Fig. 20 the COPING acts as a BEAM FIXED AT BOTH ENDS, with a span equal to the distance between the counterforts, and loaded with the proper proportion of the load due to the pressure of the fill behind the wall and transmitted to the coping by the wall. The wall itself in this case acts as a FLOOR-SLAB supported on all four sides and subjected to an approximately evenly distributed load. The counterforts are in tension. The MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENTS for these various cases can be determined (Chapter IX) and the necessary DIMENSIONS and REINFORCEMENT to be provided decided by the rules given in Chapter XXIV.

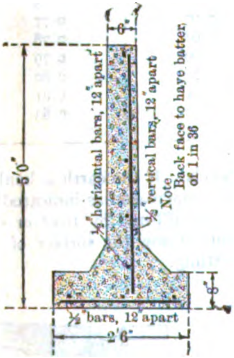

Fig. 18. Reinforced-concrete Retaining-wall, 5 ft High

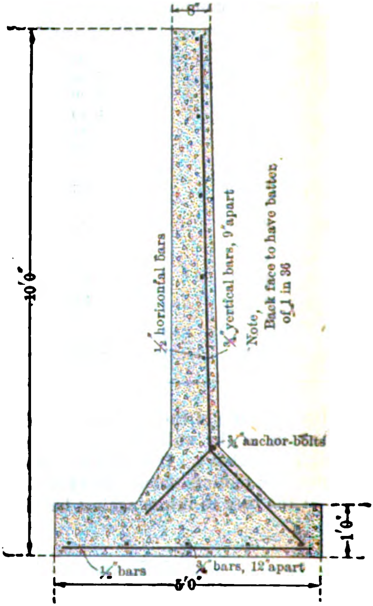

Fig. 19. Reinforced-concrete Retaining-wall, 10 ft High

3. Breast-Walls

Breast-Walls. Where the ground to be supported is firm, and the strata are horizontal, the office of a BREAST-WALL (Fig. 8) is more to protect than to sustain the earth. It should be borne in mind that a trifling force skilfully applied to unbroken ground will keep in its place a mass of material, which, if once allowed to move, would crush a heavy wall. Great care, therefore, should be taken not to expose the newly opened ground to the influence of air and water longer than is requisite for sound work, and to avoid leaving the smallest space for motion between the back of the wall and the ground. The strength of a breast-wall must be proportionately increased when the strata to be supported incline down towards the wall; where they incline down from it, the wall need be little more than a THIN FACING to protect the ground from disintegration. The preservation of the NATURAL DRAINAGE is one of the most important points to be attended to in the erection of breast-walls, as upon this their stability in a great measure depends. No rule can be given for the best way to do this; it is a matter for attentive consideration in each particular case.

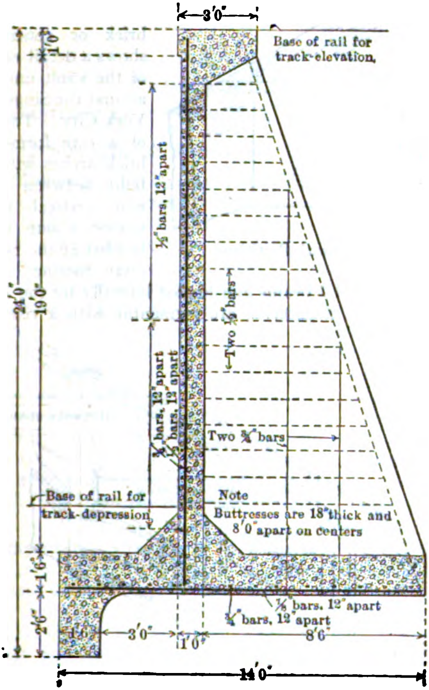

Fig. 20. Reinforced-concrete Retaining-wall with Counterforts and Apron

4. Vault-Walls

Vault-Walls. In large cities it is customary to utilize the space under the sidewalk for storage or other purposes. This necessitates a wall at the curb-line to hold back the earth and the street-pressures and also the weight of the sidewalk. Where practicable the space should be divided by partition-walls about every 10 ft, and when this is done the outer wall may be advantageously built of hard bricks in the form of arches, as shown in Fig. 21. The THICKNESS of the arch should be at least 16 in for a depth of 9 ft and the RISE of the arch from one-eighth to one-sixth of the span. If partitions are not practicable, each sidewalk-beam may be supported by a heavy **I**-beam column, with either flat or segmental arches between, of either brick or concrete. Fig. 22[*] shows a detail of the outer walls of the vault under the sidewalk around the Singer building, New York City. These walls consist of a core formed by two-ring brick arches with vertical axes, built between the flanges of 8-in vertical steel **I** beams spaced about 5 ft apart and bedded at the bottom in a concrete footing. Their tops are joined by 6-in horizontal **I** beams and braced laterally by the sidewalk-beams, 5 ft apart. The arches themselves are segmental, with a rise of about 6 in,

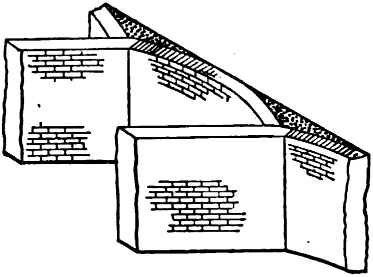
Fig. 21. Vault-wall with Partitions

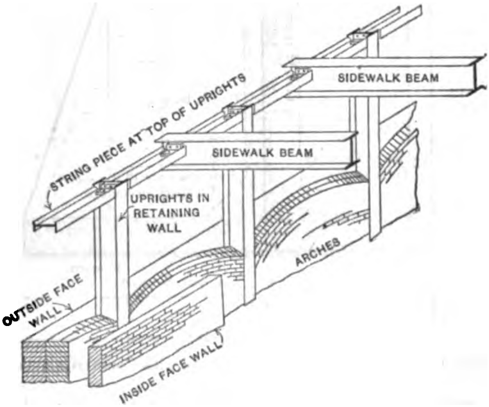

Fig. 22. Vault-walls of Singer Building, New York City

and are built up solid against an 8-in outside face-wall. A 4-in plain curtain wall is built inside against the flanges of the vertical beams, inclosing segmental air-chambers in front of each arch.

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[*] From The Engineering Record, Feb. 26, 1898.

CHAPTER V

STRENGTH OF BRICK, STONE, MASS-CONCRETE AND MASONRY

By

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1. Crushing Strength of Stonework, Brickwork, Bricks, etc.

Stresses in Masonry. By the term STRENGTH OF MASONRY is generally meant its resistance to a direct COMPRESSIVE force or load, and this is the only direct stress to which masonry should be subjected. Stone lintels and footings may be subjected to a TRANSVERSE or BENDING STRESS, but they can hardly be included in the term masonry, as they consist of single pieces. There are also tendencies to bend and to split apart in brick walls and piers, as they are usually high in proportion to their lateral dimensions, but the stresses thus developed cannot be accurately determined and should be avoided as much as possible. It is impossible to fix values for the strength of brickwork or stonework with anything like the exactness possible for wooden or steel members, for the reason that there is not only a great variation in the strength of different kinds of brick and stone, even when taken from the same kiln or quarry, but the strength of walls and piers is also greatly affected by the kind and quality of the mortar used, the way in which the work is built and bonded, and the amount of moisture in the materials when they are laid. All that can be done, therefore, is to give values which will be safe for the different kinds of masonry built in the usual manner.

Working Compressive Strength of Masonry. The building laws of most of the larger cities of this country specify the maximum loads per square foot allowed to be placed upon different kinds of masonry, and these laws must govern the architects in such cities. When there is no restriction of this kind, Table I gives a pretty good idea of the maximum loads which it is safe to put upon the different kinds of work mentioned. Table II gives the maximum safe loads specified in the building laws of several cities, and the remaining tables of the chapter give records of numerous tests made to determine the ultimate compressive strengths of various kinds of bricks, building stones, mortars and concretes, and are of value in determining the safe loads for special cases. In determining the safe compressive resistance of masonry from tests on the ultimate compressive strength of work of the same kind, a factor of safety of at least 10 should be allowed for piers and 20 for arches.

Table I. Safe Working Loads for Masonry

BRICKWORK IN WALLS OR PIERS

	Tons per square foot	
	Eastern	Western
Red brick in lime mortar	7	5
Red brick in hydraulic-lime mortar	...	6
Red brick in natural-cement mortar, 1 : 3	10	8
Arch or pressed bricks in lime mortar	8	6
Arch or pressed bricks in natural-cement mortar	12	9
Arch or pressed bricks in Portland-cement mortar	15	12½

Piers exceeding in height six times their least lateral dimensions should b increased 4 in in lateral dimensions for each additional 6 ft.

STONEWORK

	Tons per square foot
Rubble walls, irregular stones	3
Rubble walls, coursed, soft stone	2½
Rubble walls, coursed, hard stone	5 to 16
Dimension-stone, squared, in cement mortar:	
Sandstone and limestone	10 to 20
Granite	20 to 40
Dressed stone, with ⅛-in dressed joints, in Portland-cement mortar:	
Granite	60
Marble or limestone, best	40
Sandstone	30

The height of columns should not exceed eight times the least diameter, unles the least diameter is sufficiently greater than necessary for the strength of th material used.

CONCRETE *

Portland-cement mortar, 1 : 8, 6 months, 10 tons; 1 year, 15 to 20 tons
Natural-cement mortar, 1 : 6, 6 months, 3 tons; 1 year, 5 to 8 tons

HOLLOW TILE

Safe loads per square inch of effective bearing parts

Hard fire-clay tiles	80 lb †
Hard ordinary clay tiles	60 lb
Porous terra-cotta tiles	40 lb

MORTAR

In ½-in joints, 3 months old

	Tons per square foot
Portland-cement mortar, 1 : 4	40
Natural-cement mortar, 1 : 3	13
Lime mortar, best	8 to 10
Best Portland-cement mortar, 1 : 2, in ¼-in joints for bedding iron plates	70

The values given above **are generally very conservative.** **The leading archi**tects and engineers of Chicago recommended for that city in 1908 the following SAFE WORKING PRESSURES for brick and stone masonry and concrete:

Common brick of crushing strength equal to 1 800 lb per sq in:	Lb per sq in	Tons per sq ft
In lime mortar	100	7⅕
In lime-and-cement mortar	125	9
In natural-cement mortar	150	10⅘
In Portland-cement mortar	175	12⅗

* See pages 283 to 287.

† These loads are allowed by the Chicago Building Ordinance.

	Lb per sq in	Tons per sq ft
Select, hard, common brick, of crushing strength equal to 2 500 lb per sq in:		
In 1 part Portland cement, 1 lime-paste and 3 sand.	175	12⅗
In 1 : 3 Portland-cement mortar..................	200	14⅖
Pressed and sewer-brick, of crushing strength equal to 5 000 lb per sq in:		
In 1 : 3 Portland-cement mortar..................	250	18
Paving brick, in 1 : 3 Portland-cement mortar........	350	25⅕
Concrete, natural cement, 1 : 2 : 5..................	150	10⅘
Concrete, Portland cement, 1 : 3 : 6, machine-mixed..	300	21⅗
Concrete, Portland cement, 1 : 3 : 6, hand-mixed.....	250	18
Concrete, Portland cement, 1 : 2 : 4, machine-mixed..	400	28⅘
Concrete, Portland cement, 1 : 2 : 4, hand-mixed.....	350	25⅕
Rubble, uncoursed, in lime mortar..................	60	4⅓
Rubble, uncoursed, in Portland-cement mortar........	100	7⅕
Rubble, coursed, in lime mortar....................	120	8½
Rubble, coursed, in Portland-cement mortar..........	200	14⅖
Ashlar, limestone, in Portland-cement mortar........	400	28⅘
Ashlar, granite, in Portland-cement mortar..........	600	43⅕

Table II. Comparison of Building Laws

Materials	Boston, 1909	Buffalo, 1909	New York, 1906	Chicago, 1914	St. Louis, 1907	Philadelphia, 1914	Denver, 1898
	Allowable pressures in tons per sq ft						
Granite, cut..........................	60	....	72–172	43	....	....	40
Marble and limestone, cut..............	40	....	50–165	29	....	....	....
Sandstone, hard, cut..................	30	....	28–115	29	....	....	12
Hard-burned brick in Portland-cement mortar..................	20	12	15	12½	21½	....	....
Hard-burned brick in natural-cement mortar..................	18	9	....	10	....	15	9
Hard-burned brick in cement-and-lime mortar..................	12	....	11½	....	11½	12	....
Hard-burned brick in lime mortar.	8	6	8	6½	11	8	8
Pressed brick in Portland-cement mortar..................	....	12	....	....	....	....	....
Pressed brick in natural-cement mortar..................	....	9	....	....	....	....	12
Rubble stone in natural-cement mortar..................	....	5*	8†	....	....	10	12
Portland-cement concrete in foundations, 1 : 2 : 4..............	30	4	16.5	18–28‡	18	15	10
Natural-cement concrete in foundations, 1 : 2 : 4..............	....	....	9	10½§	....	....	4

* In Portland-cement mortar.

† In Portland-cement mortar, 10; in lime-cement mortar, 7; in lime mortar, 5.

‡ According to mixture.

§ 1 : 2 : 5 mixture.

Brick Piers. As a rule brickwork is subject to its full safe resistance only when used in piers, and in small sections of walls, under bearing-plates. In the latter case but a few courses receive the full load, and hence a greater un stress may be allowed than for piers. Values for computing the area of bearin plates are given in Chapter XIII. Aside from the quality of the work an materials the two elements which most influence the strength of brick pie are the ratio of height to least lateral dimension and the method of bondin When the height of a brick pier exceeds six times its least lateral dimension th load per square foot should be reduced from the values given in Table I.

Formulas for the Safe Strength of Brick Piers exceeding six diamete in height. From the records of numerous tests on the strength of brick pier from some formulas published[*] by Ira O. Baker, and also from personal obse vation, Mr. Kidder deduced the following formulas for the maximum workin loads for first-class brickwork in piers whose height exceeds six times the lea lateral dimension.

For piers laid with rich lime mortar:

$$\text{Safe load per square inch} = 110 - 5\,H/D \qquad (1$$

For piers laid with 1 : 2 natural-cement mortar:

$$\text{Safe load per square inch} = 140 - 5\tfrac{1}{2}\,H/D \qquad (2$$

For piers laid with 1 : 3 Portland-cement mortar:

$$\text{Safe load per square inch} = 200 - 6\,H/D \qquad (3$$

H representing the height in feet, and D the least lateral dimension in feet.[†]

For a pier 20 ft high and 2 ft square these formulas will reduce the safe loa to 4.3 tons per sq ft for lime mortar, 6.1 tons for natural-cement mortar an 10 tons for Portland-cement mortar. No pier over 8 ft high should be less tha 12 by 12 in in cross-section and when from 6 to 8 ft high piers should be at lea 8 by 12 in in cross-section.

The following is the Chicago law (1914): "Isolated piers of concrete, bric or masonry shall not be higher than six times their smallest dimensions unle the above unit stresses[‡] are reduced according to the following formula:

$$P = C\,(1.25 - H/20\,D) \qquad (4$$

in which P is the reduced allowed unit load, C the unit stress above referre to, H the height of the pier in feet and D the least dimension of the pier in fee No pier shall exceed in height twelve times the least dimension. The weigh of the pier shall be added to other loads in computing the load on the pier."

Brick piers intended to carry more than 50% of the safe loads given abov should not be built in freezing weather nor with dry bricks. Lime morta should not be used for building piers that are to receive their full load withi three months.

Effect of Bond on the Strength of Brickwork. Brick piers, loaded t the point of destruction, always fail by the splitting and bulging out of th piers themselves, and not by direct crushing of the bricks or mortar, showing that piers are weakest in their bond and in the tensile or transverse strengths of the bricks. It is very important, therefore, to have the brickwork well bonded, and all joints filled with mortar or grouted. The strength of a brick pier intended to carry an extreme load would probably be increased by bonding frequently with hoop-iron in addition to the regular brick-bond.*

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[*] In the Brickbuilder, April, 1898.

[†] For piers faced with pressed bricks, laid with joints ¼ in or less in thickness, an backed with common bricks in lime mortar, only the dimensions of the backing should b considered in figuring their strength. If the backing is laid in cement mortar and th face-bricks are well tied to the backing, the full section of the pier may be considered. Fo piers veneered with stone or terra-cotta, 4 in thick, only the strength of the backing shoul be considered.

[‡] These are in general the "safe working pressures" for brickwork previously mentione as recommended by the Chicago architects and engineers in 1908.

Bond-Stones in Brick Piers. Many competent architects and builders consider that the strength of a brick pier is increased by inserting bond-stones, from 5 to 8 in in thickness and the full size of the pier in cross-section, every 3 or 4 ft in height.

For example, the Building Laws for the City of New York (1906) require bond-stones every 30 in in height, and at least 4 in in thickness, to be built into brick piers which contain "less than 9 superficial feet at the base, and which support any beam, girder, arch, or column on which a wall rests, or lintel spanning an opening over 10 ft and supporting a wall." The New York laws allow cast-iron plates of sufficient strength and of the full cross-section of the pier to be used instead of the bond-stones. On the other hand, there are many first-class builders who consider that bond-stones in a brick pier do more harm than good, and the author is of the opinion that this is generally the case. The Boston Building Laws do not require intermediate bond-stones. If bond-stones are used, they should be bedded so as to bear rather more heavily on the inner portion of the pier than on the outer 4 in, for unless this is done the outer shell will take most of the load, and will be likely to bulge away from the core. A pier which supports a girder or column should have a cap-stone or iron plate of sufficient strength to distribute the pressure over the entire cross-section of the pier.

Walls faced with Stone, Terra-Cotta, or Cement Blocks. Brick walls faced with blocks or ashlar of any material should always have the backing laid in cement mortar or in cement-and-lime mortar, unless the backing is very thick, that is, 30 in or more. The aggregate thickness of the mortar joints in the backing is so much greater than in the facing, that any shrinkage or compression of the mortar tends to throw undue weight on the facing and to separate it from the backing. Veneering of any kind should be tied to the backing at least every 18 in in height. The New York Building Code (1906, Sections 28 and 29) requires that all bearing walls faced with bricks laid in running bond, and all walls faced with stone ashlar less than 8 in thick, shall be of such thickness as to make the wall independent of the facing conform to that required for unfaced walls. Ashlar 8 in thick and bonded into the backing may be counted as part of the thickness of the wall.

Grouting.† It is contended by persons having large experience in building that masonry carefully grouted, when the temperature is not lower than 40° F., will give the most efficient result. Many of the largest buildings in New York City have grouted walls. The Mersey docks and warehouses at Liverpool, England, one of the greatest pieces of masonry in the world, were grouted throughout. It should be stated, however, that there are many engineers and others who do not believe in grouting, claiming that the materials tend to separate and form layers.

Crushing Height of Brick and Stone. If we assume that the weight of brickwork is 120 lb per cu ft, and that it would commence to crush under 700 lb per sq in, then a wall of uniform thickness would have to be 840 ft high before the bottom courses would commence to crush from the weight of the brickwork above. Average sandstones, at 145 lb per cu ft, would require a column 5 950 ft high to crush the bottom stones, and an average granite, at 165 lb per cu ft, would require a column 10 470 ft high. The Merchants' shot-tower at Baltimore is 246 ft high, and its base sustains a pressure of 6¼ tons per sq ft, the tons being long tons of 2 240 lb. The base of the granite pier of Saltash Bridge (by Brunel), of solid masonry to the height of 96 ft, and supporting the ends of two iron spans of 455 ft each, sustains 9½ tons per sq ft.

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* The manner in which brick piers fail is excellently shown by illustrations on page 79 of the Brickbuilder for May, 1896.

† See American Architect, July 21, 1887, page 11.

Stone Piers. Piers of good strong building stone laid in courses the full cross-sections of the piers, with the top and bottom courses bedded true and even, may be built to support very heavy loads. The height of such piers, however, should not exceed ten times the least lateral dimension, and when it exceeds eight times the thickness, the load should be reduced. The joints should not exceed ⅜ in in thickness and should be spread with 1 : 2 Portland-cement mortar, kept back 1 in from the face of the pier to prevent spalling of the edges. A test of the strength of a limestone pier 12 in square is described under Marbles and Limestones, in this chapter. Rubble-work should not be used for piers whose height exceeds five times the least dimension, or in which the latter is less than 20 in.

Records of Tests on the Crushing Resistance of Bricks. Table III gives the results of some tests on bricks, made under the direction of Mr. Kidder in behalf of the Massachusetts Charitable Mechanics' Association.

Table III. Ultimate and Cracking Strengths of Bricks

Kind of brick	Size of test-specimen	Area of face, sq in	Commenced to crack under lb per sq in	Net strength, lb per sq in
Philadelphia face-brick	Whole brick	33.7	4 303	6 062
Philadelphia face-brick	Whole brick	32.2	3 400	5 831
Philadelphia face-brick	Whole brick	34.03	2 879	5 862
Average	....	....	3 527	5 918
Cambridge brick (Eastern)	Half brick	10.89	3 670	9 825
Cambridge brick (Eastern)	Whole brick	25.77	7 760	12 941
Cambridge brick (Eastern)	Half brick	12.67	3 393	11 681
Cambridge brick (Eastern)	Half brick	13.43	3 797	14 296
Average	....	....	4 655	12 186
Boston Terra-Cotta Co.'s brick	Half brick	11.46	11 518	13 839
Boston Terra-Cotta Co.'s brick	Whole brick	25.60	8 593	11 406
Boston Terra-Cotta Co.'s brick	Whole brick	28.88	3 530	9 766
Average	....	....	7 880	11 670
New England pressed brick	Half brick	12.95	3 862	10 270
New England pressed brick	Half brick	13.2	8 180	13 530
New England pressed brick	Half brick	13.30	2 480	13 082
New England pressed brick	Half brick	13.45	4 535	13 085
Average	....	....	4 764	12 490

The specimens were tested in the government testing-machine at Watertown, Mass., and great care was exercised to make the tests as perfect as possible. As the parallel plates between which the bricks are crushed are fixed in one position, it is necessary that each specimen tested should have perfectly parallel faces. The bricks which were tested were rubbed on a revolving bed until the top and bottom faces were perfectly true and parallel. The preparation of the bricks in this way required a great deal of time and expense; and it was so difficult to prepare some of the harder bricks that they had to be broken and only one-half of the brick prepared at a time.

The Philadelphia bricks used in these tests were obtained from a Boston dealer, and were fair samples of what is known in Boston as Philadelphia Face-Bricks. They were very soft bricks.

The Cambridge bricks were the common bricks, such as are made around Boston. They are about the same as the Eastern bricks.

The Boston Terra-Cotta Company's bricks were manufactured of a rather fine clay, and were such as are often used for face-bricks.

The New England pressed bricks were hydraulic-pressed bricks, and were almost as hard as iron.

From tests made on the same machine by the United States Government in 1884, the average strength of three (M. W. Sands) Cambridge, Mass., face-bricks was 13 925 lb, and of his common bricks, 18 337 lb per sq in, one brick developing the enormous strength of 22 351 lb per sq in. This was a very hard-burned brick. Three bricks of the Bay State (Mass.) manufacture showed an average strength of 11 400 lb per sq in. The New England bricks are among the hardest and strongest in the country, those in many parts of the West not having one-fourth the strength given above; so that in heavy buildings, where the strength of the bricks to be used is not known by actual tests, it is advisable to have the bricks tested. Ira O. Baker reported some tests on Illinois bricks, made on the 100 000-pound testing-machine at the University of Illinois in 1888 and 1889, which give for the crushing strength of soft bricks, 674 lb per sq in, for the average of three face-bricks, 3 070 lb per sq in, and for four paving-bricks, 9 775 lb per sq in. In nearly all makes of bricks it will be found that the face-bricks are not as strong as the common bricks.

Tests of the Strength of Brick Piers Laid with Various Mortars.* These tests were made for the purpose of testing the strength of brick piers laid up with different cement mortars, as compared with those laid up with ordinary mortar. The bricks used in the piers were procured at M. W. Sands's brickyard, Cambridge, Mass., and were good ordinary bricks. They were from the same lot as the samples of common bricks described above. The piers were 8 by 12 in in cross-section, and nine courses, or about 22½ in high, excepting the first, which was but eight courses high. They were built Nov. 29, 1881, in one of the storehouses at the United States Arsenal in Watertown, Mass. In order to have the two ends of the piers perfectly parallel surfaces, a coat of pure Portland cement, about ½ in thick, was put on the top of each pier and the foot was grouted in the same cement. On March 3, 1882, three months and five days later, the tops of the piers were dressed to plane surfaces at right-angles to the sides of the piers. On attempting to dress the lower ends of the piers, the cement grout peeled off, and it was necessary to remove it entirely and put on a layer of cement similar to that on the tops of the piers. This was allowed to harden for one month and sixteen days, when the piers were tested. At that time the piers were four months and twenty-six days old. As the piers were built in cold weather, the bricks were not wet. They were built by a skilled bricklayer and the mortars were mixed under his superintendence. The tests were made with the government testing-machine at the Arsenal. The following table is arranged so as to show the result of these tests, and to afford a ready means of comparison of the strength of brickwork with different mortars. The piers generally failed by cracking longitudinally, and some of the bricks were crushed. The Portland cement used in these tests was made by Brooks, Shoobridge & Company, of England. Roman cement is a European natural cement, usually, although not always, containing a low percentage of magnesia. It sets rapidly, has about one-third the strength of true Portland cement and is much weakened by the addition of sand.

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* Made under the direction of F. E. Kidder.

Table IV. Tests of Piers of Common Bricks Laid in Different Mortars

Piers 8 by 12 in in section, built of common bricks in common mortar	Ultimate strength of pier, lb	Pressure per sq in under which pier commenced to crack, lb	Ultimate strength, lb per sq in
Lime mortar	150 000	833	1 562
Lime mortar, 3 parts; Portland cement, 1 part	290 000	1 875	3 020
Lime mortar, 3 parts; Newark and Rosendale cements, 1 part	245 000	1 354	2 552
Lime mortar, 3 parts; Roman cement, 1 part	195 000	1 041	2 030
Portland cement, 1 part; sand, 2 parts	240 000	1 302	2 500
Newark and Rosendale cements, 1 part; sand, 2 parts	205 000	708	2 135
Roman cement, 1 part; sand, 2 parts	185 000	1 770	1 927

As the actual strength of brick piers is a very important consideration in building-construction, some tests, made by the United States Government at Watertown, Mass., and contained in the report of the tests made on the Government testing-machine for the year 1884, are given as being of much value. Three kinds of bricks were represented in the construction of the piers, and mortars of different composition, ranging in strength from lime mortar to neat Portland-cement mortar. The piers ranged in cross-section dimensions from 8 by 8 to 16 by 16 in, and in height from 16 in to 10 ft. They were tested at the age of from 18 to 24 months.

Table V gives the results obtained and memoranda regarding the size and character of the piers.

Table VI gives the results obtained from tests of the strength of brick piers made at the McGill University, Montreal, laboratories, in March, 1897.

Recent Tests of Brick Piers. Elaborate tests of brick piers, with valuable results,* were made in 1908 by A. N. Talbot and D. A. Abrams at the University of Illinois Experiment Station. Table VII is a summary of these results. The tests were made on sixteen brick piers, the lengths of which varied

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* Published in Bulletin No. 27, University of Illinois Engineering Experiment Station, Sept. 29, 1908.

Table V. Tabulated Results of the Actual Crushing Strength of Brick Piers

Number of test	Nominal dimensions			Composition of mortar	Weight per cubic foot	Sectional area	First crack	Ultimate strength			
	Height		Cross-section					Total	Lb per sq in	Tons per sq ft	Per cent of single brick
	ft	in			lb	sq in	lb	lb			
Built of face-bricks (M. W. Sands, Cambridge, Mass.)											
11	1	4	8 by 8	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	137.4	57.00	85 000	143 600	2 520	181.4	18.1
320	6	8	8 by 8	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	133.5	57.76	50 000	108 400	1 877	135.1	13.5
12	1	4	8 by 8	1 Portland-cement mortar, 2 sand	136.3	57.76	200 000	218 100	3 776	271.8	27.1
321	6	8	8 by 8	1 Portland-cement mortar, 2 sand	133.5	57.76	85 000	129 900	2 249	161.9	16.2
283	2	0	12 by 12	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	....	132.25	140 000	257 100	1 940	139.7	13.9
284*	2	0	12 by 12	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	....	113.70	90 000	226 100	1 990	143.3	14.3
332	10	0	12 by 12	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	131.7	132.25	70 000	199 800	1 511	108.8	10.9
334†	10	0	12 by 12	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	125.0	115.44	100 000	208 600	1 807	130.1	13.0
286	2	0	12 by 12	1 Portland-cement mortar, 2 sand	....	132.25	200 000	486 000	3 670	264.2	26.4
326	10	0	12 by 12	1 Portland-cement mortar, 2 sand	132.2	132.25	200 000	298 000	2 253	162.2	16.2
Built of common bricks (M. W. Sands)											
10	1	4	8 by 8	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	135.6	60.80	66 000	148 800	2 440	175.6	13.3
12½	6	8	8 by 8	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	133.6	62.40	....	96 100	1 540	110.8	8.4
281	2	0	12 by 12	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	....	138.06	75 000	296 400	2 150	154.8	11.7
282‡	2	0	12 by 12	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	....	119.58	120 000	244 600	2 050	147.6	11.2
331	9	9	12 by 12	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	131.5	138.06	70 000	154 300	1 118	80.5	6.1
330§	10	0	12 by 12	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	136.0	115.50	70 000	183 300	1 587	114.3	8.6
329	10	0	12 by 12	1 Portland-cement mortar, 2 sand	131.0	138.06	....	276 600	2 003	144.2	10.9
387	2	8	16 by 16	1 Portland-cement mortar, 2 sand	....	256.00	460 000	696 000	2 720	195.8	14.8
328	10	0	16 by 16	1 Portland-cement mortar, 2 sand	....	256.00	340 000	483 100	1 887	135.8	10.3

* Has a hollow core, 4.25 by 4.25 in. † Has a hollow core, 4.1 by 4.1 in. ‡ Has a hollow core, 4.5 by 4.5 in. § Has a hollow core, 4.75 by 4.75 in.

Table V (Continued). Tabulated Results of the Actual Crushing Strength of Brick Piers

Number of test	Nominal dimensions			Composition of mortar	Weight per cubic foot	Sectional area	First crack	Ultimate strength			
	Height		Cross-section					Total	Lb per sq in	Tons per sq ft	Per cent of single brick
	ft	in			lb	sq in	lb	lb			
Built of common bricks (Bay State)											
285	2	0	12 by 12	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	....	146.41	95 000	201 000	1 370	98.6	12.0
288	6	0	12 by 12	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	....	144.00	70 000	163 200	1 133	81.6	9.9
289	6	0	12 by 12	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	119.7	144.00	100 000	174 300	1 210	87.1	10.6
291*	6	0	12 by 12	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	118.2	144.00	80 000	191 600	1 331	95.8	11.7
292†	6	0	12 by 12	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	118.1	156.25	110 000	189 200	1 211	87.2	10.6
325	7	10	12 by 12	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	120.0	144.00	100 000	169 100	1 174	84.6	10.3
327	10	0	12 by 12	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	118.0	144.00	90 000	133 100	924	66.6	8.1
335	10	0	8 by 12	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	107.0	96.00	35 000	90 200	940	67.7	8.2
333	10	0	12 by 16	1 lime mortar, 3 sand	118.7	192.00	80 000	148 500	773	55.7	6.8
301	6	0	12 by 12	1 Rosendale-cement mortar, 2 lime mortar..........................	120.6	144.00	160 000	237 000	1 646	118.5	14.4
293	6	0	12 by 12	1 Rosendale-cement mortar, 2 sand	123.0	144.00	260 000	284 000	1 972	142.0	17.3
300	6	0	12 by 12	1 Portland-cement mortar, 2 lime mortar..........................	120.3	144.00	150 000	203 200	1 411	101.6	12.4
294	6	0	12 by 12	1 Portland-cement mortar, 2 sand	119.7	144.00	220 000	258 000	1 792	129.0	15.7
290	6	0	12 by 12	Neat Portland-cement mortar	126.6	144.00	280 000	342 000	2 375	171.0	20.8

* Joints broken every six courses.

† Bricks laid on edge.

Table VI. Tests of Brick Piers, McGill University Laboratories, March, 1897

Dimensions of piers	Composition of mortar	Kind of bricks	Crushing strength, lb per sq in		Age
			At first crack	Maximum load	
8.1 by 8.1 in, 11.6 in high; joints ¼ in thick	1 Canadian Portland-cement mortar, 3 sand	Ordinary well-burned flat bricks	822	1 234	3 weeks
8.1 by 8.1 in, 11.6 in high; joints ⅓ in thick	1 German Portland-cement mortar, 3 sand	Ordinary well-burned flat bricks	990	1 230	3 weeks
8.2 by 8.3 in, 10.5 in high; joints ½ in thick	1 English Portland-cement mortar, 3 sand	La Prairie pressed bricks, keyed on one side	1 130	1 524	3 weeks
8.4 by 8.4 in, 10.75 in high; joints ¼ in thick	1 Belgian Portland-cement mortar, 3 sand	La Prairie pressed bricks, keyed on one side	1 204	1 985	3 weeks

Table VII. Tests of Brick Piers, Made at the University of Illinois

The amounts given are average values

Characteristics of piers	Average unit load lb per sq in	Ratio of strength of pier to strength of brick	Ratio of strength of pier to strength of first of series	Crushing strength of 6-in mortar-cubes lb per sq in	Ratio of strength of pier to strength of cubes
Shale building bricks					
Well laid, 1 : 3 Portland-cement mortar, 67 days	3 363	0.31	Standard 1.00	2 870*	1.17
Well laid, 1 : 3 Portland-cement mortar, 6 months	3 950	0.37	1.18	....	....
Well laid, 1 : 3 Portland-cement mortar, eccentrically loaded, 68 days	2 800	0.26	0.83	....	....
Poorly laid, 1 : 3 Portland-cement mortar, 67 days	2 920	0.27	0.87	2 870*	1.05
Well laid, 1 : 5 Portland-cement mortar, 65 days	2 225	0.21	0.66	1 710	1.30
Well laid, 1 : 3 natural-cement mortar, 67 days	1 750	0.16	0.52	305	5.75
Well laid, 1 : 2 lime mortar, 66 days	1 450	0.14	0.43	....	....
Underburned clay bricks					
Well laid, 1 : 3 Portland-cement mortar, 63 days	1 060	0.27	0.31	2 870*	0.37

* Average value based on thirteen tests of 1 : 3 Portland-cement mortar-cubes, 60 days old.

from 10 to 10½ ft. The lateral dimensions were 12½ by 12½ in. Two grades of bricks were used, an excellent class of building bricks and a soft grade selected as representative of inferior bricks. Different qualities of mortar and different grades of workmanship were employed.

Included in the same tests at the University of Illinois were compression-tests of single bricks, with the following average results. For hard, shale building bricks, bedded in plaster, crushing strength, flatwise, 10 700 lb per sq in; modulus of rupture, edgewise, 6-in span, 1 670 lb per sq in. For soft or underburned clay bricks, crushing strength, flatwise, 3 900 lb per sq in; modulus of rupture, 480 lb per sq in.

Tensional Strength of Brickwork. For the safe tensional strength of brickwork and other materials in footings, see Chapter II, page 179.

2. Strength of Terra-Cotta and Terra-Cotta Piers

General Properties of Terra-Cotta. The lightness of terra-cotta, combined with its great compressive strength, together with its durability and indestructibility by fire, water, frost, etc., renders it an especially valuable building material. Terra-cotta for building purposes, whether plain or ornamental, is generally made of hollow blocks formed with webs to give extra strength and keep the work true while drying. This is necessary because good, well-burned terra-cotta cannot safely be made more than about 1½ in thick, whereas, when required to bond with brickwork, it must be at least 4 in thick. When extra strength is needed, these hollow spaces are filled with concrete or brickwork, which greatly increases the crushing strength of the terra-cotta, although alone it is able to bear a very heavy weight. "A solid cubical block of terra-cotta has borne a crushing-stress of more than 500 tons."

Crushing Strength of Terra-Cotta Blocks. Some exhaustive experiments made by the Royal Institute of British Architects give the following results as the crushing strengths of terra-cotta blocks:

	Crushing weight per cu ft
Solid block of terra-cotta	523 tons
Hollow block of terra-cotta, unfilled	186 tons
Hollow block of terra-cotta, lightly made and unfilled	80 tons

Tests of terra-cotta manufactured by a New York Company, which were made at the Stevens Institute of Technology in April, 1888, gave the following results:

	Crushing weight per cu in		Crushing weight per cu ft
Terra-cotta block, 2-in square, red	6 840 lb	or	492 tons
Terra-cotta block, 2-in square, buff	6 236 lb	or	449 tons
Terra-cotta block, 2-in square, gray	5 126 lb	or	369 tons

In tests for the New York Building Department, made at Columbia University, dense terra-cotta blocks developed a net crushing strength of 4 721 lb per sq in or 340 tons per sq ft, and semiporous, 2 168 lb per sq in or 156 tons per sq ft, these results being in each case the averages of a series of tests. (See page 816.)

From these results, the writer would place the safe working strength of terra-cotta blocks in the wall at 5 tons per sq ft when unfilled, and 10 tons per sq ft when filled solid with brickwork or concrete.

Tests of Terra-Cotta Piers. Tests * of terra-cotta block piers were made about the same time (January, 1907, and January, 1908) that the brick piers referred to in Table VII were made. The tests were made on terra-cotta piers, the lengths of which varied from 9 ft 9 in to 12 ft 7¾ in. The lateral dimensions varied from 8½ by 8½ in to 17½ by 17½ in. "The piers were built and tested in two lots, an interval of about one year separating the times of making the tests. The two lots of piers were built of blocks which came in different shipments. The cement used was the same brand in both years, although the lots were different. The terra-cotta block piers were generally made in sets of two. Each set was constructed and loaded similarly. Three of the piers were laid up hurriedly (poorly laid); the remainder were built with the usual care given to such work. The load was applied to the piers in different ways, although generally applied continuously to failure." Some piers were loaded eccentrically to failure and one was loaded both concentrically and eccentrically, but the additional eccentric load was not sufficient to cause failure.

Table VIII. Tests of Terra-Cotta Piers, Made at the University of Illinois

The amounts given are average values. The table gives results of tests of piers of second shipment, except for the concave-end blocks. The piers recorded in this table were all 12½ by 12½ in by 9¾ ft.

Characteristics of piers	Average unit load lb per sq in	Ratio of strength of pier to strength of block, gross area	Ratio of strength of pier to strength of first of series	Crushing strength of 6-in mortar-cubes lb per sq in	Ratio of strength of pier to strength of cubes
Well laid, 1 : 3 Portland-cement mortar, concentrically loaded	4 300*	0.83*	Standard 1.00*	....	1.26*
Well laid, 1 : 3 Portland-cement mortar, eccentrically loaded	3 470	0.65	0.81*	3 090	1.12
Poorly laid, 1 : 3 Portland-cement mortar, concentrically loaded	3 305	0.64	0.76	3 130	1.05
Poorly laid, 1 : 3 Portland-cement mortar, eccentrically loaded	3 110	0.60	0.75	3 025	1.06
Well laid, 1 : 3 Portland-cement mortar, concentrically loaded	3 050	0.59	0.71	3 370	0.88
Well laid 1 : 5 Portland-cement mortar, concentrically loaded, inferior unburned blocks †	3 350	0.65	0.78	....	....
Blocks with concave ends, 1 : 2 Portland-cement mortar	2 970	0.86	0.69	....	....

* Estimated. † Blocks of good quality, but underburned.

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* See Bulletin No. 27, University of Illinois Engineering Experiment Station, Sept. 29, 1908.

Comparison of Results of Tests of Brick and Terra-Cotta Piers. In the tests summarized in Tables VII and VIII, "both the brick piers and the terra-cotta block piers gave high strengths in all cases where strong mortar and care in building were used. The effect of the strength of the mortar was apparent in the carrying capacity developed in the piers, smaller loads being indicated for piers built with 1 : 5 Portland-cement mortar than for those with 1 : 3 Portland-cement mortar, and still smaller loads for those with 1 : 2 lime mortar. The effect of the quality of the bricks is shown in the piers made with inferior bricks, these piers carrying only 31% as much as piers built with the better grade of bricks. In the case of the terra-cotta piers, the blocks which were culled out as somewhat inferior gave a pier-strength which was perhaps 30% less than the piers built with superior blocks. The effect of the attempt to represent hurried or careless workmanship in two brick piers and in three terra-cotta block piers was a loss in strength of about 15% and 25% respectively.

"In the well-built brick piers, concentrically loaded, the ratio of strength of pier to compressive strength of individual brick ranged from 31 to 37%, and in the underburned clay-brick pier the ratio was 27%. In the terra-cotta block piers, concentrically loaded, the ratio of strength of pier to that of individual block was 74% (an incompleted test) and 83, 85 and 89% for the others. The higher ratio found for the terra-cotta block piers than for brick piers suggests that the ability of individual pieces to resist transverse forces is an element in the strength of the completed pier; and this suggestion may have an important bearing on the advantageous size of the component blocks which may be used in a compression-piece where great strength is required.

"The strength of the pier is greater than that of the mortar-cubes in both brick and terra-cotta block piers, except the soft-brick piers, which had bricks of low compressive strength. Both the strength of the individual bricks or blocks and the strength of the mortar affect the resistance of the pier, and the relative effect of the two depends upon the character of the materials. It is evident, however, that the better the individual piece the more important it is to have a mortar of high resisting strength.

"The results obtained in applying the loads eccentrically were found to agree very well with those obtained from ordinary analysis.

"The quality of workmanship in laying up such columns has an important bearing upon the resisting strength. The work of building piers, however, is not difficult and requires only ordinary care. Full joints and an even bearing are important, and the ordinary workman ought to be able to construct piers of great strength. In the tests made on piers intended to represent poor or careless workmanship, the decrease in strength was not as much as anticipated. However, it must be understood that careful and trustworthy work is essential and that a few poor joints will materially reduce the strength of the structure. Wherever good material and good workmanship are insured the strength of masonry of this kind may be utilized with advantage."

Strength of Terra-Cotta Brackets or Consoles. A cornice-modillion made by the Northwestern Terra-Cotta Company, 11½ in high at the wall-line, 8 in wide on the face, and with a projection of 2 ft, was built into a wall and the upper surface loaded with 2 tons of pig iron without any effect upon the modillion. Another bracket, 5½ in high, 6 in wide and with a 14-in projection, made in the East, broke at the wall-line under 2 650 lb, while a duplicate of it sustained 2 400 lb for one month without breaking.*

The Weight of Terra-Cotta. The weight of terra-cotta in solid blocks is 120 or 122 lb per cu ft. When made in hollow blocks 1½ in thick the weight varies from 65 to 85 lb per cu ft, the smaller pieces weighing the most. For pieces 12 by 18 in or larger on the face, 70 lb per cu ft will probably be a fair average. The tables in the manufacturers' catalogues give the various bearing-areas, weights per square foot, thicknesses of parts, sizes of blocks, etc., for porous and semiporous blocks for all purposes.

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* See The Brickbuilder, Vol. 7, page 142.

3. Crushing Strength of Building Stones

(1) Sandstones

Longmeadow, Mass., Stone.* Reddish-brown sandstone, two blocks about 4 by 4 in in cross-section and 8 in in height.

Block No. 1 commenced to crack at 10 333 lb per sq in, and flew from the machine in fragments at 13 596 lb per sq in.

Block No. 2 commenced to crack at 3 012 lb per sq in and failed completely at 9 121 lb per sq in.

Sandstone from Norcross Brothers' Quarries, East Longmeadow, Mass., Soft Saulsbury Stone.* Block No. 1, 4 by 4 by 8 in high, commenced to crack at 3 250 lb and failed at 8 812 lb per sq in.

Block No. 2, 4 by 4 by 8 in high, commenced to crack at 6 500 lb and failed at 8 092 lb per sq in.

Hard Saulsbury Stone.* Block No. 1, 4 by 4 by 8 in high (about), commenced to crack at 12 716 lb and failed at 13 520 lb per sq in.

Block No. 2, same size as No. 1, commenced to crack at 13 953 lb and failed at 14 650 lb per sq in.

Kibbe Stone.* Block No. 1, 6 by 6 by 6 in, commenced to crack at 12 590 lb and failed at 12 619 lb per sq in.

Block No. 2, same size as No. 1, commenced to crack at 12 185 lb and failed at 12 874 lb per sq in.

Brown Stone from the Shaler & Hall Quarry Company, Portland, Conn.† The results of the tests are as follows:

Table IX. Crushing Strength of Brown Sandstone

Dimensions			Sectional area	First crack	Ultimate strength	Classification
Height in	Compressed, surface in		sq in	lb	lb per sq in	
2.50	2.50	2.45	6.13	84 800	13 980	1st quality
2.50	2.48	2.47	6.13	81 700	13 330	1st quality
2.98	3.00	2.95	8.85	123 200	13 920	2d quality
2.95	2.98	2.97	8.85	122 000	15 020	3d quality
2.51	2.55	2.53	6.45	63 850	9 900	Bridge
2.48	2.48	2.52	6.25	58 340	9 330	Bridge

Brown Stone from the Middlesex Quarry Company, Portland, Conn.‡ Four nearly cubical blocks, about 1½ in square. Pressure per square inch at time of failure: No. 1, 10 928 lb; No. 2, 10 322 lb; No. 3, 8 252 lb and No. 4, 6 322 lb.

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* These tests were made with the United States testing-machines at Watertown Arsenal, Mass.

† From tests made by Colt's Patent Fire-arms Manufacturing Company.

‡ These tests were made with the United States testing-machines at Watertown Arsenal, Mass.

Red Sandstone * from Greenlee & Son's Quarries at Manitou, Col. On specimen failed at 11 000 lb per sq in; weight, 140 lb per cu ft.

Light-Red Laminated Sandstone,† from St. Vrain Cañon, Col., a very ha stone, excellent for walks and foundations. Crushing strength on bed, 11 50 lb per sq in; weight, 150 lb per cu ft.

Gray Sandstone † (free-working) from Trinidad, Col. Crushing strengt 10 000 lb per sq in; weight, 145 lb per cu ft.

Gray Sandstone † from Fort Collins, Col. (laminated and similar in qualit to the St. Vrain stone). Crushing strength on bed, 11 700 lb per sq in; weigh 140 lb per cu ft. One ton of this stone measures just a perch in the wall.

(2) Granite

Red Granite † from Platte Cañon, Col. Crushing strength per square inc 14 600 lb; weight per cubic foot, 164 lb.

(3) Lava Stones

Lava Stone from the Kerr Quarries, near Salida, Col. Four cubical blocks. The results of the tests are as follows:

Table X. Crushing Strength of Lava Stone

Dimensions			Sectional area	First crack	Ultimate strength	
Height in	Compressed surface in		sq in	lb	lb	lb per sq in
4.00	4.00	4.00	16.00	165 900	165 000	10 369
4.00	4.00	4.00	16.00	174 100	174 100	10 881
2.00	2.00	1.99	3.98	36 400	37 100	9 322
1.99	1.99	1.99	3.96	38 200	38 200	9 646

Lava Stone,‡ Curry's Quarry, Douglas County, Col. Crushing strength 10 675 lb per sq in; weight, 119 lb per cu ft. Experience has shown that thi stone is not suitable for piers, or where any great strength is required, as i cracks very easily.

(4) Marble and Limestone

White marble quarried at Sutherland Falls, Vt. Two cubical blocks abou 6 in square.§

Block No. 1 commenced to crack at 9 750 lb per sq in and failed suddenly a 11 250 lb per sq in.

Block No. 2 did not crack until it suddenly gave way at 10 243 lb per sq in

Test of a Limestone Pier. A pier of Lemont limestone, 1 sq ft in cross-sectio and 9 ft in height, composed of seven stones with bearing surfaces planed perfectly true and parallel to the natural bed and the joints washed with a thin grout of the best English Portland cement, was tested at the Watertown Arsena for William Sooy Smith, and only commenced to crack when the full powe of the machine, 400 tons, was exerted.

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* These tests were made with the United States testing-machines at Watertow Arsenal, Mass.

† From tests made for the Board of Capitol Managers of Colorado by State Enginee E. S. Nettleton, in 1885, on 2-in cubes.

‡ From tests made by the Denver Society of Civil Engineers, in 1884, also on 2-i cubes.

§ Tested at the United States Arsenal, Watertown, Mass.

(5) Bricks and Various Stones

Table XI gives the crushing strength of various kinds of bricks and building stones, the pressure being normal to the plane of the bed.

Table XI. Crushing Strength of Brick and Stone *

Pressure at right-angles to bed

Kind of brick or stone	Crushing strength, lb per sq in
Bricks:	
Common, Massachusetts	10 000
Common, St. Louis, Mo.	6 417
Common, Washington, D. C.	7 370
Paving, Illinois	6 000 to 13 000
Granites:	
Blue, Fox Island, Me.	14 875
Gray, Vinal Haven, Me.	13 000 to 18 000
Westerly, R. I.	15 000
Rockport and Quincy, Mass.	17 750
Milford, Conn.	22 600
Staten Island, N. Y.	22 250
East St. Cloud, Minn.	28 000
Gunnison, Col.	13 000
Red, Platte Cañon, Col.	14 600
Limestones:	
Glens Falls, N. Y.	11 475
Joliet, Ill.	12 775
Bedford, Ind.	6 000 to 10 000
Salem, Ind.	8 625
Red Wing, Minn.	23 000
Stillwater, Minn.	10 750
Sandstones:	
Dorchester, N. B. (brown)	9 150
Mary's Point, N. B. (fine grain, dark brown)	7 700
Connecticut brown stone,† (on bed)	7 000 to 13 000
Longmeadow, Mass. (reddish brown)	7 000 to 14 000
Longmeadow, Mass. (average, for good quality)	12 000
Little Falls, N. Y.	9 850
Medina, N. Y.	17 000
Potsdam, N. Y. (red)	18 000 to 42 000
Cleveland, Ohio	6 800
North Amherst, Ohio	6 212
Berea, Ohio	8 000 to 10 000
Hummelstown, Pa.	12 810
Fond du Lac, Minn.	8 750
Fond du Lac, Wis.	6 237
Manitou, Col. (light red)	6 000 to 11 000
St. Vrain, Col. (hard laminated)	11 505
Marbles:	
Lee, Mass.	22 900
Rutland, Vt.	10 746
Montgomery Co., Pa.	10 000
Colton, Cal.	17 783
Italy	12 156
Flagging:	
North River, N. Y.	13 425

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* For more complete tables of the strength, weight and composition of building stones, see new data, tables, etc. by Professor Thomas Nolan in Kidder's Building Construction and Superintendence, Part I, Masons' Work.

† This stone should not be set on edge.

(6) Additional Data on the Strength of Building Stones

Average Data for Building Stones of Good Quality. The following average relative values* are given by R. P. Miller.† SANDSTONE: weight, 150 lb per cu ft; specific gravity, 2.40; crushing strength, 8 000 lb per sq in; shearing strength, 1 500 lb per sq in; modulus of rupture, 1 200 lb per sq in; modulus of elasticity, 3 000 000 lb per sq in. GRANITE: weight, 170; specific gravity, 2.72; crushing strength, 15 000; shearing strength, 2 000; modulus of rupture, 1 500; modulus of elasticity, 7 000 000. LIMESTONE: weight, 170; specific gravity, 2.72; crushing strength, 6 000; shearing strength, 1 000; modulus of rupture, 1 200; modulus of elasticity, 7 000 000. MARBLE: weight, 170; specific gravity, 2.72; crushing strength, 10 000; shearing strength, 1 400; modulus of rupture, 1 400; modulus of elasticity, 8 000 000. SLATE: weight, 175; specific gravity, 2.80; crushing strength, 15 000; modulus of rupture, 8 500; modulus of elasticity, 14 000 000. TRAP-ROCK: weight, 185; specific gravity, 2.96; crushing strength, 20 000.

The following average relative values are given by A. I. Frye.‡ They are the results of tests made on small cubes of the materials. SANDSTONE: crushing strength, 9 000 lb per sq in; GRANITE and GNEISS: crushing strength, 17 733 lb per sq in. LIMESTONES and MARBLES: crushing strength, 14 445 lb per sq in. SLATE: crushing strength, 10 000; ultimate tensional strength, 3 000; modulus of rupture, 5 000 lb per sq in.

When stones are not tested, Frye recommends the following average values for ultimate strengths to be used in determining the safe stresses. SANDSTONE: crushing strength, 5 000; ultimate tensional strength, 150; modulus of rupture, 1 200 lb per sq in. GRANITE and GNEISS: crushing strength, 12 000; modulus of rupture, 1 600 lb per sq in. LIMESTONES and MARBLES: crushing strength, 8 000; ultimate tensional strength, 800; modulus of rupture, 1 500 lb per sq in.

The following working unit stresses in pounds per square inch for stone slabs or single blocks of stone are recommended by W. J. Douglass.§ SANDSTONE: compression, 700; tension (direct and flexural), 75; shear, 150. GRANITE, SYENITE and GNEISS: compression for hard, 1 500; for medium, 1 200; for soft, 1 000; tension (direct and flexural), 150; shear, 200. LIMESTONE: compression for hard, 1 000; for medium, 800; for soft, 700; tension (direct and flexural), 125; shear, 150. MARBLE: compression for hard, 900; for soft, 700; tension (direct and flexural), 125; shear, 150. BLUESTONE FLAGGING: compression, 1 500; tension (direct and flexural), 200.

4. Compressive Strength of Mortars and Concretes

The Compressive Strength of Lime Mortar. The crushing strength of common lime mortar, six months old and composed of 1 part lime to 6 parts sand by measure, varies from 150 to 300 lb per sq in or from 10.8 to 21.6 tons per sq ft. Lime mortar alone should never be used where any but moderate loads are to bear upon the work, nor where the full loading is to be applied before the mortar has had time to harden.

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* The values in all cases are as follows: weight, in lb per cu ft; strength, modulus of rupture and modulus of elasticity, in lb per sq in.

† American Civil Engineers' Pocket Book (1912), page 357.

‡ Civil Engineers' Pocket-Book (1913), page 511.

§ American Civil Engineers' Pocket Book (1912), page 575.

The Compressive Strength of Natural-Cement Mortar. The crushing strength * of natural-cement mortar, neat, averaged, for 7 days, 2 010; for 28 days, 2 689; for 3 months, 3 646; and for 6 months, 5 052 lb per sq in. When mixed with 2 parts of standard quartz sand, the mortar averaged in crushing strength, for 7 days, 940; for 28 days, 1 390; for 3 months, 1 730; and for 6 months, 2 012 lb per sq in. For 2 years, an additional increase of 18% and 6% may be assumed for the neat and sanded mortars, respectively, of natural cement.

The Compressive Strength of Portland-Cement Mortar. The crushing strength * of Portland-cement mortar, neat, averaged, for 7 days, 5 915; for 28 days, 7 041; for 3 months, 7 347; and for 6 months, 9 760 lb per sq in. When mixed with 3 parts of standard quartz sand, the mortar averaged, in crushing strength, for 7 days, 941; for 28 days, 1 290; for 3 months, 1 490; and for 6 months, 1 529 lb per sq in. When mixed with 3 parts of Ottawa sand, the mortar averaged, in crushing strength, for 7 days, 1 199; for 28 days, 1 796; for 3 months, 1 887; and for 6 months, 2 181 lb per sq in. For 2 years, an additional increase of about 16% and 18% may be assumed for the neat and sanded mortars, respectively, of Portland cement.

Relation of Compressive to Tensile Strength of Mortars. While it may be stated as a very general guide that the compressive strength of hydraulic-cement mortars is from six to ten times the tensile strength, these ratios are variable and cannot be used as a reliable basis for calculations. The tensile strength of Portland-cement mortars, under normal conditions, increases rapidly during the first few days, the rate of change gradually falling off. In 7 days the tensile strength is generally from one-half to two-thirds of the ultimate strength, which is practically reached in 2 or 3 months. The compressive strength, however, continues to increase with age and the rate of increase varies according to a somewhat different law.

The Compressive Strength of Concrete. There are many reasons for the variations in the values of the compressive strength of concrete and the principal factors are (1) the quality of the cement, (2) the size and character of the aggregates, (3) the quantity of the cement to a unit volume of the concrete, (4) the manner of mixing, (5) the density of the mixture, (6) the conditions under which it seasons, and (7) its age; and of these various conditions affecting the determination of the compressive strength the most important are generally the proportions of the different ingredients of the mixture and its age. Although tables of average values of ultimate crushing strengths of concrete are published and are of general value, they may be misleading unless considered with caution. In important operations it is advisable to have the concrete tested and to adjust by trial the character and proportions of the ingredients until the required strength is obtained.

Form of Specimen for Compression-Tests. For compression-tests of concrete in general, 4 to 12-in cubes of the mixture have been the standard forms of test-specimens; but since the advent of reinforced-concrete construction and the growth of the importance of determining the elastic properties of concrete, it has been found that a cylindrical test-specimen gives more definite results than a cube. A common shape of such cylinder is one in which the height is about three times the diameter, and the cylinders are not less than 6 by 18 in. It is found that the compressive strengths of these cylinders of concrete are from 10 to 15% less than those of the cubes, but for cylinders of still greater slenderness the compressive strengths remain about constant for heights up to about seven diameters.

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* From compression-tests made by W. P. Taylor on cylindrical specimens 1 in in height, about 1⅛ in in diameter and 1 sq in in cross-section.

Compression-Tests on Concrete Cubes. From some tests made in 1899 for the Boston Elevated Railway Company at the Watertown Arsenal, on 12-in cubes of concrete made with five brands of Portland cement, coarse, sharp sand and broken stone up to 2½-in size, having 49.5% voids, the following average values of the compressive strengths were obtained:

Table XII. Compression-Tests on Concrete Cubes

Mixtures	7 days lb per sq in	1 month lb per sq in	3 months lb per sq in	6 months lb per sq in
1 : 2 : 4	1 560	2 400	2 900	3 820
1 : 3 : 6	1 310	2 160	2 520	3 090

Compression-Tests on Concrete-Cylinders. For cylindrical test-specimens of concrete, made under reasonably good conditions as to character of materials and care in mixing, an average compressive strength of about 2 000 lb per sq in is usually developed in a 1 : 2 : 4 Portland-cement concrete in from 1 to 2 months; and of about 1 600 lb per sq in in a 1 : 3 : 6 mixture. When the conditions are unusually favorable somewhat higher values than these are obtained, but when the materials and workmanship are poor the ultimate compressive stresses are lower.

Increase in Compressive Strength of Portland-Cement Concrete. In regard to the increase of compressive strength of Portland-cement concrete with age, tests show that the ultimate compressive strength is nearly reached in 60 days, at which time the strength varies from 80 to 90% of its value in 1 year's time.

Ultimate Strengths of Natural-Cement Concrete. For natural-cement concrete, the ultimate compressive, tensile and shearing strengths and the modulus of rupture may be taken at about one-half the corresponding values for Portland-cement concrete, unless natural cements of known and tested values are employed.

Strength of Unreinforced Concrete Columns. Short concrete columns, of lengths up to 10 or 15 diameters, develop a crushing strength of from 10 to

Table XIII. Compression-Tests on Unreinforced Concrete Columns

Kind of concrete	Average age days	Average ultimate compressive stress lb per sq in
1 : 1 : 2	60	3 600*
1 : 1½ : 3	60	2 270
1 : 2 : 4	60	1 600
1 : 2½ : 5	60	1 200
1 : 3 : 6	60	935
1 : 3½ : 7	60	745
1 : 4 : 8	60	600

* This value was estimated as it was beyond the range of the tests.

10% less than that for short prismatic or cylindrical specimens. In Table XIII are the results obtained by A. N. Talbot * on short, round, unreinforced stone-concrete columns, 12 in in diameter and 10 ft in length. A wet-mixture concrete was used, of the different proportions shown, the forms were removed after 10 days and the columns were tested through 60 days.

The values given in the table were deduced from the straight-line formula

$$\text{Ultimate compressive strength, lb per sq in} = \frac{12\,000}{S_a + S_t} - 400$$

in which formula

S_a = the ratio of sand to cement
S_t = the ratio of stone to cement

For example, in the 1 : 3 : 6 mixture, $S_a = 3$ and $S_t = 6$

Crushing Strength of Concrete Affected by Area of Bearing Surface. Professor Hool states † that if a load is applied over the central part, only, of the bearing surface of a concrete test-specimen in compression, the unit load will be greater than if it is applied over the entire surface; and this is due to the fact that the outer parts tend to assist the inner part to resist the stress. This was shown by tests made on some of the 12-in concrete cubes used in the tests made for the Boston Elevated Railway Company and referred to in the preceding paragraphs. Thirty-six of these concrete cubes were crushed by applying the load over the entire upper bearing-surface of 144 sq in and an equal number of similar concrete cubes were then crushed by applying the stress over a smaller area, 10 by 10 in, or 100 sq in. After this, the cubes of a third set were crushed by the application of the stress over the still smaller area, 8 by 8¼ in, or 66 sq in. The tests of the second set gave unit crushing strengths 12% higher than the first, and those of the third set unit crushing strengths 28% higher than the first.

Working Stress for Bearing on Concrete. "When compression is applied to a surface of concrete of at least twice the loaded area, a stress of 32.5% of the compressive strength may be allowed." ‡

Working Stress for Axial Compression on Concrete. "For concentric compression on a plain concrete column or pier, the length of which does not exceed 12 diameters, 22.5 % of the compressive strength may be allowed." *

(For the strength of reinforced-concrete columns, see Chapter XXIV, page 945.)

Recommended Ultimate Compressive Strengths of Portland-Cement Concrete. ‡ Table XIV, of ultimate compressive strengths of concrete of different mixtures gives the values recommended by the American Society for Testing Materials, even though occasional tests show higher results. The values given are recommended as the maximum ultimate unit compressive strengths that should be used in design and on which the permissible working stresses should be based as a proper percentage of the same. The report referred to states, also, that "in selecting the permissible working stresses to be allowed on concrete, we should be guided by the working stresses usually allowed for other materials of construction, so that all structures of the same class, but composed of different materials, may have approximately the same degree of safety." (For working stresses for concretes, masonry, etc., see this chapter, pages 265 to 276.)

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* See University of Illinois Bulletin, No. 20, 1907, and Engineering News, Sept. 26, 1907.

† See Reinforced Concrete Construction, Vol I.. page 18, by George A. Hool.

‡ Report of Committee on Concrete and Reinforced Concrete, of the American Society for Testing Materials, Nov. 20, 1912.

Table XIV. Ultimate Compressive Strengths of Different Mixtures of Portland-Cement Concretes

Aggregates	Mixtures				
	1 : 1 : 2 lb per sq in	1 : 1½ : 3 lb per sq in	1 : 2 : 4 lb per sq in	1 : 2½ : 5 lb per sq in	1 : 3 : 6 lb per sq in
Granite, trap-rock..........	3 300	2 800	2 200	1 800	1 400
Gravel, hard limestone and hard sandstone...........	3 000	2 500	2 000	1 600	1 300
Soft limestone and sandstone.....................	2 200	1 800	1 500	1 200	1 000
Cinders....................	800	700	600	500	400

Effect of Consistency on the Crushing Strength of Concrete. Concre that is mixed fairly dry and tamped until the moisture is brought to the surfac develops a somewhat greater compressive strength than concrete mixed wi more water. From a large number of tests * average compressive strengths wet, plastic and dry concretes were determined. The age of the concrete w 1 year and 8 months, and five brands of cements were used. The mean co pressive strengths were, for the wet concrete, 2 130; for the plastic, 2 20 and for the dry, 2 350 lb per sq in.

In another series of tests † greater differences appeared. At the age of month the mean compressive strengths in pounds per square inch were, for t wet concrete: granite, 3 155; gravel, 2 300; limestone, 4 195. For the mediu concrete: granite, 4 090; gravel, 3 545; limestone, 2 975. For the damp co crete: granite, 4 520; gravel, 4 610; limestone, 4 365. At the end of 3 mont the values for the granite aggregates were, for the wet concrete, 4 755; for t medium, 4 990; and for the damp, 5 445.

Effect of Size of Stone on the Compressive Strength of Concretes. may be stated, generally, that the use of stones of a maximum size consiste with convenience generally results in a maximum compressive strength in t concrete. Stones of the larger sizes are generally more uniformly graded th the smaller stones, and consequently grade better with the sand and give great strength. From tests ‡ made by W. B. Fuller, the average compressive strength at 140 days, of 1 : 9 concrete, were, for maximum size of stone ½ in, 1 000 per sq in; for 1-in stone, 1 150 lb per sq in; and for 2¼-in stone, 1 400 lb p sq in.

Comparison of Compressive Strengths of Gravel and Stone Concrete Concretes made with broken stone have, generally, a somewhat greater co pressive strength than those made with gravel. From tests made by E. Candl the average compressive strength at 30 and 180 days, of concrete made wi 1½-in maximum-size broken stone, was 20% greater than that of concrete ma of gravel of about the same size, the percentage of voids being nearly the sam 40% voids for the gravel and 47.4% voids for the broken stone. The avera difference at 12 months, however, was reduced to 9%.

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* Made for G. W. Rafter. See "Tests of Metals," 1898.

† Made in 1908. See Bulletin No. 344, United States Geological Survey.

‡ See Trans. Am. Soc. C. E., Vol. 59, 1907.

Effect of the Strength of the Aggregate on the Compressive Strength of Concretes. The compressive strength of trap-rocks, granites and most limestones is relatively so great that it cannot reduce the strength of the concrete itself. Some sandstones, however, have a much lower average compressive strength, and if they are friable and soft may lower relatively the final strength of the concrete. A concrete of low strength results from using cinders for the aggregate

CHAPTER VI

FORCES AND MOMENTS

By

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1. Composition and Resolution of Forces

Composition and Resolution of Forces. Imagine a round ball placed on plane, frictionless surface at *A* (Fig. 1), the surface being perfectly level, so th the ball has no tendency to move until some for is applied to it. If, now, the force, *P*, is appli to the ball in the direction indicated by the arro the ball will move in that direction. If, instead one force only, two forces, *P* and P_1, are applied the ball, it will not move in the direction of eith of the forces, but will move in the direction of t RESULTANT of these forces, or in the direction *A* If the magnitudes of the forces *P* and P_1 a indicated by the lengths of the lines, then, if v complete the parallelogram *ABDC*, the diagon *DA* represents the direction and magnitude of single force which has the same effect on the b as that resulting from the two forces *P* and P_1. If, in addition to the tw forces *P* and P_1, the third force, P_2, is applied, the ball will move in t direction of the resultant of all three forces, and this resultant is obtained b completing the parallelogram *ADEF*, of which the resultant *DA* and the thi force P_2 are two adjacent sides. The diagonal *R* of this second parallelogram is the resultant of all three forces, and the ball will move in the direction *Ae*. In the same way the resultant of any number of forces may be found. Again, suppose a ball, whose weight is indicated by the length of the line *W* (Fig. 2), is suspended by two inclined cords. What are the magnitudes of the pulls or stresses which are developed in the cords and which keep the ball suspended at the point *A*? This is the converse of the last case. Instead of finding the diagonal or the resultant, the diagonal, which is the line *W*, is given, and the sides of the parallelogram are to be found. To find these the lines representing the directions of *P* and P_1 are prolonged and from *B* lines parallel to them are drawn to complete the parallelogram. Then *CA* is the required magnitude of the stress in cord *P*, and *BC* of that in cord P_1. Thus one force ma have the same effect as many, or many the same effect as one.

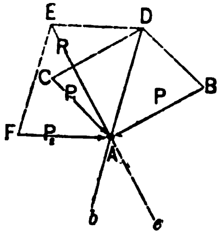

Fig. 1. Composition of Forces

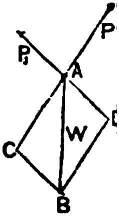

Fig. 2. Resol tion of Forces

Forces Represented by Straight Lines. In considering the action of force it is convenient to represent them graphically by straight lines with arrow heads, as in Fig. 3. The length of the line, if drawn to a scale of pounds, repr sents the MAGNITUDE OF THE FORCE in pounds; the position of the line indicat its LINE OF ACTION; the arrow-head indicates its SENSE or the direction in which it acts; and the point A its POINT OF APPLICATION. Thus the magnitude, direction and point of application are indicated and the force is completely represented.

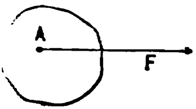

Fig. 3. Force Represented by a Straight Line

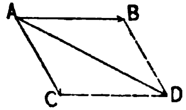

Fig. 4. Parallelogram of Forces

Parallelogram of Forces. If two forces applied at one point are represented in magnitude and direction by two straight lines inclined to each other, their resultant is the diagonal of the PARALLELOGRAM formed on those lines. Thus, if the lines AB and AC (Fig. 4) represent two forces acting at a point A, to find the force which will have the same effect as the two forces, the parallelogram $ABDC$ is completed and the diagonal AD drawn. This line represents the RESULTANT of the two forces. When the two given forces act at right-angles to each other, the magnitude of the resultant is equal to the square root of the sum of the squares of the magnitudes of the other two forces.

Triangle of Forces. If three forces acting at a point are represented in magnitude and direction by the sides of a TRIANGLE taken in order, they are in equilibrium. Let P, Q and R (Fig. 5) represent three forces acting at the point O. If a triangle can be drawn, like that shown at the right in Fig. 5 having sides respectively parallel to the directions of the forces and taken in the same order, the forces are in equilibrium. If such a triangle cannot be drawn, the forces are not in equilibrium.

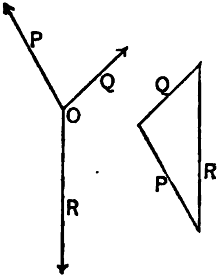

Fig. 5. Triangle of Forces

The Polygon of Forces. If any number of forces acting at a point can be represented in magnitude and direction by the sides of a POLYGON taken in order, they are in equilibrium. This follows directly from the preceding theorem.

2. Moments of Forces

Moments. In considering the stability of structures and the strength of materials, we are often obliged to take into consideration the moments of the forces acting on a structure or on some part of a structure; and a knowledge of the general PRINCIPLES OF MOMENTS is essential to the proper understanding of these subjects. When we speak of the MOMENT OF A FORCE, we must have in mind some fixed point or line with respect to which the moment is taken. The moment of a force with respect to any given point, or CENTER OF MOMENTS, is the product of the magnitude of the force and the perpendicular distance from the point to the LINE OF ACTION of the force; or, in other words, the moment of a force is the product of the magnitude of the force by the ARM with which it acts. Thus if we have the force F (Fig. 6), and wish to determine its moment with respect to the point P, we determine the perpendicular distance Pa, between the point and the line of action of the force, and multiply it by the magnitude of the force. For example, if the magnitude

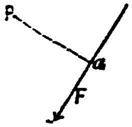

Fig. 6. Moment of a Force

of the force P is 500 lb and the distance Pa is 2 in, the moment of the force with respect to the point P is 500 lb × 2 in = 1 000 in-lb.*

Parallel Forces. If any body is in a state of rest or equilibrium under the action of parallel forces, the sum of the forces acting in one direction equals the sum of the forces acting in the opposite direction. Thus if we have the parallel forces P^1, P^2, P^3 and P^4 acting on the rod AB (Fig. 7), in a direction opposite to that of the forces P_1, P_2 and P_3, then, if the rod is in equilibrium, the sum of the forces P^1, P^2, P^3 and P^4 must equal the sum of the forces P_1, P_2 and P_3.

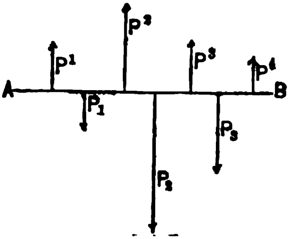

Fig. 7. Algebraic Sum of Unlike Parallel Forces

Parallel Forces Opposite in Character. If any number of parallel forces, not all acting in the same direction, act on a body, if the body is in equilibrium, the sum of the moments of the forces tending to turn the body in one direction about any given point is equal to the sum of the moments of the forces tending to turn it in the opposite direction. Let F_1, F_2 and F_3 (Fig. 8) represent three parallel forces acting on the rod AB. If the rod is in equilibrium, the sum of the forces F_2 and F_3 is equal to F_1. Also, if we take the end of the rod, A, for the center of moments, the moment of F_1 is equal to the sum of the moments of F_2 and F_3 about that point, because the moment of F_1 measures the tendency to turn the rod CLOCKWISE, and the sum of the moments of F_2 and F_3 measure the tendency to turn the rod CONTRA-CLOCKWISE, and there is no more tendency to turn the rod one way than the other. For example, let the magnitude of forces F_2, F_3 each be represented by 5 force-units, the distance Aa by 2 length-units and the distance AB by 4 length-units. The magnitude of the force F_1 must equal the sum of the magnitudes of the forces F_2 and F_3, or 10 force-units, and its moment with respect to any point in the plane of the forces must equal the sum of the moments of F_2 and F_3 with respect to the same point. If we take A as the center of moments, the moment of $F_2 = 5 \times 2 = 10$, and of $F_3 = 5 \times 4 = 20$. Their sum equals 30; hence the moment of F_1 must be 30. Dividing the moment 30 by the force $F_1 = 10$ force-units, we have for the arm, 3 length-units; or the force F_1 must act at a distance of 3 units from A to keep the rod in equilibrium. If we take b as the center of moments, the force F_1 has no moment, as the length of its lever-arm is zero; and, for equilibrium, the moment of F_2 about b must equal the moment of F_3 about the same point; or, as in this case the magnitudes of the forces F_2 and F_3 are equal, they must both be applied at the same distance from b, showing that b must be half-way between a and B, as was demonstrated before.

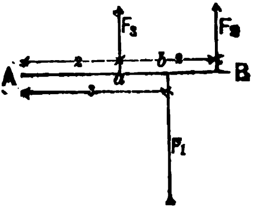

Fig. 8. Algebraic Sum of Moments of Unlike Parallel Forces

Three Parallel Forces. THE PRINCIPLE OF THE LEVER. This principle is based upon the two preceding propositions and is of great importance and convenience. If a body is in equilibrium under the action of three parallel forces acting in the same plane, each force is proportional to the normal distance between the other two. Thus, if, as in Figs. 9, 10 and 11, three forces, P_1, P_2 and

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* The expressions POUND-FEET and POUND-INCHES are often given to these products to distinguish them from FOOT-POUNDS and INCH-POUNDS, by which WORK and ENERGY are measured.

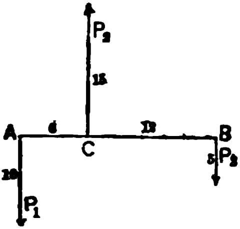


Fig. 9. Principle of the Lever

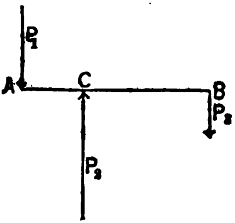


Fig. 10. Principle of the Lever

P_3 act on the rod AB, in order that it may be in equilibrium, the following relations must obtain between the magnitudes of the forces and the distances between their points of application;

$$\frac{P_1}{CB} : \frac{P_2}{AB} : \frac{P_3}{AC}$$

or

$$P_1 : P_2 : P_3 :: CB : AB : AC$$

This is the case of the COMMON LEVER and shows the method of determining what weight a given lever will raise. The proportion is also true for any arrangement of the forces (as shown in Figs. 9, 10 and 11), provided, of course, the forces are lettered in the order shown in the figures.

For example, let the distance AC be 6 in and the distance CB be 12 in. If a weight of 500 lb is applied at the point B, how much will it raise at the other end and what support will be required at C (Fig. 10)?

Applying the rule just given, we have the proportion:

$$P_3 : P_1 :: AC : CB \quad \text{or} \quad 500 : P_1 :: 6 : 12$$

Hence $P_1 = 1\,000$ lb; or 500 lb applied at B will lift 1 000 lb resting on or suspended at A. The supporting force at C must, by the principles of PARALLEL FORCES IN EQUILIBRIUM, be equal to the sum of the forces P_1 and P_3, or 1 500 lb in this case.

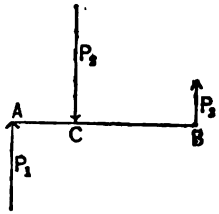


Fig. 11. Principle of the Lever

2. Center of Gravity

General Principles. The LINES OF ACTION of the force of gravity converge towards the center of the earth; but the distance of the center of the earth from the bodies which we have occasion to consider, compared with the size of those bodies, is so great, that we may consider the lines of action of the forces as parallel. The number of the forces of gravity acting upon a body may be considered as equal to the number of particles composing the body. The CENTER OF GRAVITY of a body may be defined as the point through which the resultant of the parallel forces of gravity, acting upon the body, passes for every position of the body. If a body is supported at its center of gravity and turned about that point, it will remain in equilibrium in all positions. The resultant of the parallel forces of gravity acting upon a body is obviously equal to the WEIGHT OF THE BODY; and if a force, equal in magnitude to the resultant, is applied, acting in a line passing through the center of gravity of the body, and in a direction opposite to that of the resultant, the body will be in equilibrium.

Center of Gravity of a Straight Line. The word LINE here means a material line whose transverse section is very small, such as a very fine wire. The center of gravity of a straight line or rod of uniform size and material is at its middle point. This proposition is too evident to require demonstration.

The Center of Gravity of the Perimeter of a Triangle is at the center of the circle inscribed in the triangle formed by the lines joining the middle points of the sides of the given triangle. Thus, let *ABC* (Fig. 12) be the given triangle. To find the center of gravity of its perimeter, find the middle points, *D*, *E* and *F*, and connect them by straight lines. The center of the circle inscribed in the triangle formed by these lines will be the center of gravity sought.

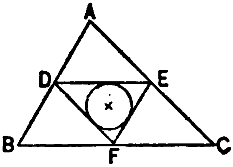


Fig. 12. Center of Gravity of Perimeter of Triangle

Center of Gravity of Symmetrical Lines. The center of gravity of a line which is symmetrical with reference to a point is at that point. Thus the center of gravity of the circumference of a circle or of an ellipse is at the geometrical center of the figures. The center of gravity of the perimeter of an equilateral triangle, or of a regular polygon, is at the center of the inscribed circle. The center of gravity of the perimeter of a square, rectangle, or parallelogram is at the intersection of the diagonals of those figures.

Center of Gravity of a Surface. A SURFACE here means a very thin plate or shell. If a surface can be divided by a line into two symmetrical halves, the center of gravity will be on that line; if it can thus be divided by two lines, the center of gravity will be at their intersection.

Center of Gravity of Regular Figures. The center of gravity of the surface of a circle or an ellipse is at the geometrical center of the figure; of an equilateral triangle or regular polygon, at the center of the inscribed circle; of a parallelogram, at the intersection of the diagonals; of the surface of a sphere, or of an ellipsoid of revolution, at the geometrical center of the body; and of the convex surface of a right cylinder, at the middle point of the axis of the cylinder.

Center of Gravity of Irregular Figures. Any figure bounded by straight lines may be divided into rectangles and triangles, and, the center of gravity of each part being found, the center of gravity of the whole figure may be determined by treating the centers of gravity of the separate parts as particles whose weights are proportional to the areas of the parts they represent.

Center of Gravity of Triangles. To find the center of gravity of a triangle, draw a line from each of two angles to the middle of the opposite side. The intersection of the two lines is the center of gravity.

Center of Gravity of Quadrilaterals. To find the center of gravity of any quadrilateral, draw the diagonals, and from that end of each diagonal which is farthest from the intersection, lay off, toward the intersection, the length of its shorter segment. The two points thus formed, together with the point of intersection, will form a triangle whose center of gravity is that of the quadrilateral. Thus, let Fig. 13 be a quadrilateral whose center of gravity is to be found. Draw the diagonals AD and BC, and from A lay off $AF = DE$, and from B lay off $BH = CE$. From E draw a line to the middle of FH, and from F a line to the middle of EH. The point of intersection of these two lines is the center of gravity of the quadrilateral. This is a method commonly used for finding the centers of gravity of the voussoirs of an arch.

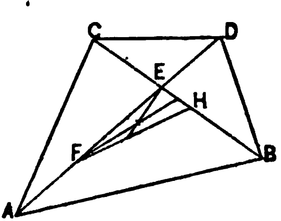


Fig. 13. Center of Gravity of Quadrilateral

Table of Centers of Gravity. Let a be a line drawn from the vertex of a figure to the middle point of the base, and D the distance from the vertex to the center of gravity of the figure. Then (Fig. 14):

In an isosceles triangle.......................... $D = \frac{2}{3} a$

In a segment of a circle, vertex at center of circle $D = \frac{\text{chord}^3}{12 \times \text{area}}$

In a sector of a circle, vertex at center of circle $D = R \times \frac{2 \times \text{chord}}{3 \times \text{arc}}$

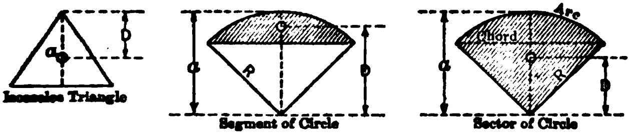
In a semicircle, vertex at center of circle...... $D = \frac{4R}{3\pi} = 0.4244 R$

In a quadrant of a circle.................... $D = \frac{3}{5} R$

In a semiellipse, vertex at center of circle..... $D = 0.4244 a$

In a parabola, vertex at intersection of axis with curve... .... $D = \frac{3}{5} a$

In a cone or pyramid........................ $D = \frac{3}{4} a$



Isosceles Triangle

Segment of Circle

Sector of Circle

Fig. 14. Center of Gravity of Triangle, Segment and Sector

In a frustum of a cone or pyramid, let h = the height of the complete cone or pyramid, h_1 = the height of the frustum, and let the vertex be at the apex of the complete cone or pyramid; then,

$$D = \frac{3\,(h^4 - h_1^4)}{4\,(h^3 - h_1^3)}$$

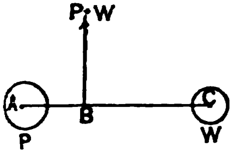


Fig. 15. Center of Gravity of Two Heavy Particles

Center of Gravity of Two Heavy Particles. Let P be the weight of a particle at A (Fig. 15), and W that of a particle at C. The center of gravity is at some point, B, on the line joining A and C. The point B must be so situated that if the two particles were held together by a stiff wire and supported at B by a force equal in magnitude to the sum of P and W they would be in equilibrium. The problem then is solved by the PRINCIPLE OF THE LEVER, and we have the proportion (see Three Parallel Forces. The Principle of the Lever),

$$P + W : P :: AC : BC$$

or

$$BC = \frac{P \times AC}{P + W}$$

If $W = P$, then $BC = AB$, or the center of gravity will be half-way between the two particles. This problem is of great importance and has many practical applications.

Center of Gravity of Several Heavy Particles. Let W_1, W_2, W_3, W_4 and W_5 (Fig. 16) be the weights of the particles. Join W_1 and W_2 by a straight line and find their center of gravity A, as in the preceding problem. Join A with W_3 and find the center of gravity B, which will be the center of gravity of the three weights W_1, W_2, W_3. Proceed in the same way with each weight. The last center of gravity found will be the center of gravity of all the particles. In both of these cases the lines joining the particles are supposed to be horizontal lines, or else the horizontal projections of the straight lines which join the points.

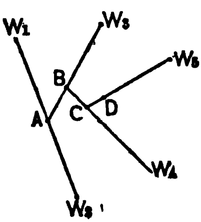


Fig. 16. Center of Gravity of Several Heavy Particles

Center of Gravity of Compound Sections Found by Moments. To determine the strength of a beam having an unsymmetrical cross-section, it is first necessary to determine the distance of the center of gravity of this section from the upper or lower surface of the beam. Various other computations, also, involve finding the center of gravity of an irregular figure, so that the problem is one of practical importance. If the figure of which the center of gravity is to be found can be divided into parts which are themselves regular figures, the readiest and simplest method of finding the distance of the center of gravity from one edge of the section is by means of MOMENTS. To explain this method assume a T-shaped section of uniform thickness, hinged on a wire XX, as in Fig. 17. The T section is made up of two rectangles, one forming the flange, the other the web. The center of gravity of each rectangle is at its own center of figure and may be readily found. If the T section is placed horizontally, as in the figure, the axis XX being fixed, it will immediately, by the force of gravity, revolve about the axis until it becomes vertical, and the sum of the moments of the forces causing the revolution is $A' \times d' + A'' \times d''$, A' representing the weight of the web and A'' the weight of the flange. To hold the T section in a horizontal position, there must be a moment of some force acting in an opposite, or upward, vertical direction and just equal to the sum of the two moments causing revolution downwards. If the force A, of this moment, tending to cause revolution upward, is equal to the weight of the entire T section, it must be applied at the center of gravity of the entire figure to make its moment just equal to the sum of the moments of the two downward forces.

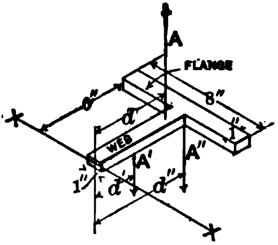


Fig. 17. Center of Gravity of Compound Sections by Moments

But the moment of A is $A \times d$, therefore d is the distance from the end of the web, or from the axis XX, to the center of gravity of the entire figure. Therefore, since $A \times d = A' \times d' + A'' \times d''$,

$$d = \frac{A' \times d' + A'' \times d''}{A} \qquad (1)$$

As the weight of any homogeneous material of uniform thickness is proportional to the area, A, A' and A'' may be used to represent areas as well as weights. Expressing formula (1) as a rule, we have:

Center of Gravity of Compound Figures. The distance of the center of gravity of a compound figure from any line of reference is equal to the sum of the products, obtained by multiplying the area of each of the simple parts into which the compound figure is divided by the distances of its center of gravity from the line of reference, divided by the area of the entire figure. This rule applies to any compound figure.

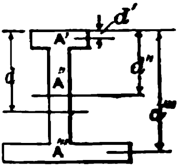


Fig. 18. Center of Gravity of Tees, Angles, Channels, etc.

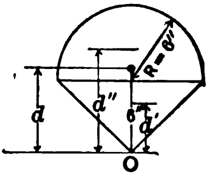


Fig. 19. Center of Gravity of Irregular I Section

Example I. Assume that the T section shown in Fig. 17 has the dimensions indicated. Then A' equals 6, A'' equals 8, and A equals 14 sq in; and d' equals 3 and d'' equals 6½ in. The sum of the products of A' by d' and A'' by d'' is 18 + 52 or 70 sq in × in, and this divided by 14 sq in, the area of the entire figure, gives 5 in for the distance d. The distance d of the center of gravity from the top of the webs, in each of the figures shown in Fig. 20, is found by the following formula:

$$d = \frac{\text{area of the web or webs} \times d'/2 + \text{area of flange} \times d''}{\text{area of the web or webs} + \text{area of flange}} \qquad (2)$$

For a section like that shown in Fig. 18, in which A', A'' and A''' represent the areas of the respective rectangles, the distance d of the center of gravity from the top may be found by the formula

$$d = \frac{A' \times d' + A'' \times d'' + A''' \times d'''}{A' + A'' + A'''} \qquad (3)$$

Example II. To show the application of the rule for finding the center of gravity of compound figures, take the one shown in Fig. 19. The distance d of the center of gravity of the entire figure from the vertex O is found as follows: The area of the triangle is 36 sq in and of the semicircle 56.5 sq in. From the Table of Centers of Gravity (page 293) the distance of the center of gravity of an isosceles triangle from the vertex is two-thirds its height, which gives 4 in as

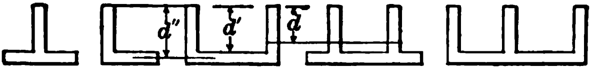


Fig. 20. Center of Gravity of Irregular Figures

the value for d'. The center of gravity for a semicircle is 0.4244 R from base, so that d'' equals 8.54 in. Then,

$$d = \frac{36 \times 4 + 56.5 \times 8.54}{36 + 56.5} = 6.77 \text{ in}$$

This method of finding the center of gravity is similar to that explaine Chapter IX for finding the supporting forces or reactions. In the latter c however, the problem is to find the balancing forces instead of the lever-arm

CHAPTER VII

STABILITY OF PIERS AND BUTTRESSES

By

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Mechanical Principles. A pier or buttress may be considered STABLE when the forces acting upon it do not cause it to ROTATE or TIP OVER nor cause any course of masonry to SLIDE on its bed; some parts, however, of the masonry may be CRUSHED. When a pier sustains a vertical load only, it might be considered STABLE, but it might not have sufficient STRENGTH. It is only when the pier receives a THRUST, as from a rafter or an arch, that its stability must be considered. In order that there may be no rotation, the MOMENT OF THE THRUST (Chapter VI) against the pier about any point in its outside edge must not exceed the MOMENT OF THE WEIGHT of the pier about the same point.

To illustrate let us consider the pier shown in Fig. 1. Let us suppose that this pier receives the foot of a rafter which exerts a THRUST *T* in the direction *AB*. The tendency of this thrust is to cause the pier to rotate about the outer edge b_1, and the MOMENT OF THE THRUST about this point, which is the measure of this tendency to rotate, is $T \times a'b_1$, $a'b_1$ being the lever-arm of the moment. For UNSTABLE EQUILIBRIUM, only, the MOMENT OF THE WEIGHT of the pier about the same edge must just equal $T \times a'b_1$. The resultant force representing the weight of the pier acts vertically through its center of gravity which in this case is equidistant from its sides; and its lever-arm is b_1c, or one-half its thickness.

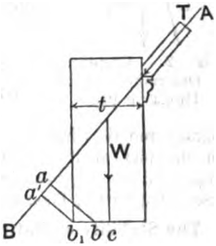

Fig. 1. Pier with Thrust

Hence, for equilibrium of moments, we must have the equation

$$T \times a'b_1 = W \times b_1c$$

But in this condition the least additional thrust, or the crushing of the outer edge, will cause the pier to rotate; hence, for safety, we must use some FACTOR OF SAFETY. This is sometimes done by making the moment of the weight equal to that of the thrust when referred to a point in the bottom of the pier, a certain distance in from the outer edge. This distance for piers or buttresses should not be less than one-fourth the thickness of the pier.

Representing this point in the figure by *b*, we have the necessary equation for the safe stability of the pier

$$T \times ab = W \times t/4$$

t being the width of the pier.

We cannot from this equation determine the dimensions of a pier to resist a given thrust, because we have the distance *ab*, *t* and *W*, all unknown quantities. Hence we must first assume a tentative size for the pier, find the length of the line *ab*, and see if the MOMENT OF THE WEIGHT of the pier is equal to the MOMENT OF THE THRUST. If it is not we must assume another size for the pier. In point of fact the steps of the problem usually present themselves in the inverse order, the pier or buttress being given and the determination of its stability being required. The size of the pier or buttress is usually first determined rather from the architectural exigencies of the design than from the engineering requirements for the stability of the structure. If upon investigation these are not in accord, it is the duty of the designers to use their ingenuity in seeing that both conditions are fufillled.

The Stability of Piers and Buttresses. When it is desired to determine if a given pier or buttress is capable of resisting a given thrust, the problem can be solved GRAPHICALLY in the following manner. Let *ABCD* (Fig. 2) represent a pier which sustains a given thrust *T* at *B*. To determine whether the pier will safely sustain this thrust, we proceed as follows:

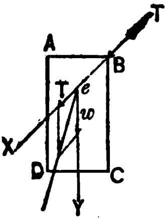

Fig. 2. Graphical Determination of Thrust on Pier

Draw the indefinite line *BX* in the direction of the thrust. Through the center of gravity of the pier, which in this case is midway between *AD* and *BC*, draw a vertical line intersecting the line of the thrust at *e*. As a force may be considered to act anywhere along its line of action, we may consider that the thrust and the weight act at the point *e*. The resultant of these two forces is obtained by laying off the thrust *T* from *e* on *eX*, and the weight of the pier *W*, from *e* on *eY*, both to the same scale of so many pounds to the inch, completing the parallelogram and drawing the diagonal. If this diagonal, prolonged, cuts the base of the pier at less than one-third the width of the base from the outer edge, the pier is generally considered unstable and its dimensions are changed. (See Chapter IV, Theorem of the Middle Third.)

The Stability of Buttress with Offsets. THE STABILITY OF A PIER may be increased by adding to its weight by placing some heavy material on top, for example, or by increasing its width at the base by means of OFFSETS, as in Fig. 3. Figs. 3 and 4 show the method of determining the stability of a buttress with offsets. The first step is to find the vertical line passing through the center of gravity of the whole pier. This is best done by dividing the buttress into quadrilaterals, as *ABCD*, *DEFG* and *GHIK* (Fig. 3), finding the center of gravity of each quadrilateral by either the method of diagonals or triangles as explained in Chapter VI, and then measuring the perpendicular distances X_1, X_2, X_3 from the different centers of gravity to the line *KI*. (See, also, Chapter VIII, page 313).

Multiply the area of each quadrilateral by the distance of its center of gravity from the line *KI* and add together the areas and the products. Divide the sum of the products by the sum of the areas and the result will be the distance of the center of gravity of the whole buttress from *KI*. This distance we denote by X_0. This calculation is a practical application of the theorem in mechanics that the MOMENT OF THE RESULTANT of any number of forces about a given point is equal to the SUM OF MOMENTS of the individual forces about that point.

Example 1. Let the buttress shown in Fig. 3 have the dimensions shown. Then the areas of the quadrilaterals and the distances from their centers of gravity to *KI* are as follows:

First area	=	35 sq ft	$X_1 = 0'.95$	First area × $X_1 = 33.25$
Second area	=	23 sq ft	$X_2 = 2'.95$	Second area × $X_2 = 67.85$
Third area	=	11 sq ft	$X_3 = 4'.95$	Third area × $X_3 = 54.45$
		Total area, 69 sq ft		Total moments, 155.55

The sum of the moments of the areas is 155.55, and dividing this by the total area we have 2.25 as the distance X_0. Measuring this to the scale of the drawing from *KI*, we have a point through which the vertical line passing through the center of gravity must pass.

This line, passing through the center of gravity of the buttress, can be found graphically, also, by the method of the EQUILIBRIUM POLYGON (Fig. 3). (See, also, Chapter VIII, Fig. 12, etc.) In order to do this, lay off at any convenient scale, beginning at some convenient point *M*, *Mw* 1, *w* 1 *w* 2, and *w* 2 *w* 3, the areas of the various quadrilaterals composing the buttress. Through the center of gravity of each quadrilateral draw a vertical (green) line. Draw the lines *MO* and *w* 3 *O*, intersecting at some conveniently chosen POLE-POINT, *O*. Draw *Ow* 1 and *Ow* 2. Through *a*, where *MO* intersects the vertical (green) line drawn through the center of gravity of the first quadrilateral, draw *ab* parallel to *Ow* 1, and through *b*, where *ab* intersects the (green) line through the center of gravity of the second quadrilateral, draw *bc* parallel to *Ow* 2. Finally draw *cL* parallel to *Ow* 3. Where this line intersects *MO* at *L* will be the point through which the (heavy red) line, passing through the center of gravity of the buttress taken as a whole, should be drawn. The distance

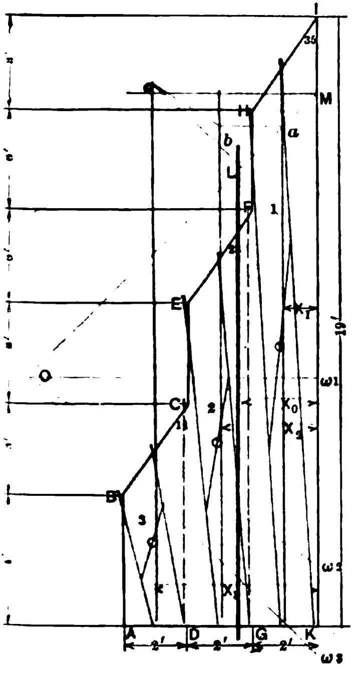

Fig. 3. Buttress with Offsets

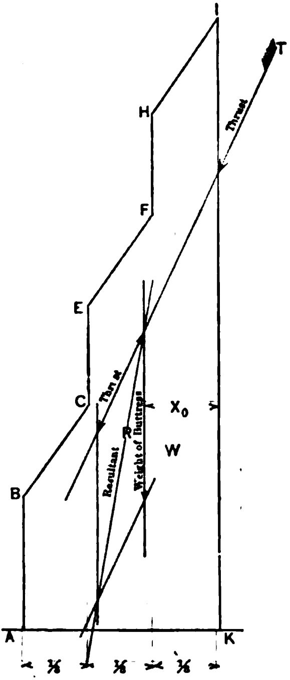

Fig. 4. Resultant Thrust on Buttress with Offsets

X_0, measured from *IK*, should then be 2.25 ft or very nearly this, allowing for slight errors of drawing, and the same as that found by MOMENTS. Fig. 5 shows the same method of determining the position of the center of gravity of a buttress similar to the one illustrated in Fig. 9.

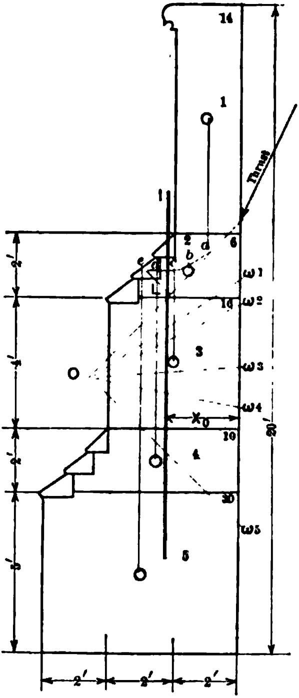

Fig. 5. Center of Gravity of Wall and Buttress

After this line is found, the method of determining the stability of the pier is the same as that given for the pier in Fig. 2 and Fig. 4. If the buttress is more than one foot thick, that is, at right-angles to the plane of the paper, its cubic contents must be determined in order to find its weight. It is easier, however, to divide the total thrust by the thickness of the buttress. This gives the thrust per foot of thickness of the buttress.

The Line of Pressure or Line of Resistance.[*] The LINE OF RESISTANCE or the LINE OF PRESSURE of a pier or buttress is a line drawn through the CENTER OF PRESSURE of each joint. The CENTER OF PRESSURE of any joint is the point in which the resultant of the forces acting on that portion of the pier above the joint cuts it. The line of pressure, or of resistance, when drawn in a pier, shows how near the greatest stress on any joint comes to the edges of that joint. It can be drawn by the following method.

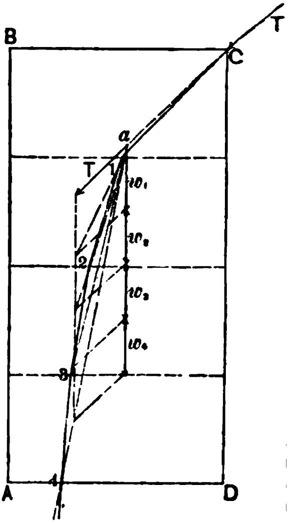

Fig. 6. Line of Pressure in Pier

Let *ABCD* (Fig. 6) be a pier whose LINE OF PRESSURE we wish to draw. Let *T* be the thrust against the pier. Firs divide the height of the pier into several parts, each 2 or 3 feet high, as show by the horizontal dotted lines. It is more convenient to make the courses parts equal in height. Prolong the LINE OF THE THRUST, and draw a vertical line through the center of gravity of the pier, intersecting the line of thrust at the point *a*. From *a* lay off to a scale the thrust *T*, and the weights of the different parts of the pier, commencing with the weight of the upper portion. Thus, w_1 represents the weight of the portion above the first joint; w_2 represents the weight of the second part; and so on. The sum of the *w*'s will represent the weight of the whole pier.

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[*] This line is called, interchangeably, the line of pressure, the line of resistance, t resistance-line, etc.

Draw a parallelogram, with *T* and w_1 for its two sides. Draw the diagonal and produce it beyond the parallelogram, if necessary. Its point of intersection with the first joint will be a point in the line of pressure. Draw a second parallelogram, with *T* and $w_1 + w_2$ for its two sides. Draw the diagonal intersecting the second joint at the point 2. Continue in this way with the rest of the partial weights, the last diagonal intersecting the base *AD*, in the point 4. Join the points 1, 2, 3 and 4. The resulting broken line *C*1234 is the LINE OF PRESSURE or LINE OF RESISTANCE.

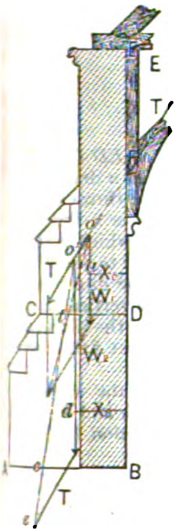

Fig. 7. Stability of Wall and Buttress

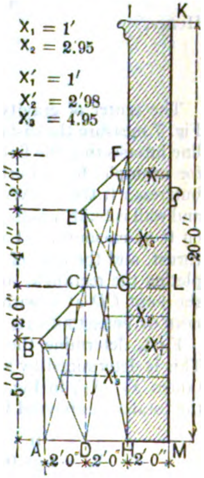

Fig. 8. Stability of Wall and Buttress

We have taken the simplest case as an example; but the same principles are true for any case. If the line of pressure of the pier at any point falls at a distance from the outside edge of the joint less than ONE-THIRD THE WIDTH OF THE JOINT, the pier is generally considered unsafe.

The Stability of a Wall and Buttress. By Moments and Graphical Method. The following example illustrates the application of these principles.

Example 2. Let Fig. 7 represent the section of a side wall of a church, with a buttress against it. Opposite the buttress, on the side of the wall, is a hammer-beam truss, which we will suppose exerts an outward thrust on the wall of the church, amounting to about 9 600 lb. We will further consider that the resultant of the thrust acts at *P*, and at an angle of 50° with the horizontal. The dimensions of the wall and buttress are given in Fig. 8. The buttress is 2 ft thick, at right-angles with the plane of the paper. Has the buttress the proper SIZE and FORM to enable the wall to resist the thrust of the truss?

The first point to decide is whether or not the LINE OF PRESSURE cuts the joint *CD* at a safe distance in from *C*. To ascertain this we must determine the position of the center of gravity of the wall and buttress above the joint *CD* (Fig. 7). One way to determine this is by the METHOD OF MOMENTS, the MOMENTS OF THE AREAS being taken about the line *KM* as an axis, or line of reference (Fig. 8), as already explained. The distance X_1 is, of course, half the thickness of the wall or 1 ft. We next find the center of gravity of the part

CEFG (Fig. 8) by the method of diagonals; and scaling the distance X_2, we find it to be 2.95 ft.

The area $CEFG = A_2 = 10$ sq ft; and the area $GIKL = A_1 = 26$ sq ft. Let A = the total area above *CL*.

Then we have

$$\begin{array}{lll} X_1 = 1 \text{ ft} & A_1 = 26 \text{ sq ft} & A_1 \times X_1 = 26 \quad \text{sq ft} \times \text{ft} \\ X_2 = 2.95 \text{ ft} & A_2 = 10 \text{ sq ft} & A_2 \times X_2 = 29.5 \text{ sq ft} \times \text{ft} \\ & \overline{} & \overline{} \\ & A = 36 \text{ sq ft} & 36)55.5 \text{ sq ft} \times \text{ft} \\ & & \overline{} \\ & & X_0 = 1.5 \text{ ft} \end{array}$$

Expressed in EQUATIONS OF MOMENTS OF AREAS, this may be written as follows, A representing the total area above the line *CL* (Fig. 8):

$$A \times X_0 = (A_1 \times X_1) + (A_2 \times X_2)$$

Hence,

$$X_0 = \frac{(A_1 \times X_1) + (A_2 \times X_2)}{A}$$

The center of gravity is at a distance 1.5 ft from the line *ED* (Fig. 7). In Fig. 7 measure the distance $X_0 = 1.5$ ft, and through the point *a* draw a vertical line intersecting the line of the thrust prolonged at *O*. If the thrust is 9 600 lb, for example, for a buttress 2 ft thick, it will be half that, or 4 800 lb, for a buttress 1 ft thick. We will call the weight of the masonry of which the buttress and wall is built, 150 lb per cu ft. Then the thrust is equivalent to $4800/150 = 32$ cu ft of masonry. Laying this off to a scale from *O*, in the direction of the thrust, and the area of the masonry, 36 sq ft, from *O* on the vertical line, completing the rectangle, and drawing the diagonal, we find that the diagonal cuts the joint *CD* at *t*, within the limits of safety. We must next find where the LINE OF PRESSURE cuts the base *AB*.

First, determine the position of the center of gravity of the whole figure. This is determined by finding, as explained for the distances X_1 and X_2, the distances X_2', X_3', in Fig. 8, and making the following computation, letting A' = the total area above *AM*.

$$\begin{array}{lll} X_1' = 1 \text{ ft} & A_1' = 40 \text{ sq ft} & A_1 \times X_1 = 40 \quad \text{sq ft} \times \text{ft} \\ X_2' = 2.98 \text{ ft} & A_2' = 24 \text{ sq ft} & A_2 \times X_2 = 71.52 \text{ sq ft} \times \text{ft} \\ X_3' = 4.95 \text{ ft} & A_3' = 12 \text{ sq ft} & A_3 \times X_3 = 59.40 \text{ sq ft} \times \text{ft} \\ & \overline{} & \overline{} \\ & A' = 76 \text{ sq ft} & 76)170.92 \text{ sq ft} \times \text{ft} \\ & & \overline{} \\ & & X_0' = 2.25 \text{ ft} \end{array}$$

This, also, may be expressed in EQUATIONS OF MOMENTS OF AREAS, as explained for the part above the line *CL*.

Then from the line *EB* (Fig. 7) lay off the distance $X_0' = 2.25$ ft, and draw through *d* a vertical line intersecting the line of the thrust at *O′*. On this vertical line, measure down from *O′* the whole area 75, to scale, as explained above, and from the lower extremity of this line representing the area, lay off. at the proper angle, the thrust $T = 32$. Draw the line *O′e*, intersecting the base at *c*. This is the point where the LINE OF PRESSURE cuts the base; and, as it is at a safe distance in from *A*, the buttress has sufficient stability. If there were more offsets, we should proceed in the same way, finding where the LINE OF PRESSURE cuts the joint at the top of each offset. The reason for doing this is because the LINE OF PRESSURE might cut the base at a safe distance from the outer edge, while higher up it might come outside of the buttress or too near the outside face, thus making the buttress unstable. The method given in these examples is applicable to piers of any shape or material. If the LINE OF PRESSURE makes an angle of less than 30° with any horizontal joint, the stones above the joint may SLIDE at this joint, or at least have a strong tendency to do so. SLIDING can be prevented either by doweling, or by inclining the joints. Such conditions, however, are rare in architectural construction.

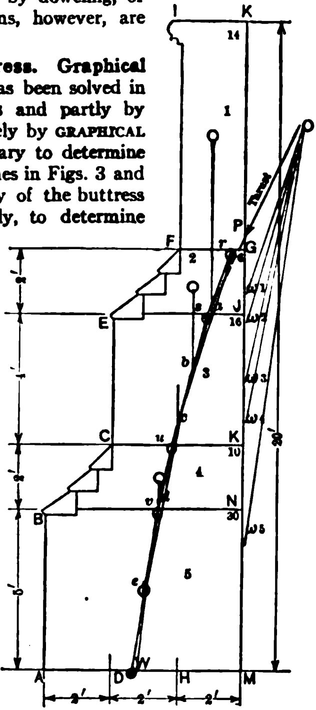

Fig. 9. Line of Pressure in Wall and Buttress

The Stability of a Wall and Buttress. Graphical Method. This same example, which has been solved in the foregoing case partly by MOMENTS and partly by GRAPHICAL METHODS, can be solved entirely by GRAPHICAL METHODS. In this case it is not necessary to determine the position of the line (the heavy red lines in Figs. 3 and 5) passing through the center of gravity of the buttress taken as a whole. It is necessary, only, to determine the (red) lines passing through the centers of gravity of the various trapezoids and rectangles into which it has been subdivided. To determine the position of the LINE OF PRESSURE and the various CENTERS OF PRESSURE on the different joints, the method shown in Fig. 6 may be used. The construction shown in that figure, in which the complete parallelograms of the forces acting at each joint are drawn, may be simplified. One-half the parallelogram, only, or the TRIANGLE OF THE FORCES acting at each joint, may be drawn and the whole construction placed at one side of the figure and afterwards transferred to the figure itself by means of parallel lines.

Draw the joint-planes *FG*, *EJ*, *CK* and *BN* and calculate the areas of the various parts of the wall and buttress, such as *IKGF*, *FGJE*, *EJKC*, *CKNB* and *BNMA*, Fig. 9. These are respectively 14 sq ft, 6 sq ft, 16 sq ft, 10 sq ft and 30 sq ft. Lay off these areas to a scale of so many square units to a linear unit, at *Pw* 1, *w* 1 *w* 2, *w* 2 *w* 3, *w* 3 *w* 4 and *w* 4 *w* 5, along the line *KM*, beginning at the point of application of the THRUST. Lay off, at the same scale, the thrust *OP* for one foot of thickness of the wall, and let this thrust be 4 800 lb. Draw *Ow* 1, *Ow* 2, *Ow* 3, etc. Then *Ow* 1 will be the resultant of the thrust and the weight of the buttress above the joint *FG*, *Ow* 2 will be the resultant of this last resultant and the weight of that part of the buttress between the joints *FG* and *EJ*, and so on until *Ow* 5 is reached, which is the resultant of the total weight of the buttress and the thrust as well as the resultant of the rectangle *BNMA* and the previous resultant. Prolong the thrust *OP*, until it cuts the first (red) line through the center of gravity of the first rectangle *IKGF*, at *a*. Through this point draw a (green) line parallel to *Ow* 1 and prolong it backward until it intersects the joint *FG* at the point within the small (red) circle. This determines the CENTER OF PRESSURE on this joint. Next, draw *ab* (green) parallel to *Ow* 2 and prolong it backward until it intersects the joint *EJ*, at the CENTER OF PRESSURE on that joint. Repeat this operation to obtain the CENTERS OF PRESSURE on each successive joint, drawing *bc*, *cd* and *de* parallel respectively to *Ow* 3, *Ow* 4 and *Ow* 5.

It must be remembered, however, that *cd* does not have to be prolonged backward, as it cuts the joint *CK* below and to the left of the line passing through the center of gravity of *EJKC*. Finally, join the various CENTERS OF PRESSURE by the (red) broken line, which is the LINE OF PRESSURE in the buttress. As this line lies within the MIDDLE THIRD of the construction, and the resultants of the pressures on the various joint-planes do not make with the normals to the joint-planes angles greater than the ANGLE OF FRICTION, the conditions for stability may be considered to be satisfied.

CHAPTER VIII

THE STABILITY OF MASONRY ARCHES

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1. Arches

The Lintel and the Arch. When an opening is made in a masonry wall it is necessary to provide some means of spanning such opening to support the superimposed masonry. Two methods have been employed by constructors for this purpose. The first involves the use of the BEAM, GIRDER, CAP, or LINTEL, and the second the throwing of an ARCH from one side of the opening to the other. LINTELS are made of various materials, as wood, stone, reinforced concrete, cast iron and steel, and have cross-sections of different shapes. They are placed across the tops of the openings and transfer laterally the loads above, causing VERTICAL REACTIONS, only, in the side supports. An ARCH, on the contrary, is a particular arrangement of blocks of stone or other material, put together, generally along a curved line, in such a way that they resist the load by a balancing of certain THRUSTS and COUNTERTHRUSTS. An arch exerts on its supports an OUTWARD THRUST as well as a VERTICAL PRESSURE; and it is this outward thrust which requires that the arch should be used with caution when the abutments are not amply large and strong. The mechanical principles involved in the spanning of an opening by a lintel are much simpler than those of the arch and, historically, the lintel very considerably antedates the arch.

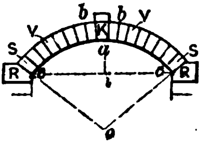

Fig. 1. Diagram of Segmental Arch

Definitions. Before taking up the principles of the arch, we will define the principal terms relating to it. The distance ec (Fig. 1) is called the SPAN of the arch; ai, the rise; b, the CROWN; the lower boundary line eac, the SOFFIT or INTRADOS; the outer boundary line, the BACK or EXTRADOS. The terms SOFFIT and BACK are also applied to the entire lower and upper curved sufaces of the whole arch. The sides of the arch which are seen are called the FACES. The blocks of which the arch itself is composed are called VOUSSOIRS; the center one, K, is called the KEYSTONE; and the lowest ones, SS, the SPRINGERS. In SEGMENTAL arches, or those of which the intrados is not a complete semicircle, the springers generally rest upon two stones, as RR, which have their upper surfaces cut to receive them; these stones are called SKEWBACKS. The line connecting the lower edges of the springers is called the SPRINGING-LINE; the sides of the arch are called the HAUNCHES; and the loads in the triangular spaces, between the haunches and a horizontal line drawn from the crown, are called the SPANDRELS. The blocks of masonry, or other material, which support two successive arches, are called PIERS; and the extreme blocks, which, in the case of stone bridges, generally support, on one side, embankments of earth, are called ABUTMENTS. A pier strong enough to resist the thrust of one of two successive arches, in case the other one falls down, is sometimes called an ABUTMENT-PIER. Besides their own weight, arches usually support permanent loads or SURCHARGES of masonry or of earth.

Forms of Arches. In using arches in architectural constructions, the FORMS of the arches are generally governed by the style of the building, or by a limited amount of space, rather than by engineering considerations. The problem, therefore, that usually presents itself to the architect is not to design the form and dimensions of an arch that will most economically and, from an engineering point of view, efficiently bear its load, but rather to determine if an arch of a certain form and of certain dimensions will be stable and safe under its load. The SEMICIRCULAR and SEGMENTAL forms of arches are the best as regards stability, and are the simplest to construct. ELLIPTICAL and THREE-CENTERED arches are not as strong as circular arches, and should only be used where they can be given all the strength desirable.

The Strength of an Arch depends very much upon the care with which it is built and upon the quality of the materials. In stone arches, special care should be taken to cut and lay the beds of stones accurately, and to make the bed-joints thin and close, in order that the arches may be stressed as little as possible in settling. To insure this, arches are sometimes built DRY, grout or liquid mortar being afterwards run into the joints; but the advantage of this method is doubtful.

Brick Arches.* (See Figs. 2, 3, 4 and 5.) These may be built either of WEDGE-SHAPED bricks, molded or rubbed so as to fit to the radius of the soffit, or of bricks of COMMON SHAPE. The former method is undoubtedly the best, as it enables the bricks to be thoroughly bonded, as in a wall; but, as it involves considerable expense to make the bricks of the proper shape, it is very seldom employed. When bricks of the ordinary shape are used, they are accommodated to the curved figure of the arch by making the bed-joints thinner towards the intrados than they are at the extrados; or, if the curvature is sharp, by driving thin pieces of slate into the outer edges of those joints; and different methods are followed for BONDING them.

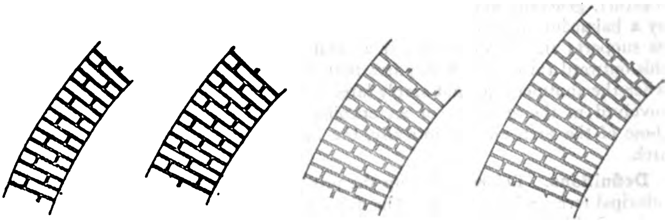

Fig. 2 Fig. 3 Fig. 4 Fig. 5

Brick Arches

The usual method is to build the arch in concentric rings, each one-half brick thick; that is, to lay all the bricks as STRETCHERS and depend upon the tenacity of the mortar for the connection of the several rings. Brick masonry constructed in this way is deficient in strength, unless the bricks are laid in cement mortar which is at least as tenacious as themselves. Another way is to introduce courses of HEADERS at intervals, and to connect pairs of half-brick rings together. This may be done either by thickening with pieces of slate the joints of the outer ring of a pair of half-brick rings, so that there will be the same number of courses of stretchers in each ring between two courses of headers; or by placing the courses of headers at such distances apart, that between each pair of them there will be one course of stretchers more in the outer than in the inner ring. The former method is best suited to arches of long radius; the latter, to those of short radius. HOOP-IRON laid around the arch, between half-brick rings, as well as longitudinally and radially, is very useful for strengthening brick arches. The bands of hoop-iron which traverse the arch radially may also be bent, and prolonged into the bed-joints of the backing and spandrels. By the aid of HOOP-IRON BOND, Sir Marc-Isambard Brunel built a half-arch of bricks, laid in strong cement mortar, which stood, projecting from its abutment like a bracket to the distance of 60 ft, until it was destroyed by the undermining of its foundations.

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* For illustrations of the different methods of building brick arches, see Chapter VII, Building Construction and Superintendence, Part I, Masons' Work, F. E. Kidder.

The only requirements in the New York City Building Laws for brick and stone arches is that "openings for doors and windows in all buildings shall have good and sufficient arches of stone, brick, or terra-cotta, well built and keyed and with good and sufficient abutments."

Rule for the Radius of Brick Arches. A good RULE for the radius of segmental brick arches over windows, doors and other small openings is to make the RADIUS EQUAL TO THE WIDTH OF THE OPENING. This gives a good rise to the arch and a pleasing proportion. In common brickwork, when no particular architectural effect is desired, such as in the rowlock arches thrown over the openings in cellar walls, a RULE in very common use is to make the RISE of the arch at the crown AN INCH IN HEIGHT FOR EVERY FOOT OF SPAN.

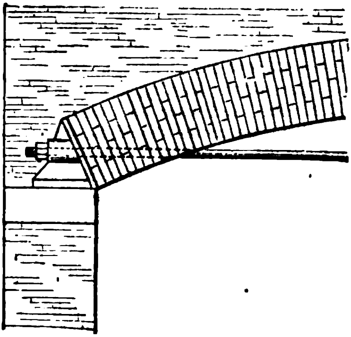

Fig. 6. Segmental Brick Arch, Cast-iron Skewback and Wrought-iron Tie-rod

Segmental Arches with Tie-Rods. It is often desirable to span openings in a wall by means of arches when there are not a sufficient number of abutments to withstand the thrusts. In cases of this kind each arch can be sprung from two cast-iron SKEWBACKS, held in place by IRON RODS, as is shown in Fig. 6. When this is done, it is necessary to proportion the size of the rods to the THRUST of the arch. The HORIZONTAL THRUST of the arch may be very closely determined by the following formula:

$$\text{Horizontal thrust} = \frac{\text{load on arch} \times \text{span}}{8 \times \text{rise of arch in feet}}$$

If the load is concentrated at the center of the arch, the thrust will be twice that given by this formula.

The TENSIONAL STRESS in the rod or rods will equal the HORIZONTAL THRUST of the arch and if there are two rods, the stress in each will be one-half the thrust. If there are three rods, then each must resist one-third the thrust. Knowing the stresses in the rods, the size of each may be determined from Table II, Chapter XI.

Example 1. Let us assume that a brick arch, like the one shown in Fig. 6, has a span of 15 ft, a rise at the center of 1 ft 6 in, and that it supports a 12-in brick wall. The weight of all the brick masonry above the arch does not come upon it. Usually only an EQUILATERAL TRIANGLE of brickwork is considered, the base of the triangle being the span. Assume, therefore, an equilateral triangle the sides of which are each 15 ft long. The altitude of this triangle is about 12.6 ft and its area will equal 15 ft × 12.6 ft × ½ = 94½ sq ft. If the wall is 12 in thick there will be 97½ cu ft of brickwork within this triangle of the wall; and since ordinary brickwork weighs about 115 lb per cu ft, its weight will be about 10 867 lb. Substituting these values in the formula,

$$\text{The horizontal thrust} = \frac{10\,867 \times 15}{8 \times 1.5} = 13\,584 \text{ lb}$$

Looking in Table II, page 388, it appears that one 1½-in or two 1⅛-in plain, round, wrought-iron rods, or one 1⅛-in or two ¾-in round, upset, steel rods should be used.

Centers for Arches. A CENTER is a temporary structure, generally of timber, on which the voussoirs of an arch are supported while the arch is being built. It consists of parallel frames or ribs, placed at convenient distances apart, curved on the outside to a line parallel to that of the soffit of the arch, and supporting series of transverse planks, upon which the arch-stones rest. The center commonly used is one which can be lowered, or STRUCK all in one piece, by driving out wedges from below it, so as to remove at once the support from every point of the arch. The center of an arch should not be struck until the solid part of the backing has been built and the mortar has had time to set and harden; and when an arch forms one of a series of arches with piers between them, no center should be struck so as to leave a pier with an arch abutting against one side of it only, unless the pier has sufficient stability to act as an abutment. When possible, the STRIKING of the center of large brick arches should be delayed for two or three months after the arch is built, and during the period that they are in place they should be EASED from time to time. This is done by EASING OUT the wedges under the centers a little at a time so as to let them down gradually and thus adjust any slight settling or shrinkage of the masonry as it occurs.

Mechanical Principles of the Arch. In designing an arch, the first question to be settled is the FORM of the arch; and in regard to this, as already noted, there is generally little choice. When the abutments are of ample size, the SEGMENTAL ARCH is the strongest; but when it is necessary to make the abutments of the arch as small as possible, the SEMICIRCULAR or the POINTED ARCH should be used.

Depth of Keystone. Having decided upon the form of the arch, the DEPTH OF THE ARCH-RING must next be decided. This is generally determined by computing the required DEPTH OF THE KEYSTONE and making the depth of the whole ring the same or a little larger. In considering the strength of an arch, the depth of the keystone is considered to be only the distance from the extrados to the intrados of the arch; and if the keystone projects above the arch-ring, as in Fig. 1, the projection is considered a part of the load on the arch. There are several rules for determining the depth of the keystone, but all are empirical; and they differ so greatly that it is difficult to recommend any particular one.

Rankine's Formula for Depth of Keystone. Professor Rankine's rule is often quoted, and gives results which are probably true enough for most ns. It applies to both CIRCULAR and ELLIPTICAL ARCHES and is as follows. at a mean proportional between the inside radius at the crown, and 0.12 of ot for a single arch, and 0.17 of a foot for an arch forming one of a series:

epth in feet of keystone for single arch $= \sqrt{(0.12 \times \text{radius at crown})}$

epth in feet of keystone for arch of a series $= \sqrt{(0.17 \times \text{radius at crown})}$

he dimensions given by this formula seem to agree very well with those ally used in practice in arches of a certain kind. The formula, however, es the same depth of keystone for spans of any length, provided the radius he same; and in this particular it would seem that the rule is not satisfactory.

rautwine's Formula for Depth of Keystone. Trautwine, from calcuons made for a large number of arches, deduced a formula for the depth of stone, which seems to agree with theory more closely than Rankine's formula. le is, for CUT STONE,

$$\text{Depth of key in feet} = \left(\frac{\sqrt{\text{radius} + \text{half span}}}{4}\right) + 0.2 \text{ ft}$$

r SECOND-CLASS work this depth may be increased about one-eighth part, or BRICKWORK or FAIR RUBBLE, about one-third.

ables for Depths of Keystones. Table I gives a few examples of the ES OF THE KEYSTONES of some bridges, together with the depths which ld be required by Trautwine's or Rankine's formula. From this table it ms that the results of both formulas agree very well with dimensions used ual practice.

Table I. Depths of Keystones of Some Arches of Circular Arc

me or location of structure	Span	Rise	Radius	Actual depth of key	Calculated depth of key		Engineer
					Trautwine's Rule	Rankine's Rule	
	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	
John, Washing- n aqueduct........	220.0	57.25	134.25	4.16	4.11	4.00	Meigs
venor bridge ster, England....	200.0	42.00	140.00	4.00	4.07	4.10	Hartley
ra Riparia, Turin, taly	148.0	18.00	160.10	4.92	4.03	4.38	Mosca
neland, England.	118.0	38.00	64.80	3.50	3.00	2.79	Telford
n bridge, Scotland, a series...........	90.0	30.00	48.90	3.00	2.62	2.88	Telford
bridge, Philaphia & Reading ilroad..........	78.0	25.00	43.00	3.00	2.46	2.27	Steele
nut St. bridge, iladelphia, brick cement...........	60.0	18:00	34.00	2.50	2.20	2.00*	Kneass
delphia & Reading Railroad.........	44.0	8.00	34.30	2.50	2.08	2.02	Steele
delphia & Reading Railroad.........	31.2	5.00	26.80	1 66	1.83	1.79	Steele

* For first-class cut-stone work.

Table II* gives the DEPTHS OF KEYSTONES for arches of first-class cut stone, according to Trautwine's Formula. For second-class cut stone, add about one-eighth part and for fair rubble or for brickwork about one-third part, as stated with formula.

Table II. Depths of Keystones for Arches of First-Class Cut-Stone Masonry

Span	Rise, in parts of the span						
	½	⅓	¼	⅕	⅙	⅛	1/10
ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft	ft
2	0.55	0.56	0.58	0.60	0.61	0.64	0.68
4	0.70	0.72	0.74	0.76	0.79	0.83	0.88
6	0.81	0.83	0.86	0.89	0.92	0.97	1.03
8	0.91	0.93	0.96	1.00	1.03	1.09	1.16
10	0.99	1.01	1.04	1.07	1.11	1.18	1.26
15	1.17	1.19	1.22	1.26	1.30	1.40	1.50
20	1.32	1.35	1.38	1.43	1.48	1.59	1.70
25	1.45	1.48	1.53	1.58	1.64	1.76	1.88
30	1.57	1.60	1.65	1.71	1.78	1.91	2.04
35	1.68	1.70	1.76	1.83	1.90	2.04	2.19
40	1.78	1.81	1.88	1.95	2.03	2.18	2.33
50	1.97	2.00	2.08	2.16	2.25	2.41	2.58
60	2.14	2.18	2.26	2.35	2.44	2.62	2.80
80	2.44	2.49	2.58	2.68	2.78	2.98	3.18
100	2.70	2.75	2.86	2.97	3.09	3.32	3.55
120	2.94	2.99	3.10	3.22	3.35	3.61	3.88
140	3.16	3.21	3.33	3.46	3.60	3.87	4.15
160	3.36	3.44	3.58	3.72	3.87	4.17	....
180	3.56	3.63	3.75	3.90	4.06	4.38	....
200	3.74	3.81	3.95	4.12	4.29	....	....
220	3.91	4.00	4.13	4.30	4.48	....	....
240	4.07	4.15	4.30	4.48	....	....	....
260	4.23	4.31	4.47	4.66	....	....	....
280	4.38	4.46	4.63	....	....	....	....
300	4.53	4.62	4.80	....	....	....	....

Example 2. Having decided what the thickness of the arch-ring will be i remains to determine whether such an arch would be stable if built. Th following example will illustrate the method of determining this.

Consider an unloaded semicircular arch of 20-ft span.

First, to find the depth of the keystone, we will use Rankine's Formula.

$$\text{Depth of key} = \sqrt{0.12 \times 10} = \sqrt{1.2} = 1.1 \text{ ft}$$

Trautwine's Formula gives nearly the same result,

$$\text{Depth of key} = \frac{\sqrt{10 + 10}}{4} + 0.2 \text{ ft} = 1.3 \text{ ft}$$

But if we should compute the stability of a 20-ft semicircular arch with keystone 1.3 ft deep, we should find that the arch is very unstable; hence, this case, we cannot use the formula and must act upon our own judgmen In the opinion of the author, the arch-ring of such an arch should be at lea 2½ ft deep and the stability of the arch should be tested for that thicknes In all calculations on the arch, it is customary to consider it 1 ft thick right-angles to its face. This allows the AREAS OF THE FACES to be substituted for the ACTUAL WEIGHTS of the voussoirs and their loads. This method was used in the discussion of Retaining-Walls, Chapter IV, and Piers and Buttresses, Chapter VII. Furthermore, it is evident that if an arch 1 ft thick is stable, any number of arches of the same dimensions built alongside of it would be stable. In determining the stability of masonry arches it is also customary to neglect any increase in the strength of the arch from the mortar in the joints, or in other words, to consider the arch as laid up dry.

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* Taken from The Civil Engineer's Pocket-Book, John C. Trautwine.

Graphic Determination of the Stability of Arches. An arch has already been defined as a particular arrangement of blocks of stone or other material, these blocks being called the VOUSSOIRS. For the sake of simplicity consider an UNLOADED ARCH. In such an arch each voussoir is subjected to the action of three forces, (1) the thrust that it receives from the voussoir next above it in the arch-ring, (2) the force of gravitation, or its own weight and (3) the reaction to the resultant thrust. The first two forces combine into one and form the thrust that this voussoir exerts on the one next below it in the arch-ring (Fig. 7). The points in which these various thrusts cut the joints are called the CENTERS OF PRESSURE of the joints, while the line joining these centers of pressure is called the LINE OF PRESSURE or LINE OF RESISTANCE.* In order that an arch may be absolutely stable, this line of resistance must fall within the MIDDLE THIRD of the arch-ring. (See Theorem of the Middle Third, Chapter IV.) If the arch is stable the centers of pressure on the various joint-lines are within the middle third of the voussoir-depths and the angles made by the different thrusts with the normals to the joints are less than the ANGLE OF FRICTION of the material of which the arch is constructed. If these conditions are not fulfilled the CRITERIA OF SAFETY, explained in Chapter VII in the discussion of the Stability of a Buttress, will not be satisfied; and at any joint where these conditions do not obtain, the voussoir above the joint will tend to SLIDE along the joint-plane if the angle made by the thrust with a normal to the joint is greater than the angle of friction. If the center of pressure lies outside the middle third, there will be a tendency for the voussoir to OVERTURN. When these tendencies reach extreme limits actual FAILURE may occur. Figures 8, 9, 10 and 11 illustrate some of the ways in which an arch may fail, Figs. 8 and 9,

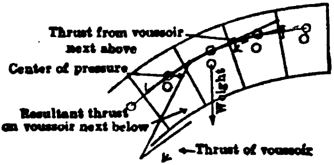
Thrust from voussoir next above
Center of pressure
Weight
Resultant thrust on voussoir next below
←Thrust of voussoir

Fig. 7. Equilibrium of Forces on Voussoir

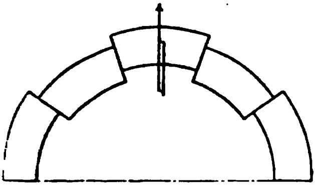

Fig. 8. Failure of Semicircular Arch. Haunches Sliding Down

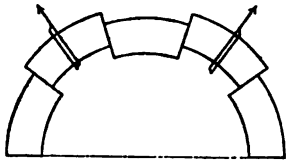

Fig. 9. Failure of Semicircular Arch. Haunches Sliding Up

showing different parts of the masonry sliding on the joints and Figs. 10 and 11 the failures caused by the passing of the line of pressure near the intrados or extrados.

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* This line is called, interchangeably, the LINE OF PRESSURE, the LINE OF RESISTANCE, the RESISTANCE-LINE, etc.

Before passing to the actual discussion of the GRAPHIC METHOD for determining the stability of arches, a consideration of the action of the STRESSES developed in a construction of this kind will assist in a clearer understanding of the subject.

Fig. 8 shows how, if the line of resistance along the HAUNCHES of the arch should turn sharply downward and in so doing make with a normal to one of the joints an angle greater than the angle of friction, the voussoirs at this point would tend to slide inward on their joint-planes, forcing outward the voussoirs at the spring and crown of the arch. Fig. 9 shows how failure of the arch would occur under similar conditions, but with the line of resistance turning sharply upward instead of downward. In these two cases it is conceivable that, although the RESISTANT THRUST at the joint where failure takes place makes an angle with the normal greater than the angle of friction, its point of application is still within the middle third of the joint.

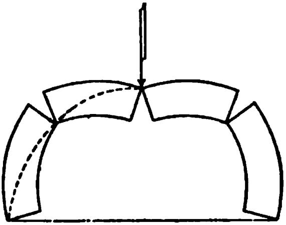
Fig. 10. Failure of Semicircular Arch. Opening of Arch-ring

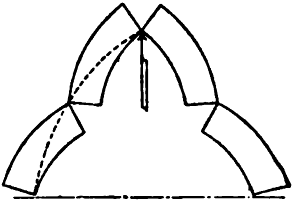
Fig. 11. Failure of Pointed Arch. Opening of Arch-ring

Figs. 10 and 11, on the contrary, illustrate methods of failure in which, although the angle made by the thrust may be such as to cause no SLIPPING of one joint on another, its point of application is sufficiently outside the middle third of the arch-ring itself at the crown to cause OVERTURNING. In Fig. 10 the line of resistance passes high up, or perhaps entirely outside of the arch-ring, in the voussoirs at the CROWN of the arch and low down along the HAUNCHES. In Fig. 11 exactly contrary conditions exist.

The ten ways in which a masonry arch may fail have been classified as follows:[*] "(1) By CRUSHING of the masonry; (2) By SLIDING of one voussoir upon another; (3) By one voussoir or section of masonry OVERTURNING about an adjacent voussoir or section; (4) By SHEARING in a horizontal or vertical plane, this applying to solid concrete arches and not to voussoirs; (5) As A COLUMN when the ratio of the unsupported length of an arch to its least width is greater than twelve; (6) From STRIKING THE CENTERING before the mortar is hard or when the arch, although stable under the full load, is not stable under its weight alone; (7) By STRIKING THE CENTERING or loading the arch during construction unsymmetrically; (8) By SETTLEMENT of the foundations; (9) By SLIDING upon the foundations; (10) By OVERTURNING about any point in the pier or abutment. Methods (8) and (9) are the most common ways of failure. All methods of failure, however, must be guarded against in design."

While some of these ways of failure may seem other than those illustrated in the foregoing figures, they may be perhaps more properly considered CAUSES

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[*] W. J. Douglas in American Civil Engineering Pocket-Book, page 625.

OF FAILURE than WAYS OF FAILURE; and all, with the exception of the first, bring about a position of the line of resistance in the arch-ring which causes failure in one of the ways noted.

In regard to the method of failure (1), the conditions may be such that the loading, although symmetrical, is so excessive that although the line of resistance remains within the middle third, the total pressure on a joint is sufficient to CRUSH THE MATERIAL of which the arch is constructed. Such conditions, however, are not common.

From the foregoing discussion it is evident that in order to determine whether or not a given arch is stable, it is necessary to find the TRUE LINE OF RESISTANCE corresponding to the conditions of loading, form and dimensions of that particular arch. It is always possible, in every arch-ring, to pass one MAXIMUM and one MINIMUM LINE OF RESISTANCE. The TRUE LINE OF RESISTANCE will lie somewhere between these two. The method of procedure, therefore, is to pass tentatively, a line of resistance, either a maximum or a minimum one, and see if it remains within the middle third. If it does not, as it may not be the true line of resistance, it does not mean necessarily that the arch is not stable. The next step then, is to note where it departs farthest from the middle third, and to pass a second line of resistance through the same point on the crown-joint and the point on the line of the middle third where the original line departs farthest from the middle third. If this second line of resistance remains within the middle third it is reasonable to assume that the arch is stable. In these various operations it is only necessary to consider half the arch when the loading is symmetrical, and this is usually the case in architectural problems. The NUMBER OF VOUSSOIRS, also, into which we divide the half-arch, is immaterial and the joints need not coincide with those of the actual arch.

In order to pass a line of resistance through an arch-ring, the THRUST exerted by the other half AT THE CROWN-JOINT on the half-arch is first determined. This thrust is then combined with the resultant of the weight of the first voussoir and its load to determine the thrust exerted by this voussoir on the one next below it, and this thrust, in turn, is combined in the same way with the resultant of the weight and the load of the second voussoir, and so on down to the springing-joint, for each succeeding voussoir. The points in which the various lines representing the thrusts cut the joints are known as the CENTERS OF PRESSURE, and the line joining them is the LINE OF PRESSURE or LINE OF RESISTANCE. In performing this operation, the CENTER OF GRAVITY of each voussoir as well as the line passing through the center of gravity of the whole half-arch must be located. The face of each voussoir may be considered a TRAPEZOID, and any one of the methods for finding the center of gravity of this figure may be used for finding the center of gravity of each voussoir. The method of dividing the trapezoid into TRIANGLES is here employed and is shown at the side of the arch in Fig. 12. (See, also, Chapter VI, and VII, page 298.) As the determination of the position of the line passing through the center of gravity of the half-arch is the problem of finding the RESULTANT OF A SYSTEM OF PARALLEL FORCES, the method involving the drawing of the EQUILIBRIUM-POLYGON may be used. The most convenient way to determine the stability of an arch is to use the GRAPHIC METHOD. The STEPS in this method are outlined in the preceding paragraphs. Each of the operations will now be considered in detail.

First Step. Draw one-half the arch to as large a scale as convenient, and divide it into voussoirs of equal size. In the example shown in Fig. 12, the arch-ring is divided into ten voussoirs of equal face-areas. As already pointed out, it is not necessary that these should represent the actual voussoirs of which the arch is built. Next, the face-area of each of these voussoirs is to be found.

Where the arch-ring is divided into voussoirs of equal size, this is most easily done by computing the total area of the arch-ring and dividing this total area by the number of voussoirs. The FORMULA for finding the area of one-half the arch-ring is as follows:

$$\text{Area in square feet} = 0.7854\,(r^2 - r_1^2)$$

In this formula r is the outside radius and r_1 the inside radius in feet. In this problem, for example, if the

$$\text{Area of the arch-ring} = 0.7854\,(12.5^2 - 10^2) = 44.2 \text{ sq ft}$$

as there are ten equal voussoirs, the area of each voussoir is 4.42 sq ft. Having drawn out one-half of the arch-ring, divide the crown-joint into three equal parts, and with radii of $O'E$ and $O'F$ describe the arcs dividing the arch-ring into thirds.

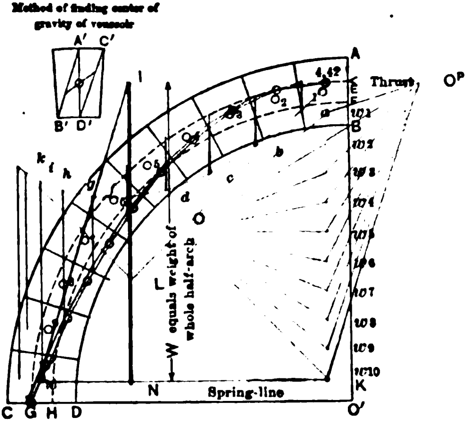


Fig. 12. Line of Pressure in Unloaded Semicircular Arch-ring

Second Step. Choose the points E and H through which to pass a MINIMUM LINE OF RESISTANCE. The points F and G, through which a MAXIMUM LINE OF RESISTANCE can be passed, could equally well have been chosen. It should be noted that an unloaded semicircular arch is more apt to fail by opening at the intrados at the crown and at the extrados at the spring, and therefore, in this case, the line of resistance probably passes nearer the OUTER THIRD at the CROWN and nearer the INNER THIRD at the SPRING. To determine this MINIMUM LINE OF RESISTANCE the MINIMUM THRUST, applied at the point E of the crown-joint, must first be determined.

The half-arch is in equilibrium under the action of three forces: (1) the THRUST AT THE CROWN, acting horizontally, applied at the point E and preventing the half-arch from overturning inward; (2) the WEIGHT OF THE HALF-ARCH considered as a vertical force, acting through its center of gravity and tending to overturn it inwards about the point D; and (3) A FORCE EQUAL AND OPPOSITE TO THE RESULTANT of these two forces and passing from H to I. I is the intersection of the weight-line through the center of gravity of the half-arch, with the line of action of the thrust at the crown, prolonged. It is thus possible to construct the TRIANGLE OF THESE THREE FORCES and determine the magnitudes of the thrusts, when the position of the weight-line of the half-arch is determined. It is first necessary to draw a vertical line through the center of gravity of each voussoir. The center of gravity of one of the voussoirs may be found by the METHOD OF TRIANGLES, as shown in the supplementary figure at the side of the arch-ring.

Having determined the positions of the centers of gravity of the voussoirs, locate them on the voussoirs as shown. From the point *E* (Fig. 12) lay off vertically, to a scale of so many SQUARE UNITS TO A LINEAR UNIT, the area of each voussoir, one below the other, commencing with the top voussoir. The length of the line *EK* will then equal the total area of the arch-ring. From *E* and *K* (Fig. 12) draw 45° lines intersecting at *O*. Draw *Ow* 1, *Ow* 2, *Ow* 3, etc. Then where *OE* intersects the first vertical line through the center of gravity of the first voussoir at *a*, draw a line parallel to *Ow* 1, intersecting the second vertical at *b*. Draw *bc* parallel to *Ow* 2, *cd* parallel to *Ow* 3 and so on to *k*. Draw *kL* parallel to *Ow* 10 and prolong it downward until it intersects *EO* prolonged, at *L*. A vertical line drawn through *L* will pass through the center of gravity of the half arch-ring. This is an application to a practical problem of the method of finding, by the EQUILIBRIUM-POLYGON, the line of action of the resultant of a SYSTEM OF PARALLEL FORCES. The weights of the individual voussoirs act along parallel vertical lines and the weight of the half-arch is their resultant in magnitude.

Third Step. To determine the THRUST AT THE CROWN and the REACTION AT THE SPRING, draw a horizontal line through *E*, the upper part of the middle third, and a vertical line through *L*, the two lines intersecting at *I* (Fig. 12). For the arch to be stable, it is, in general, considered necessary for the LINE OF RESISTANCE to pass within the MIDDLE THIRD. First, assume that the line of pressure or resistance starts at *E* and comes out at *H*. Draw a line *IH* the direction of the line of action of the resultant of the thrust at the crown and the weight of the half-arch, and draw, also, a horizontal line opposite the point *w* 10, between *N* and *M*. This horizontal line *MN* represents the magnitude of the horizontal thrust at the crown, for *INM* is the TRIANGLE OF THE THREE FORCES in equilibrium, the THRUST at the crown, the WEIGHT of the half-arch and the REACTION at the spring. Draw *w* 10 O^p parallel to *HI*, and the lines $O^p w$ 1, $O^p w$ 2, $O^p w$ 3, etc. $O^p E$, equal to *NM*, is the thrust at the crown, and *w* 10 O^p, equal to *MI*, the reaction at the spring. *INM* and EKO^p are similar triangles.

Fourth Step. It is required next, to determine the LINE OF RESISTANCE through the arch-ring. The thrust at *E* is combined with the weight of the first voussoir; their resultant is found and in turn combined with the weight of the second voussoir; and so on for all the voussoirs. The intersections of these resultants with the joint-lines are the CENTERS OF PRESSURE; the line joining these centers of pressure is the LINE OF RESISTANCE.

These resultants could be determined by drawing a series of PARALLELOGRAMS OF FORCES over each voussoir. This would complicate the figure and involve unnecessary labor. It is found more convenient to draw the TRIANGLES OF FORCES one after the other, at the right-hand side of the figure and then transfer the results thus obtained by means of parallel lines to the figure itself, especially as the weights of the voussoirs have already been laid off along the line *EK*, at *Ew* 1, *w* 2, *w* 3, *w* 4, *w* 5, etc.

Then from the point where $O^p E$ prolonged intersects the first vertical in voussoir number 1, draw a (green) line to the second vertical, parallel to $O^p w_1$; from this point, a (green) line to the third vertical, parallel to $O^p w$ 2 and so on. The last line should pass through *H*. Join the various points, where these (green) lines cut the joints at the centers of pressure, by the broken (red) line. This last line drawn is the LINE OF RESISTANCE. If this line lies entirely within the MIDDLE THIRD of the arch-ring, the arch may be considered to be stable. But suppose that the line of resistance passes not only outside of the middle third but also outside of the arch-ring itself; it is still possible that the arch is not unstable. This is the case in Fig. 12 and we will next determine if a line of resistance can be drawn which will remain within the limits of the middl third of the arch-ring.

Fifth Step. The Second Trial. Reproducing the condition of Fig. 12 i Fig. 13, without the construction lines, it is seen that the LINE OF RESISTANC leaves the arch-ring at *R* an enters it again at *S*, while it i furthest from it at *U*. If, at *U* a perpendicular is erected to straight line joining the tw points *R* and *S*, this perpendicular line *VW*, called the LIN OF FRACTURE, will be approximately the trace of the plan along which, with the line c resistance under consideration the arch will tend to fail, presumedly by TURNING OVER t the right about the point This shows that the THRUST A THE CROWN, assumed to b applied at the point *E*, while sufficient intensity to maintai equilibrium about *H*, is not sufficient intensity to maintai equilibrium about *V*. If now SECOND THRUST, of sufficie intensity to maintain equilibrium about *V*, or better, about *X*, can be applie at *E* without being so great in magnitude that it will OVERTURN THE ARC OUTWARD about *G*, or some other point on the outer line of the middle third,

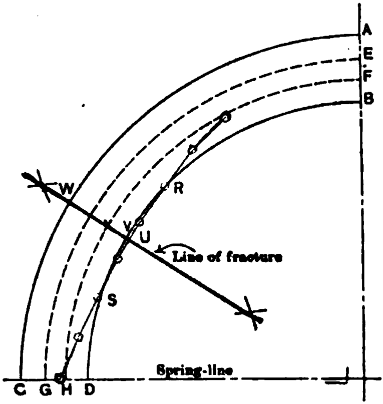


Fig. 13. Line of Fracture in Unloaded Semicircular Arch-ring

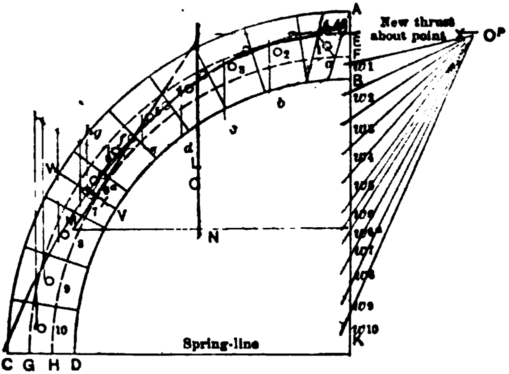


Fig. 14. Second Line of Pressure in Unloaded Semicircular Arch-ring

is reasonable to conclude that the line of resistance resulting from this thrust very nearly the TRUE LINE OF RESISTANCE in the arch-ring and that the ar is stable.

In order to determine this NEW LINE OF RESISTANCE the NEW THRUST AT T crown must be found (Fig. 14). The preliminary steps required for this are the same as before until the seventh voussoir is reached. This is divided into two voussoirs by the line *VW* (Fig. 14), one being $w6\ w6^a$ and the other the remainder of this seventh voussoir, and this division must be allowed for along the load-line *EK*, at $w6\ w6^a$. The line $w6\ w6^a$ represents the area of voussoir 6^a, and the line $w6^a\ w7$ the area of the remainder of the seventh voussoir.

The vertical line *IL*, passing through the center of gravity of that part of the half-arch above the line *VW*, is found by prolonging backwards the line *hg*, parallel to $O\ w6^a$, until it intersects *OE* at *L*. To find the NEW THRUST AT THE CROWN by completing the TRIANGLE OF FORCES for this thrust and the force equal and opposite to their resultant, the inclined (blue) line must be drawn through the point *X* and the horizontal (blue) line through $w6^a$. The new thrust then is as before *NM*, equal to O^PE. This thrust is laid off at O^PE, the (green) lines $O^Pw\ 1$, $O^Pw\ 2$, $O^Pw\ 3$, etc., being drawn as before and the new line of resistance being drawn through the points where the parallels to these (green)

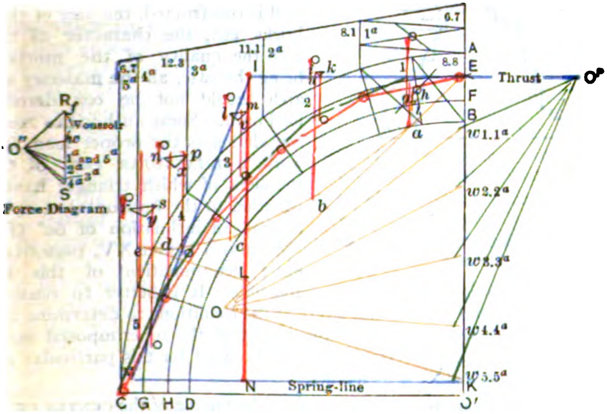


Fig. 15. Line of Pressure in Loaded Semicircular Arch-ring

lines cut the joints. This NEW LINE OF RESISTANCE, if drawn correctly, should pass through *X*. It lies within the middle third, except for a short distance at the springing, and hence it is justifiable to consider the arch stable. If it had passed outside the middle third to any great extent, in this second trial, this presumption would not have been justified.

This discussion explains the method of determining the stability of an UNLOADED SEMICIRCULAR ARCH. Such cases very seldom occur in practice, but they serve to illustrate the methods which apply generally to all other cases. With LOADED ARCH-RINGS there is slight difference in the method of determining the position of the center of gravity.

Example 3. A LOADED OR SURCHARGED SEMICIRCULAR ARCH (Fig. 15) will be considered next. Assume the same arch shown in Figs. 12, 13 and 14, and suppose it to be loaded with a wall of masonry of the same thickness and weight per square foot as that of the arch-ring, the upper surface of the wall being an inclined plane, 1 ft above the arch-ring at the crown, and 8 ft above it at the spring. The assumption of the particular load in this case is a purely arbitrary one for the purpose of illustrating the method of solution. The determination of the ACTUAL LOAD that comes upon an arch in any given case is by no means easy, so numerous are the uncertain elements that affect the transmission of this load to the arch-ring.

The customary procedure is to assume that the load is itself transmitted to the arch-ring VERTICALLY DOWNWARD. Each voussoir thus receives that portion of the load which is included between two vertical lines drawn to the points of intersection of the joints on either side of that voussoir with the extrados. Having made this assumption it is necessary next to determine how much of the total superimposed masonry bears upon the arch-ring.

It is a matter of common observation that if an opening is made in a wall, especially in a wall that has stood for some time, the major portion of the masonry above this opening is self-supporting, limited portions only, bounded by a somewhat irregular line, falling down into the opening, as shown in Fig. 16. The profile of this boundary-line depends upon the nature of the material of which the wall is constructed, the size of the stones, bricks, etc., the character of the bond and the quality of the mortar. This being the case, all the masonry above an arch should not be considered as the load on it. Some authorities recommend considering as the proper load, for brickwork, a TRIANGULAR PART of the wall, the sides of which triangle have an inclination to the horizontal of 45°; others assume an inclination of 60° (Fig. 16). (See, also, Chapter XV, page 612.) The exact determination of this load by mechanical laws is difficult if not impossible. It is better to consider each case separately and by a careful study of the conditions to determine as closely as possible just what portion of the weight of the superimposed masonry is transmitted to the arch. Having assumed a load for this particular arch-ring (Fig. 15), the procedure is as follows:

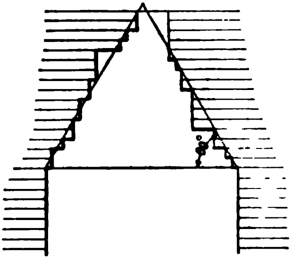


Fig. 16. Triangle of Loading over Opening

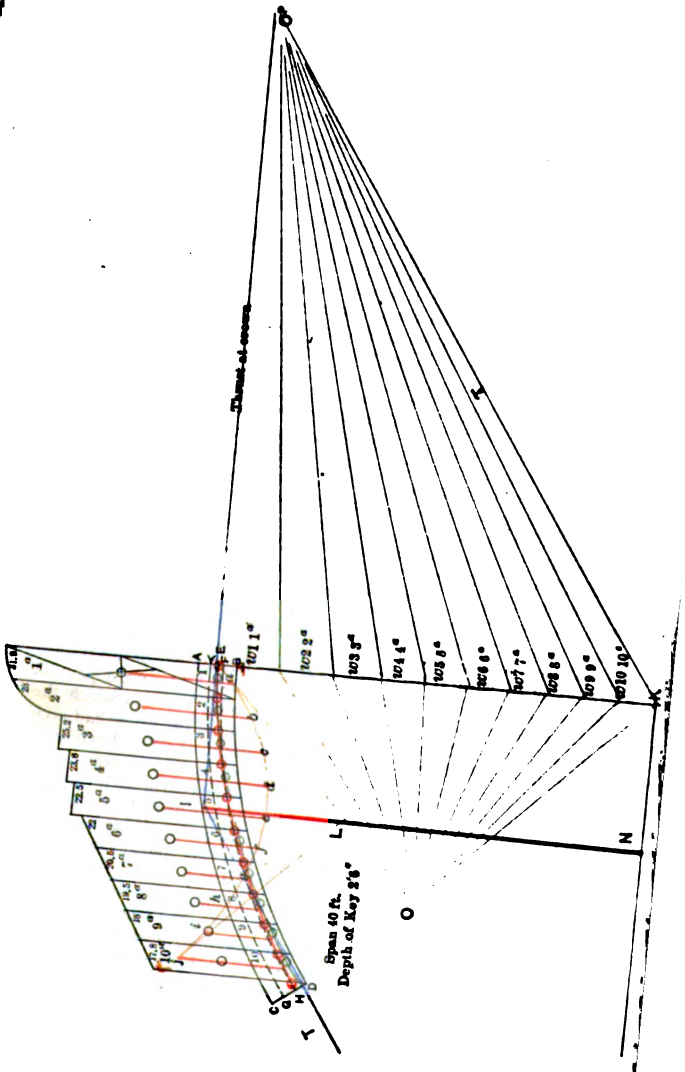
First Step of Example 3. This involves the finding of the CENTER OF GRAVITY of the ARCH-RING AND LOAD COMBINED. Divide the arch-ring into five voussoirs of equal size. In this case the area of each voussoir is equal to 44.2 sq ft ÷ 5, or 8.8 sq ft. (See under First Step, Fig. 12, preceding example.) The surcharge or load, also, is divided into five parts, not necessarily equal, by drawing vertical lines to the points of intersection of the joints and the extrados. The approximate area of each one of these surcharges is found by multiplying half the sum of the lengths of the two parallel vertical sides by the length of the horizontal distance between them.

The positions of the center of gravity of each voussoir and of the center of gravity of each voussoir-surcharge are determined as in the preceding example. The CENTERS OF GRAVITY of these SURCHARGES can be found by dividing each TRAPEZOIDAL FIGURE into TRIANGLES as shown, remembering that the MEDIAL LINE in this case joins the middle points of the two parallel faces. As the latter are vertical, the medial lines approach a horizontal direction. This construction is shown on surcharge 1^a, Fig. 15. Having drawn the lines of action of the weights of the various voussoirs and of their loads through their respective centers of gravity, the lines of action of the combined weight of each voussoir and its load must be found. The construction for this operation is shown at the left of **Fig. 15.** The method used, that of the EQUILIBRIUM-POLYGON, is the same as that employed in the previous example to find the line passing through the center of gravity of the half-arch, only in this case the forces are reduced to two. Furthermore, as the areas of the various voussoirs are equal it is possible to superimpose the different FORCE-DIAGRAMS, one over the other, and so save considerable labor. Begin, therefore, by laying off along the line *RS* at the left of the loaded arch, and at any convenient scale, *fw*, the area (weight) of a voussoir; then from *w*, in turn, the distances $w\ 1^a$, $w\ 2^a$, $w\ 3^a$, etc., representing the areas of the successive surcharges, 1^a, 2^a, 3^a, etc., always at the same scale. The scale to be employed later for laying off the combined weights of the voussoirs and their loads along the line *AK* is the best one to choose, but the difference in scales is not important. In this particular instance the two points 1^a and 5^a coincide because the two areas 1^a and 5^a, although of different shapes, are each equal to 6.7 sq ft. This is a mere coincidence. Next draw fO'' and $4^a\ O''$ at 45° to *RS*, and in turn, $O''w$, $O''1^a$, $O''2^a$, etc. As the problem which presents itself is to combine the weight of each voussoir with its individual surcharge, and as the weights of all the voussoirs are equal, and, furthermore, as the forces which are to be combined to find their resultant are only two, the two POLE-LINES OR RAYS $O''f$ and $O''w$ in the FORCE-DIAGRAM serve in each case, and the FUNICULAR POLYGON is reduced to a TRIANGLE. Draw *gh*, *ik*, *lm*, *np* and *rs* parallel to $O''w$, and *ht*, *ku*, *mv*, *px* and *sy* parallel to $O''f$; and draw *gt*, *iu*, *lv*, *nx* and *ry* parallel respectively to $O''1^a$, $O''2^a$, $O''3^a$, $O''4^a$ and $O''5^a$. The points *t*, *u*, *v*, *x* and *y* are the points through which to draw the heavy (red) lines of action of the combined weights of the voussoirs and their surcharges.

Having found and drawn these lines, the procedure for finding the line *IN* is the same as in the previous example, except that the distances $Ew1\ 1^a$, $w1\ 1^a$, $w2\ 2^a$, etc., instead of being equal to the weights of the voussoirs alone, are equal to the combined weights of each voussoir and its surcharge, $Ew1\ 1^a$, being equal to $f\ 1^a$, $w1\ 1^a$ to $w2\ 2^a$ being equal to $f\ 2^a$, etc.

The line *EO* is drawn at 45° to *AO′*, but as the position of the POLE-POINT, *O*, is entirely arbitrary, the line $Ow\ 5\ 5^a$ has been drawn in this case in such a way that *O* falls well over toward the left of the figure, thus avoiding a certain amount of confusion in the drawing which would have resulted if $Ow\ 5\ 5^a$ had made an angle of 45° with *AO′*. The lines *ab*, *bc*, *cd* and *de* are drawn respectively parallel to $w1\ 1^aO$, $w2\ 2^aO$, etc., and *eL* is produced backward parallel to $Ow\ 5\ 5^a$ until it intersects *EO* at *L*, which is the point through which the heavy (red) line *IN*, passing through the center of gravity of the whole half-arch and its surcharge, should be drawn. A vertical line drawn through *L* will pass through the center of gravity of the arch-ring and its load. If this were an arch designed for a building and if the only abutments possible were of such size and form that it was essential for the thrust exerted by the last or fifth voussoir on these abutments to approach more nearly the vertical, the architectural expedient of increasing slightly the weight of the surcharge, 5^a, on this voussoir by adding some piece of ornament, such as a cartouche, could be resorted to. A case of this kind in actual practice is the archway over the entrance to the service-courtyard of the Grand Opera House in Paris, where the pyramidal stone ornaments which surmount the cornice on either side of the central motive were added after the original design was made, with this end in view. In the example illustrated in Fig. 15 the areas of the faces of the surcharges are shown by the figures on these faces. For the second surcharge from the crown, for example, the area is 8.1 sq ft.

Second Step of Example 3. This involves the determination of the THRUST AT THE CROWN and the LINE OF RESISTANCE. The method of finding this thrust


O'
Thrust at crown
T
A
E
F
B
w1 1a
w2 2a
w3 3a
w4 4a
w5 5a
w6 6a
w7 7a
w8 8a
w9 9a
w10 10a
K
L
N
O
31.8
28
23.2
23.6
22.5
22
20.6
19.5
18
17.8
1a
2a
3a
4a
5a
6a
7a
8a
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10a
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
J
C
G
H
D
T
Span 40 ft.
Depth of Key 2'8"

at the crown is similar to that employed in the previous example. In that example, however, it was found that this thrust, applied at E and determined by assuming H as the point of application of the reaction at the spring, produced a line of resistance which fell considerably below the middle third. But instead of performing the operations required by a second trial, as in the previous example, the expedient is tried of slightly increasing the inclination to the vertical of the (blue) line IM, and so assuming a somewhat greater THRUST AT THE CROWN. As the line of resistance, as shown in Fig. 15, passed with this thrust departs but slightly from the middle third near the springing, we are justified in assuming that this arch is stable under the given conditions. The method used for this example may be used, also, for a SEMIELLIPTICAL ARCH.

Example 4. This example (Fig. 17) illustrates the application of the preceding methods, with some variations, to the determination of the position of the center of gravity of a LOADED SEGMENTAL ARCH, the thrusts at the crown and spring and the line of pressure or resistance through the arch-ring. In this case, instead of dividing the arch-ring into a certain number of voussoirs with joints radiating from a center and considering the surcharge on each individual voussoir, the method of dividing the arch-ring and its load into VERTICAL SLICES, in this case two feet wide, and computing the areas of the entire slices has been adopted. Having computed the areas of the slices, including in each case the combined areas of the sliced part of the arch-ring and its surcharge, we lay them off in order from E, to a convenient scale, and then proceed as in the previous examples. The remaining steps required to determine the thrusts at the crown and at the spring and the line of resistance are also the same as explained in the foregoing paragraphs. In a FLAT SEGMENTAL ARCH there is practically no need of dividing the arch-ring into voussoirs by JOINTS RADIATING FROM A CENTER, in order to determine its stability. Of course, when built, they must be made to radiate. Fig. 17 shows the GRAPHICAL ANALYSIS of an arch of 40-ft span and carrying a load 13½ ft high at the crown. The depth of the arch-ring is 2 ft 6 in. It is seen that the line of resistance lies entirely within the middle third, and that the arch is therefore stable. It is to be noted that the line of resistance in a SEGMENTAL ARCH should be drawn through the LOWER or INNER EDGE of the middle third at the springing. It is to be noted, also, that the horizontal thrust at the crown and the thrust T against the supports are very great when compared with those in a SEMICIRCULAR ARCH; and hence, although the SEGMENTAL ARCH is the stronger of the two, it requires much heavier abutments. The foregoing examples serve to show the various methods of determining the stability and thrusts of any arch used in buildings.

Reinforced-Concrete Arches. Many arches are now built of concrete reinforced by steel ribs. Such arches, however, are much more common in civil engineering than in architectural structures and so hardly come within the province of an architect's handbook. Many comprehensive and practical papers, however, on such arches have been published in recent engineering literature.

CHAPTER IX

REACTIONS AND BENDING MOMENTS FOR BEAMS

By

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1. Reactions for Beams

Definition of Reaction. One of the fundamental principles of static equilibrium is that the sum of all the forces acting upon a body in one direction must be balanced by the sum of another set of forces acting in the opposite direction. Therefore, in the case of a beam or girder, the loads acting downward must be balanced by an equal set of forces at the supports, acting upward. These upward forces are called THRUSTS, or REACTIONS and in computing the strength of beams one of the first steps is to determine them, since the loads are usually given in intensity and position.

The Principle of Moments. The reactions may be determined by the application of another fundamental principle of static equilibrium for forces acting in the same plane. The algebraic sum of the moments of all the forces taken about any point in the plane in which they act must be zero. The MOMENT OF A FORCE about a point is the product of the magnitude or intensity of the force by the perpendicular distance between the LINE OF ACTION of the force and the point. The perpendicular distance is called the LEVER-ARM, and the point the CENTER OF MOMENTS. Forces acting upward are considered POSITIVE and those acting downward are considered NEGATIVE. The center of moments may be taken at any point in the plane of action of the forces, but it is more convenient to take it at one of the reactions. For example, the beam in Fig. 1 supports a concentrated load P at the distance m from the left support. To find the left reaction take the center of moments at the right reaction. Then the EQUATION OF MOMENTS is

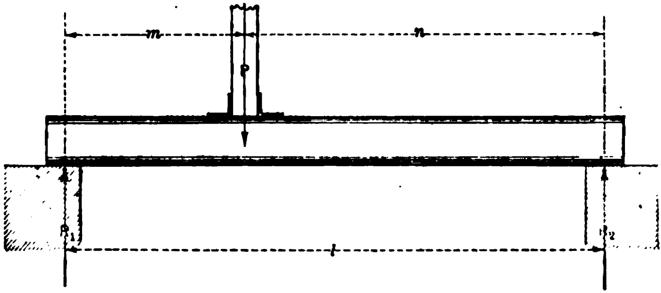

Fig. 1. Simple Beam. One Concentrated Load

$$R_1 l - Pn = 0$$

from which

$$R_1 = Pn/l \tag{1}$$

In like manner, to find R_2 the center of moments is taken at R_1 and the equation of moments is

$$R_2l - Pm = 0, \text{ from which } R_2 = Pm/l \qquad (1)'$$

From the first principle of statics mentioned, $R_1 + R_2$ must equal P; hence, as a check, $Pn/l + Pm/l = P$.

Example 1. Let a beam 15 ft in span support a concentrated load of 700 lb 6 ft from the left end; or, $P = 700$, $m = 6$ and $n = 9$. Then, from Formula (1), $R_1 = 700 \times 9/15 = 420$ lb. $R_2 = 700 \times 6/15 = 280$ lb and $420 + 280 = 700$ lb.

For a concentrated load at the middle, or for a uniform load over a simple beam, it is evident without applying the conditions of equilibrium, that each reaction is one-half the load, for, in Formulas (1) and (1)′, m and n each equal $l/2$ and R_1 and $R_2 = \frac{1}{2} P$.

For any number of concentrated loads (Fig. 2) the reactions may be found by adding together the reactions found by Formula (1) due to each load separately, or they may be computed in one operation by the following formula:

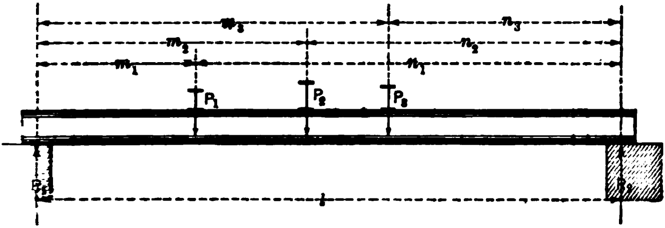

Fig. 2. Simple Beam. Three Concentrated Loads

To find the right reaction, the center of moments is taken at the left support, and the equation of moments is

$$R_2l - P_1m_1 - P_2m_2 - P_3m_3 = 0$$

hence,

$$R_2 = \frac{P_1m_1 + P_2m_2 + P_3m_3}{l} \qquad (2)$$

In like manner, to find R_1 the center of moments is taken at R_2 and the equation of moments is

$$R_1l - P_1n_1 - P_2n_2 - P_3n_3 = 0$$

from which

$$R_1 = \frac{P_1n_1 + P_2n_2 + P_3n_3}{l} \qquad (3)$$

Example 2. Suppose the beam in Fig. 2 is 20 ft in length. Let there be three concentrated loads of 500, 800 and 600 lb placed 5, 9 and 12 ft respectively from the left support. Then $l = 20$, $m_1 = 5$, $m_2 = 9$, $m_3 = 12$, $P_1 = 500$, $P_2 = 800$ and $P_3 = 600$. Substituting in Formulas (2) and (3),

$$R_1 = \frac{500 \times 5 + 800 \times 9 + 600 \times 12}{20} = 845 \text{ lb}$$

$$R_2 = \frac{500 \times 15 + 800 \times 11 + 600 \times 8}{20} = 1\,055 \text{ lb}$$

and

$$500 + 800 + 600 = 845 + 1\,055 = 1\,900 \text{ lb}$$

To find the reactions for a combination of uniformly distributed and centrated loads, to each of the reactions obtained by Formulas (1) or (2) fo concentrated loads, add one-half the distributed load. Thus, suppose 20-ft beam in this example weighs 40 lb per linear ft. This is considered uniformly distributed load and for the entire beam it is 40 lb × 20 = 80 By the rule, one-half of this is added to each reac are, $R_1 = 845 + 400 = 1\,245$ lb and $R_2 = 1\,055 + 400 = 1\,455$ lb.

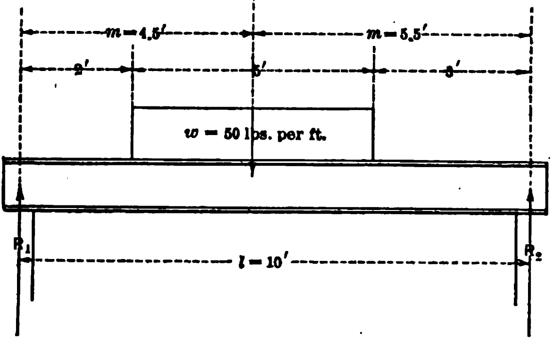

Fig. 3. Simple Beam. Distributed Load over Part of Span

Example 3. For a distributed load applied over only a part of the span, Fig. 3, assume the load to be CONCENTRATED AT THE MIDDLE of the part which it acts and use Formulas (1) and (1)'. For example, let *w* (Fig. 3) equa lb per linear ft, applied for a distance of 5 ft over the beam. Then *W*, the t load, is 50 lb × 5 = 250 lb. This may be assumed to be concentrated at center, 4.5 ft from the left support. Then $P = 250$, $m = 4.5$ and $n = 5.5$; from Formulas (1) and (1)',

$$R_1 = \frac{250 \times 5.5}{10} = 137.5 \text{ lb}$$

and

$$R_2 = \frac{250 \times 4.5}{10} = 112.5 \text{ lb}$$

Therefore, for any combination of concentrated and uniform loads distribu over the entire beam, or over only part of it, find the reactions due to the c centrated loads by Formulas (1) or (2), and to them add the reactions due to uniformly distributed loads.

2. Bending Moments in Beams*

Definitions. The bending moment is a measure of the tendencies of force break a beam by BENDING or FLEXURE. Fig. 4 shows the manner in whic simple beam, supported at the ends, breaks when subjected to a load grea than it can bear. The effect of a load upon a beam is to cause it to SAG, BEND. The bending of the beam shortens, or compresses, the upper fibers stretches, or elongates, the lower fibers. So long as the resistance of the fib to shortening, or compression, and to stretching, or tension, is greater than the tendency of the load to disrupt them, the beam carries the load; but, when the load causes a greater tension, or compression, on the fibers than they are capable of resisting, the beam breaks. The stretching of the fibers before breaking allows the beam to bend; hence, the name BENDING MOMENT has been given to the forces causing a beam to BEND and perhaps ultimately to BREAK.

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* See, also, Chapter XV, pages 555 to 563.

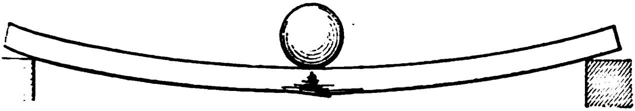

Fig. 4. Manner of Rupture of Simple Beam

In order to calculate the FLEXURAL STRENGTH OF A BEAM, it is necessary to ascertain the nature and extent, first, of the EXTERNAL FORCES acting to break the beam, and secondly of the INTERNAL FORCES or STRESSES tending to resist rupture.[*] The external forces tending to break the beam by flexure are the DOWNWARD LOADS and the UPWARD REACTIONS. Each acts with a LEVERAGE equal to the perpendicular distance from its LINE OF ACTION to the section at which the beam tends to break. The algebraic sum of the moments of these external forces on the left, or right, of any section is called the BENDING MOMENT for that section, since it is the MOMENT OF THE RESULTANT OF THE FORCES which tends to bend the beam at that section. It is generally designated by M. Then, from the definition, the BENDING MOMENT for any section of a beam resting on two supports and in a state of flexure under a load or loads is $M =$ the moment of either reaction minus the sum of the moments of the loads between that reaction and the section. The moment of the reaction is UPWARD, or POSITIVE, and the moment of any load DOWNWARD, or NEGATIVE, if the part of the beam on the left of the section is considered.

1. Bending Moments in Beams for Different Kinds of Loading

Case I

Beam Fixed at One End and Loaded with a Concentrated Load *P*, Near the Free End (Fig. 5).

Maximum bending moment, at wall $= P \times l$

Bending moment at any other section $x = Px$

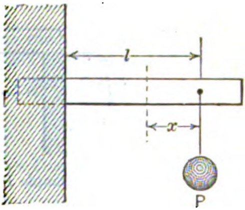

Fig. 5. Cantilever Beam. Concentrated Load near Free End

Note. If l is in feet, the bending moment will be in foot-pounds; if l is in inches, the bending moment will be in inch-pounds.

Case II

Beam Fixed at One End and Loaded with a Uniformly Distributed Load *W*. (Fig. 6.)

Maximum bending moment, at wall $= W \times l/2$

At any other section x, $M = wx \times x/2 = wx^2/2$

Note. $W = wl$ and $w =$ the load per unit of length.

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[*] See Chapter X for a discussion of these internal stresses and of the resisting moment.

Case III

Beam Fixed at One End and Loaded with Both a Concentrated and a Uniform Distributed Load (Fig. 7).

Maximum bending moment, at wall = $P \times l_2 + W \times l_1/2$

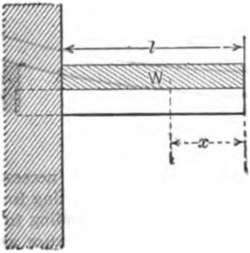

Fig. 6. Cantilever Beam. Uniformly Distributed Load

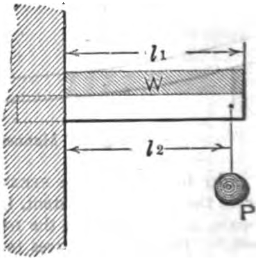

Fig. 7. Cantilever Beam. Distributed Load and Load at Free End

Case IV

Beam Supported at Both Ends and Loaded with a Concentrated Load at t Middle (Fig. 8).

Maximum bending moment, under the load = $Pl/4$

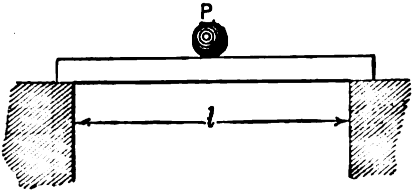

Fig. 8. Simple Beam. Concentrated Load at the Middle

Case V

Beam Supported at Both Ends and Loaded with a Uniformly Distribut Load *W* (Fig. 9).

Maximum bending moment, at the middle = $Wl/8$

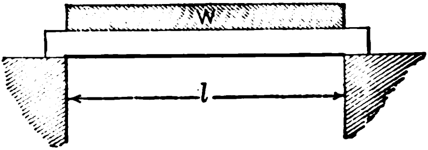

Fig. 9. Simple Beam. Uniformly Distributed Load

Case VI

Beam Supported at Both Ends and Loaded with a Concentrated Load not at the Middle (Fig. 10).

Maximum bending moment, under the load = Pmn/l

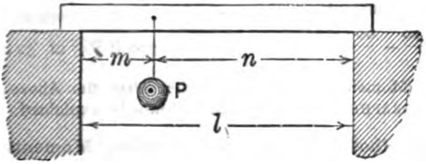

Fig. 10. Simple Beam. Concentrated Load not at the Middle

Case VII

Beam Supported at Both Ends and Loaded Symmetrically with Two Equal Concentrated Loads (Fig. 11).

Maximum bending moment = Pm and is the same for any section of the beam between the two loads.

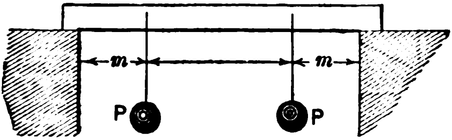

Fig. 11. Simple Beam. Two Concentrated Loads Symmetrically Placed

From these examples it will be seen that all the quantities which enter into the computation of the bending moment are the load, the span and the distance of the point of application of the load from the center of moments.

Case VIII

Beam Supported at Both Ends and Loaded with a Distributed Load Over Part of the Span (Fig. 12).

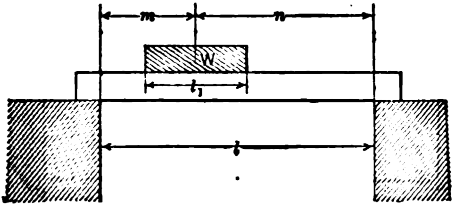

Fig. 12. Simple Beam. Distributed Load over Part of Span

Maximum bending moment, under the center of the load = $Wmn/l - Wl_1/8$
When m and n are equal the bending moment = $W \times l/4 - W \times l_1/8$

Example 4. In Fig. 12 let $W = 800$ lb, $m = 8$ ft, $n = 12$ ft, $l = 20$ ft and $l_1 = 8$ ft. Then the bending moment

$$= \frac{800 \times 8 \times 12}{20} - \frac{800 \times 8}{8} = 3\,840 - 800 = 3\,040 \text{ lb, or } 36\,480 \text{ in-lb}$$

Example 5. In Fig. 12 let $m = n = 10$ ft, $l = 20$ ft, $l_1 = 4$ ft and $W = 600$ lb. Then the bending moment

$$= \frac{600 \times 20}{4} - \frac{600 \times 4}{8} = 3\,000 - 300 = 2\,700 \text{ ft-lb, or } 32\,400 \text{ in-lb}$$

The Bending Moment for any Case Other Than the Above may easily be obtained by the GRAPHIC METHOD, which will now be explained.

4. Graphic Method of Determining Bending Moments in Beams

Beam with One Concentrated Load (Fig. 13).

The BENDING MOMENT of a beam supported at both ends and loaded with one concentrated load may be determined GRAPHICALLY, as follows:

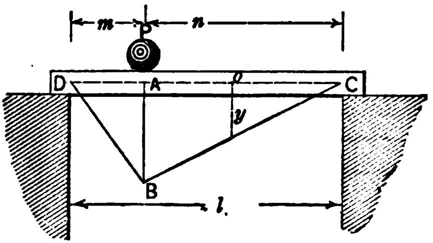

Fig. 13. Bending-moment Diagram. One Concentrated Load

Let P be the load, applied as shown. Then, by the rule under Case VI, the MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT is under the load and $= Pmn/l$

Draw the beam, with the given span, accurately to scale, and measure down the line AB, to a scale of FOOT-POUNDS to the LINEAR INCH, a distance equal to the bending moment. Connect B with each end of the beam. To find the bending moment at any other point of the beam, as at o, draw the vertical line y to BC. Its length, measured to the same scale to which AB is drawn, will give the bending moment at o. The figure $DBCAD$ is called the BENDING-MOMENT DIAGRAM and the lines BD and BC are called INFLUENCE LINES for the bending moments.

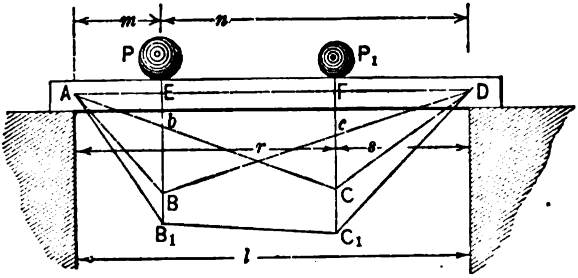

Fig. 14. Bending-moment Diagram. Two Concentrated Loads

Beam with Two Concentrated Loads (Fig. 14).

To draw the bending-moment diagram for a beam with two concentrated loads, draw the dotted lines ABD and ACD, giving the BENDING-MOMENT DIA-

GRAMS for each load separately. EB is laid out to scale, equal to Pmn/l and FC equal to P_1rs/l

The bending moment at the point E is equal to EB (from the load P) + Eb (from the load P_1), or $M = EB + Eb = EB_1$; and at F the bending moment is equal to $FC + Fc = FC_1$. The BENDING-MOMENT DIAGRAM for both loads is AB_1C_1D and the MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT is, in this particular case, the line FC_1 measured to scale.

Beam with Three Concentrated Loads (Fig. 15).

Proceed as in the last case, and draw the BENDING-MOMENT DIAGRAM for each load separately. Make $AD = A1 + A2 + A3$, $BE = B1 + B2 + B3$ and $CF = C1 + C2 + C3$. The figure $HDEFIH$ will then be the BENDING-MOMENT DIAGRAM corresponding to all the loads. The BENDING-MOMENT DIAGRAM for a beam with any number of concentrated loads may be drawn in the same way.

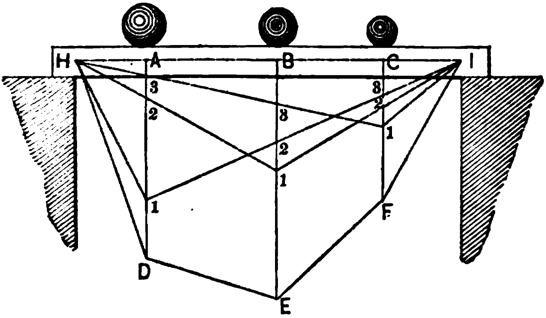

Fig. 15. Bending-moment Diagram. Three Concentrated Loads

Beam with a Uniformly Distributed Load (Fig. 16).

Draw the beam with the given span, accurately to a scale as before, and at the middle of the beam draw the vertical line AB, to a scale of a certain number of FOOT-POUNDS to the LINEAR INCH, equal to $Wl/8$, from Case V, W representing the whole distributed load. Connect the points C, B, D by a PARABOLA to obtain the BENDING-MOMENT DIAGRAM. To find the bending moment at any point a, draw the vertical line ab, measure it to the same scale to which AB is drawn, and it will be the bending moment desired. Methods for drawing the PARABOLA will be found in Part I, page 79.

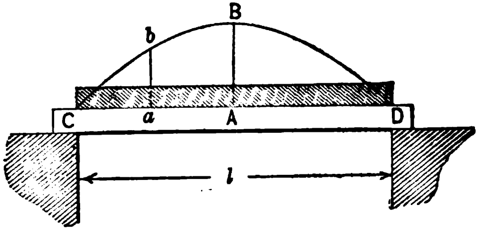

Fig. 16. Bending-moment Diagram. Distributed Load over Whole Beam

Beam Loaded with Both Distributed and Concentrated Loads (Fig. 17).

To determine the bending moments in this case, combine the BENDING-MOMENT DIAGRAMS for the concentrated loads and for the distributed load, as shown in

Fig. 17. The bending moment at any section of the beam will then be limite by the line ABC on top and by the line $CDEFA$ on the bottom; and the MAX MUM BENDING MOMENT will be the longest vertical line that can be draw between these tw bounding lines.

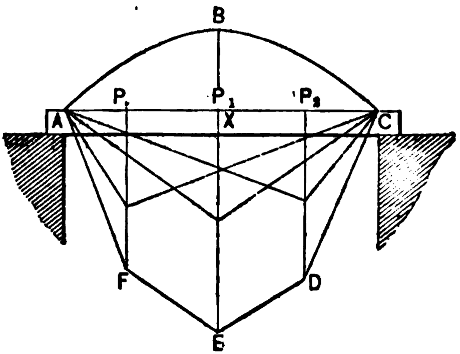

Fig. 17. Bending-moment Diagram. Distributed and Concentrated Loads

For example, th bending moment at is BE. The point MAXIMUM BENDING MO MENT depends upon th position of the concen trated loads and th relative magnitude the distributed loa it may or may n occur at the middle the beam or under o of the concentrat loads.

Example 6. Wh is the greatest bendi moment in a beam 20 ft span (Fig. 18), loaded with a distributed load of 800 lb, a concentrated load 500 lb 6 ft from one end, and a concentrated load of 600 lb 7 ft from the other en

Solution. (1) The maximum bending moment due to the distributed loa from Case V, is $Wl/8$, or $800 \times 20/8 = 2\,000$ ft-lb. Lay off vertically over t middle of the beam, and at any convenient scale, say 4 000 ft-lb to the inch, $B1 = 2\,000$ ft-lb, and draw a parabola through the points A, B and C. (See page 79.)

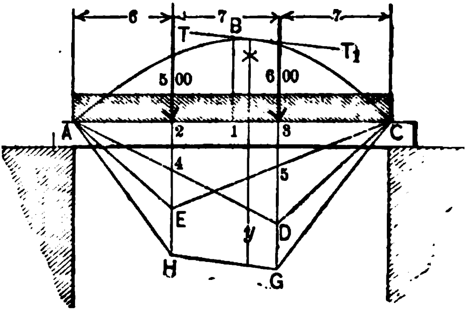

Fig. 18. Bending-moment Diagram. Distributed a Concentrated Loads

(2) The maximum bending moment for the concentrated load of 500 lb, from Case VI, is $500 \times 6 \times 14/20$, or 2 100 ft-lb. Draw $E2 = 2\,100$ ft-lb to the same scale as $B1$, and then draw the lines AE and CE.

(3) The maximum bending moment for the concentrated load of 600 lb, like manner, is $600 \times 7 \times 13/20$, or 2 730 ft-lb. Draw $D3 = 2\,730$ ft-lb a connect D with A and C.

(4) Make EH equal to the distance from 2 to 4, and DG to the distance fro 3 to 5, and draw $AHGC$.

The MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT will be represented by the longest vertic line which can be drawn between the parabola ABC and the broken line AHG In this example the longest vertical line which can be drawn is Xy, and scales 5 550 ft-lb.

The position of the line Xy is determined by drawing the line TT_1 parallel to HG and tangent to ABC. The vertical line Xy is drawn through the point of tangency.

Note. To change the bending moment to INCH-POUNDS multiply the moment in FOOT-POUNDS by 12.

CHAPTER X

PROPERTIES OF STRUCTURAL SHAPES. MOMENT OF INERTIA, MOMENT OF RESISTANCE, SECTION-MODULUS AND RADIUS OF GYRATION

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1. The Properties of Cross-Sections

The Moment of Inertia. The strength of a cross-section to resist stresses, in either a beam or a column, depends not only upon the area but also upon the form of the cross-section. The parts of the cross-section farthest from the neutral axis, which always passes through the center of gravity of the cross-section, are much more efficient in resisting bending stresses than those parts adjacent to the axis; so that some mathematical expression must be obtained that will represent the efficiency of the entire cross-section to resist bending stresses when compared with that of any other cross-section. This expression is called the MOMENT OF INERTIA and is usually designated by the letter I.

The Moment of Inertia of any cross-section may be defined as the sum of the products obtained by multiplying each of the elementary areas of which the section is composed by the square of its normal distance from the neutral axis of the section.

By an ELEMENTARY AREA is meant an area smaller than any dealt with in simple mathematics, and it is, therefore, impossible to find an exact expression for the moment of inertia of a cross-section by such methods. By means of the calculus, however, exact formulas have been deduced from which the moments of inertia of simple geometrical forms, such as rectangles, triangles, circles, etc., may be found, with respect to different axes.

The NEUTRAL AXIS of the cross-section of a beam, girder, column, etc., which is in a state of flexure, is the line on which there is neither tension nor compression in the fibers, and when the unit stresses do not exceed the ELASTIC LIMIT of the material, it can be shown that this neutral axis passes through the CENTER OF GRAVITY of the cross-section. The normal distance of the extreme fibers from the neutral axis is usually designated by the letter c or the letter y. The former is used in the notation of this book.

Since for all sections except squares and circles, there are, in general, two neutral axes corresponding to the more common positions of the sections, it follows that there are also two moments of inertia commonly used; for a rectangle, for example, a GREATEST MOMENT OF INERTIA about an axis perpendicular to the long side and a LEAST MOMENT OF INERTIA about an axis perpendicular to the short side. The moments of inertia of the cross-sections of all rolled shapes have been calculated and are tabulated in the manufacturers' handbooks. Thus, for example, the moments of inertia of the cross-section of a 12-in, 31.5-lb I beam, with respect to axes perpendicular to the web and parallel to the web, are, from Table IV, equal to 215.8 and 9.5 biquadratic inches respectively. Formulas for calculating the moments of inertia of other simple sections are given on the following pages.

The Moment of Resistance. In Chapter IX, under the chapter-subdivision treating of the BENDING MOMENTS in beams, page 325, it was stated that in order to calculate the FLEXURAL STRENGTH of a beam it is necessary to ascertain the nature and extent, first, of the external forces tending to break the beam by flexure, and, secondly, of the internal forces or stresses tending to resist rupture. The external forces cause the BENDING MOMENTS,* and the internal stresses the MOMENTS OF RESISTANCE, at the various cross-sections of a beam.

The MOMENT OF RESISTANCE or the RESISTING MOMENT at any cross-section of a beam is the algebraic sum of all the moments of the internal horizontal stresses in that section with reference to a point in that section. It is usually represented by the expression SI/c, in which S is the horizontal unit stress, tensile or compressive, as the case may be, upon the fiber most remote from the neutral axis of the section, and called the FIBER-STRESS; I is the MOMENT OF INERTIA of the area of the section with reference to the NEUTRAL AXIS; and c is the shortest distance from the most remote fiber to that axis. Since, for equilibrium of forces and stresses at any cross-section of a beam, the bending moment equals the resisting moment for that section, if M represents the bending moment we have the equation

$$M = SI/c \tag{1}$$

This is known as the FLEXURE FORMULA and is universally used for investigating the flexural strength of beams.

The Section-Modulus or Section-Factor. That expression I/c in the above formula is generally known as the SECTION-MODULUS or SECTION-FACTOR. This quantity for the principal rolled sections is given in Tables IV, V, VI, VII, VIII, XI, XII, XIII and XIV. Corresponding to the two moments of inertia generally used for all sections (except for squares and circles) there are two section-moduli also, one for each axis. Thus, the section-modulus of the 12-in 31.5-lb I beam, with respect to a neutral axis perpendicular to the web, is $I/c = 215.8/6 = 36$; and for the axis parallel to the web, it is $I/c = 9.5/2.5 = 3.8$. For other shape the section-modulus may be found by dividing the moment of inertia by the normal distance of the extreme fiber from the neutral axis.

The Radius of Gyration. The effect of the form of the cross-section of a column on its strength is determined by a quantity called the RADIUS OF GYRATION, which is as necessary in the determination of the strength of a column as the moment of inertia is in the determination of the strength of a beam. It is denoted by the letter r. The value of the radius of gyration for any section is determined by the formula

$$r = \sqrt{I/A} \tag{2}$$

in which I is the MOMENT OF INERTIA of the section and A the SECTION-AREA. The RADIUS OF GYRATION is the normal distance from the NEUTRAL AXIS to the CENTER OF GYRATION, and the center of gyration of a section is the point where the entire area might be concentrated and have the same moment of inertia as the actual distributed area. The radius of gyration of a section is a DISTANCE and it is always less than the distance, c, from the neutral axis to the remotest fiber. For the two moments of inertia above referred to, and commonly used, there are two corresponding radii of gyration. The least of these is the one to be used in the investigation of the strength of a column as it is referred to the axis about which the column is most likely to fail. The radii of gyration of the rolled shapes are given in the tables of the properties of sections, mentioned abo For the 12-in 31.5-lb I beam, $r = 4.83$ in and $r' = 1.01$ in. The radius of gyrat of any other section may be found by Formula (2).

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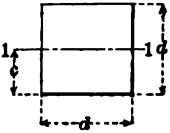
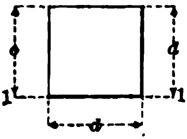
* See Chapter IX, page 325, for definition of "bending moment."

Formulas for the moments of inertia, radii of gyration and section-moc of the principal elementary sections are given on the following pages. In case of a hollow section or a section with a reentering hollow part, the mom of inertia of the hollow part is to be subtracted from that of the enclosing ar Moments of inertia when referred to the same axis can be added or subtract like any other quantities which are of the same kind.

2. Areas, Moments of Inertia, Section-Moduli and Radii of Gyration of Elementary Sections

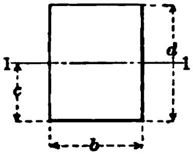
I = the moment of inertia
I/c = the section-modulus
r = the radius of gyration
A = the area of the section
c = the normal distance of most remote fiber from neutral axis

The position of axis referred to in each case is represented by the broken li 1 — 1.

SQUARE **Axis of moments through center** 	$A = d^2$ $c = \frac{d}{2}$ $I = \frac{d^4}{12}$ $\frac{I}{c} = \frac{d^3}{6}$ $r = \frac{d}{\sqrt{12}} = 0.288675\,d$
SQUARE **Axis of moments on base** 	$A = d^2$ $c = d$ $I = \frac{d^4}{3}$ $\frac{I}{c} = \frac{d^3}{3}$ $r = \frac{d}{\sqrt{3}} = 0.577350\,d$

RECTANGLE

Axis of moments through center



$$A = bd$$

$$c = \frac{d}{2}$$

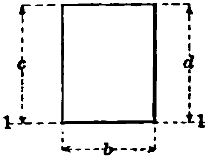
$$I = \frac{bd^3}{12}$$

$$\frac{I}{c} = \frac{bd^2}{6}$$

$$r = \frac{d}{\sqrt{12}} = 0.288675\,d$$

RECTANGLE

Axis of moments on base



$$A = bd$$

$$c = d$$

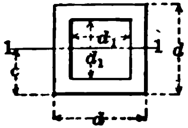
$$I = \frac{bd^3}{3}$$

$$\frac{I}{c} = \frac{bd^2}{3}$$

$$r = \frac{d}{\sqrt{3}} = 0.577350\,d$$

HOLLOW SQUARE

Axis of moments through center



$$A = d^2 - d_1^2$$

$$c = \frac{d}{2}$$

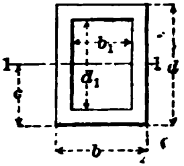
$$I = \frac{d^4 - d_1^4}{12}$$

$$\frac{I}{c} = \frac{d^4 - d_1^4}{6\,d}$$

$$r = \sqrt{\frac{d^2 + d_1^2}{12}}$$

HOLLOW RECTANGLE

Axis of moments through center



$$A = bd - b_1d_1$$

$$c = \frac{d}{2}$$

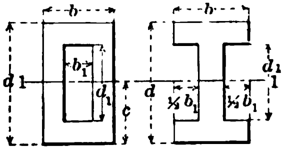
$$I = \frac{bd^3 - b_1d_1^3}{12}$$

$$\frac{I}{c} = \frac{bd^3 - b_1d_1^3}{6\,d}$$

$$r = \sqrt{\frac{bd^3 - b_1d_1^3}{12\,(bd - b_1d_1)}}$$

HOLLOW RECTANGLE AND I BEAM

Axis of moments through center



$$A = bd - b_1d_1$$

$$c = \frac{d}{2}$$

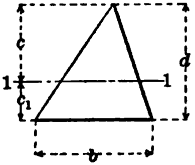
$$I = \frac{bd^3 - b_1d_1^3}{12}$$

$$\frac{I}{c} = \frac{bd^3 - b_1d_1^3}{6d}$$

$$r = \sqrt{\frac{bd^3 - b_1d_1^3}{12(bd - b_1d_1)}}$$

TRIANGLE

Axis of moments through center of gravity



$$A = \frac{bd}{2}$$

$$c = \frac{2d}{3} \qquad c_1 = \frac{d}{3}$$

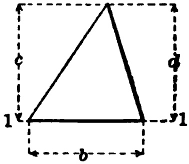
$$I = \frac{bd^3}{36}$$

$$\frac{I}{c} = \frac{bd^2}{24}$$

$$r = \frac{d}{\sqrt{18}} = 0.235702\,d$$

TRIANGLE

Axis of moments on base



$$A = \frac{bd}{2}$$

$$c = d$$

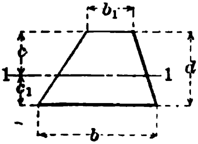
$$I = \frac{bd^3}{12}$$

$$\frac{I}{c} = \frac{bd^2}{12}$$

$$r = \frac{d}{\sqrt{6}} = 0.408248\,d$$

TRAPEZOID

Axis of moments through center of gravity



$$A = \frac{d(b + b_1)}{2}$$

$$c^* = \frac{d(b_1 + 2b)}{3(b + b_1)} \qquad {}^*c_1 = \frac{d(b + 2b_1)}{3(b + b_1)}$$

$$I = \frac{d^3(b^2 + 4bb_1 + b_1^2)}{36(b + b_1)}$$

$$\frac{I}{c} = \frac{d^2(b^2 + 4bb_1 + b_1^2)}{12(b + 2b_1)}$$

$$r = \frac{d}{6(b + b_1)}\sqrt{2(b^2 + 4bb_1b_1^2)}$$

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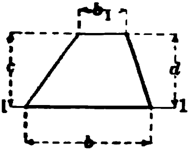
* To find c and c_1, see Chapter VI, page 295.

TRAPEZOID

Axis of moments on base



$$A = \frac{d\,(b + b_1)}{2}$$

$$c = d$$

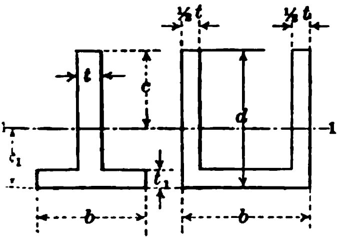
$$I = \frac{d^3\,(b + 3\,b_1)}{12}$$

$$\frac{I}{c} = \frac{d^2\,(b + 3\,b_1)}{12}$$

$$r = \frac{d}{\sqrt{6}}\sqrt{\frac{b + 3\,b_1}{b + b_1}}$$

T SECTION AND CHANNEL

Axis of moments through center of gravity



$$A = td + t_1\,(b - t)$$

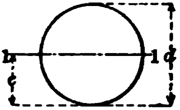
$$c^* = \frac{td \times \tfrac{1}{2}\,d + t_1\,(b - t)\,(d - \tfrac{1}{2}\,t_1)}{A}$$

$$I = \frac{tc^3 + bc_1^3 - (b - t)\,(c_1 - t_1)^3}{3}$$

$$r = \sqrt{\frac{I}{A}}$$

CIRCLE

Axis of moments through center



$$A = \frac{\pi d^2}{4} = 0.785398\,d^2$$

$$c = \frac{d}{2}$$

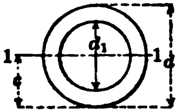
$$I = \frac{\pi d^4}{64} = 0.049087\,d^4$$

$$\frac{I}{c} = \frac{\pi d^3}{32} = 0.098175\,d^3$$

$$r = \frac{d}{4}$$

HOLLOW CIRCLE

Axis of moments through center



$$A = \frac{\pi\,(d^2 - d_1^2)}{4} = 0.785398\,(d^2 - d_1^2)$$

$$c = \frac{d}{2}$$

$$I = \frac{\pi\,(d^4 - d_1^4)}{64} = 0.049087\,(d^4 - d_1^4)$$

$$\frac{I}{c} = \frac{\pi\,(d^4 - d_1^4)}{32\,d} = 0.098175\,\frac{(d^4 - d_1^4)}{d}$$

$$r = \frac{\sqrt{d^2 + d_1^2}}{4}$$

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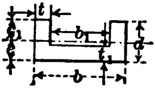
* To find the values of c and c_1, see Chapter VI, page 295.

CHANNEL

Axis of moments through center of gravity



$$A = t_1 b + 2t(d - t_1)$$

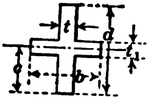
$$c^* = \frac{2d^2t + d_1t_1^2}{2A}$$

$$I = \frac{2td^3 + b_1t_1^3}{3} - Ac^2$$

$$r = \sqrt{\frac{I}{A}}$$

CROSS-SECTION

Axis of moments through center of gravity



$$A = td + t_1(b - t)$$

$$c = \frac{d}{2}$$

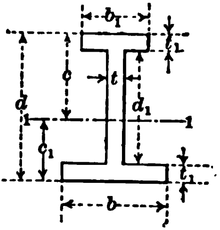
$$I = \frac{td^3 + t_1^3(b - t)}{12}$$

$$\frac{I}{c} = \frac{td^3 + t_1^3(b - t)}{6d}$$

$$r = \sqrt{\frac{td^3 - t_1^3(b - t)}{12(td + t_1(b - t))}}$$

IRREGULAR I SHAPE

Axis of moments through center of gravity



$$A = bt_1 + d_1t + b_1t_1$$

$$c^* = \frac{td^2 + t_1^2(b - t) + t(b_1 - t)(2d - t)}{2A}$$

$$I = \frac{b_1c^3 - (b_1 - t) \times (c - t_1)^3}{3} + \frac{bc_1^3 - (b - t) \times (c_1 - t_1)^3}{3}$$

$$r = \sqrt{\frac{I}{A}}$$

---

* To find c and c_1, see Chapter VI, page 295.

2. Transferring Moments of Inertia to Other Parallel Axes

Explanation of Formula. It is often necessary to determine the moment of inertia with respect to some other axis than the one passing through the center of gravity of the section, such, for example, as one passing through the base and parallel to the other. Suppose it is desired to find the moment of inertia of a rectangle about an axis passing through the lower base, as in the second figure on page 335. It may be demonstrated by the principles of mechanics that the moment of inertia of any section with respect to any axis is equal to the moment of inertia of the section with respect to a parallel axis through the center of gravity, plus the product of the area of the section multiplied by the square of the normal distance between the axes. This rule may be expressed by the formula

$$I_1 = I + Ah^2 \tag{3}$$

in which I_1 is the required moment of inertia, I the moment of inertia of the section with respect to the axis through its center of gravity and parallel to the given axis, A the area of the section and h the normal distance between the axes. From this it is seen that the moment of inertia of any section-area is less for an axis through its center of gravity than for any other parallel axis.

For example, consider the rectangle shown on page 335, of breadth b and depth d, the I of which is known to be $bd^3/12$ for an axis passing through the center of gravity and parallel to the base. Then, for a parallel axis through the base, the above formula gives:

$$I_1 = \frac{bd^3}{12} + bd \times \left(\frac{d}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{bd^3}{12} + \frac{bd^3}{4} = \frac{bd^3}{3}$$

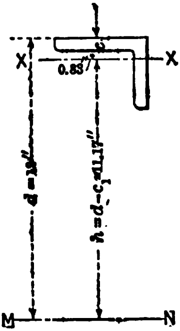


Fig. 1. Moment of Inertia of Cross-section of Steel Angle

Thus the moment of inertia of the cross-section of the steel angle shown in Fig. 1, about the axis MN, is equal to the moment of inertia about the axis XX plus the product of its area multiplied by h^2. The moments of inertia for the sections of the standard rolled shapes of structural steel may be found from the tables given in this chapter. The distance c_1, also, may be found from the same tables; and this distance subtracted from d will give the distance h of Formula (3).

Suppose, for example, that it is desired to find the moment of inertia of the cross-section of a 4 by 3 by ½-in angle, placed, with the long leg horizontal, about an axis MN, 12 in from the back (Fig. 1). Turning to Table XI, the area of the angle-section = 3.25 sq in. I, the moment of inertia of the angle-section about an axis 2–2, or XX of Fig. 1, parallel to the long leg = 2.4, c_1, the distance of this axis from the back of the long leg = 0.83 in and h, the distance between the axes = $(d - c_1)$ = 12 − 0.83 in = 11.17 in. Substituting these values in Formula (3)

$$I_1 = 2.4 + 3.25 \times 11.17^2 = 2.4 + 405.50 = 407.9$$

4. Moments of Inertia of Compound Sections

The Moment of Inertia of a Compound Section made up of a number of smaller sections may be found by the same formula, $I_1 = I + Ah^2$. Denote the SUM OF THE MOMENTS OF INERTIA of the separate sections making up the compound section, with respect to an axis through the center of gravity of that section, by ΣI_1. Formula (3) then becomes

$$\Sigma I_1 = \Sigma\,(I + Ah^2) \tag{4}$$

That is, to find the moment of inertia of any compound section made up of a number of smaller sections:

(1) Find the moment of inertia of each of the smaller sections about an axis passing through its own center of gravity and parallel to the neutral axis of the compound section;

(2) Multiply the area of each of the smaller sections by the square of the distance between its center of gravity and the center of gravity of the whole figure;

(3) Add the results found by (1) and (2) for the moment of inertia of the whole figure.

For example, consider the cast-iron beam or lintel shown in section in Fig. 2:

(1) I of upper flange-section $= 4 \times 1^3/12 = 4/12$
I of web-section $= 1 \times 18^3/12 = 5\,832/12$
I of lower flange-section $= 16 \times 1^3/12 = 16/12$
Total $= 5\,852/12 = 487.6$

(2) Ah^2 for the upper flange $= 4 \times (12.5)^2 = 625$
Ah^2 for the web $= 18 \times 3^2 = 162$
Ah^2 for the lower flange $= 16 \times (6.5)^2 = 676$
Total $= 1\,463$

(3) Total of (1) and (2) $= 487.6 + 1\,463 = I_1$ of compound section $= 1\,950$.

The moment of inertia of the cross-section of any compound beam, therefo can generally be readily found by using the tables of properties of sections whi give the numerical values of I for the various rolled shapes of which the beam is composed, with respect to the axis through the center of gravity.

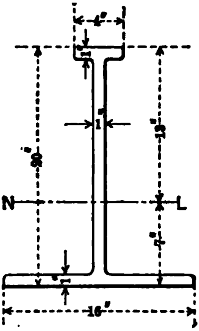


Fig. 2. Moment of Inertia of Cross-section of Cast-iron Lintel

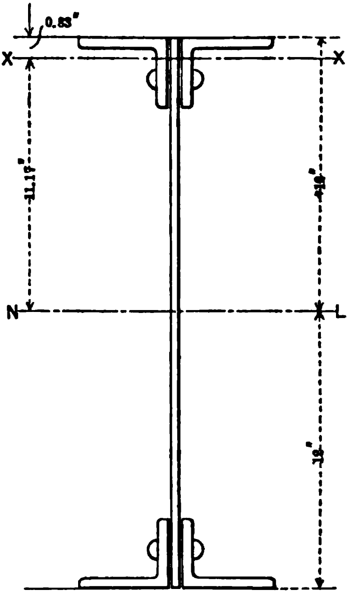


Fig. 3. Moment of Inertia of Cross-section of Plate Girder. No Flange-plates

The Moment of Inertia of a Single-Web Girder-Section. Consider, for example, the single-web girder shown in section in Fig. 3, and made up of one ½ by 24-in web and four 4 by 3 by ½-in flange-angles with the long legs placed horizontally. Turn ing to Table XI, the moment of inertia of the cross-section of one these angles about an axis XX (2–2 in the table) parallel to the lo leg $= 2.4$, and the distance of this axis from the back of the long leg (y in t table) $= 0.83$ in; hence h, the distance between the axis of the angle-secti and the axis of the girder-section $= 12 - 0.83 = 11.17$ in. A, from the ta $= 3.25$ sq in. The moment of inertia of the cross-section of each angle abo the axis of the girder, therefore, from Formula (3), is $I_1 = 2.4 + 3.25 \times (11.17)^2$ 407.9, and for the four angles $= 1631.6$. Since the axis of the cross-section the web-plate is coincident with the axis of the section of the girder, its moment of inertia $= bd^3/12 = \frac{1}{2} \times (24)^3/12 = 576$. This may be found directly from Table I, page 346, Moments of Inertia of Rectangles. The moment of inertia, therefore, of the section of the compound girder $= 1631.6 + 576 = 2207.6$.

The Moment of Inertia of a Section of a Compound Girder with Flange-Plates is found in the same way, except that the moments of inertia of the sections of the flange-plates with respect to the axis of the girder-section must be added to the moments of inertia of the cross-sections of the other members. The girder in Fig. 4 is composed of one 30 by ⅜-in web-plate, four 5 by 4 by 9/16-in angles, with the longer legs horizontal, and two 12 by ½-in flange-plates.

I $(= I_1)$ for cross-section of web (from Table I, page 346) $= 843.75$

I_1 for each angle-section $= I + Ah^2$ (Formula 3)

From Table XI, for each flange-angle, $I = 6.6$, $A = 4.75$ and the perpendicular distance from center of gravity to back of long leg $= 1.10$ in. Hence $h = 15 - 1.10 = 13.90$ in. $I_1 = 6.6 + 4.75 \times (13.90)^2 = 924.35$; and for four angles $= 3\,697.4$. I for the cross-section of each flange-plate $= 12 \times (\frac{1}{2})^3/12 = 0.125$, $A = \frac{1}{2} \times 12 = 6$ sq in and $h = 15 + \frac{1}{4} = 15.25$ in. For each flange-plate, then, $I_1 = 0.125 + 6 \times (15.25)^2 = 1395.125$; and for the two plates, $2\,790.25$. The moment of inertia for the cross-section of the whole girder, therefore, with reference to the horizontal axis passing through the center of gravity of the section $= 843.75 + 3\,697.4 + 2\,790.25 = 7\,331.4$.

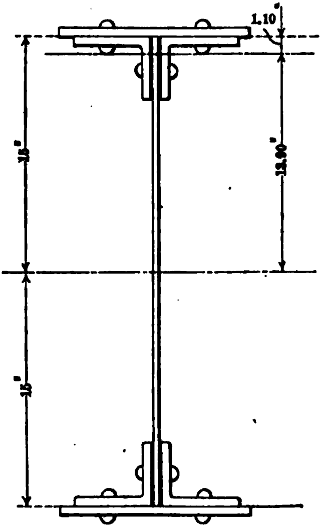


Fig. 4. Moment of Inertia of Cross-section of Plate Girder with Flange-plates

It will be noticed that the moments of inertia of the cross-sections of the flange-plates and angles about their own neutral axes is so small, compared with their moments of inertia about the neutral axis of the girder-section, that they might be omitted without any appreciable error. Therefore, in calculating the moments of inertia for riveted girders, it is the custom of many engineers to let $I_1 = Ah^2$ for flange-plate and angle-sections. In that case, for the girder-section in Fig. 4,

I for web $= 843.75$
I_1 for angles $= Ah^2$ $= 3\,671.00$
I_1 for flange-plates $= Ah^2$ $= \underline{2\,790.00}$
Moment of inertia of entire girder-section $= 7\,304.75$

The Moment of Inertia of a Section of a Box Girder. Let the box girder shown in Fig. 5 be composed of two ⅜ by 30-in webs, two 16 by ½-in flange-plates and four 4 by 3 by ½-in angles with the long legs horizontal.

I for each flange-plate $= bd^3/12 = 16 \times (\frac{1}{2})^3/12 = 0.16$; $A = \frac{1}{2} \times 16$ in $= 8$ sq in and $h = 15 + \frac{1}{4} = 15.25$ in. $I_1 = I + Ah^2 = 0.16 + 8 \times (15.25)^2 = 1\,860.64$; and for the two flange-plates, 3 721.28. I for each angle $= 2.4$, $A = 3.25$ and the distance from the back of the long leg to an axis through the center of gravity of the angle, parallel to the long leg = 0.83 in; so that $h = 15 - 0.83 = 14.17$ in. I_1 for the four angles is $(4 \times 2.4) + (4 \times 3.25) \times (14.17)^2 = 2\,619$. I for each web (Table I, page 346) $= 843.75$ and for the two webs $= 1\,687.5$. The moment of inertia, therefore, for the entire girder-section $= 3\,721.28 + 2\,619 + 1\,687.5 = 8\,027.78$.

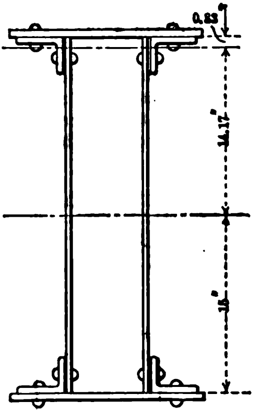


Fig. 5. Moment of Inertia of Cross-section of Plate-and-angle Box Girder

The Moment of Inertia of the Section of a Channel Box Column. Fig. 6 shows the cross-section of a column made up of two 10-in 15-lb channels, set 6.33 in apart, back to back, and two ½ by 12-in side plates. Let it be required to find the moment of inertia of the section about the two axes AB and CD.

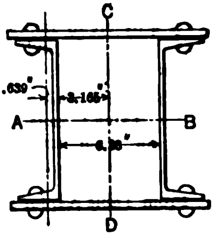


Fig. 6. Moment of Inertia of Cross-section of Plate-and-channel Box Column

(1) Find the moment of inertia about the axis AB. I, for one of the side plates with respect to an axis through its own center of gravity and parallel to $AB = 12 \times (\frac{1}{2})^3/12 = 0.125$, $A = \frac{1}{2} \times 12$-in $= 6$ sq in and the distance of its center of gravity from AB is 5.25 in. Therefore, with respect to AB, $I_1 = 0.125 + 6 \times (5.25)^2 = 165.5$. The moment of inertia of a 10-in 15-lb channel with respect to an axis through its center of gravity and perpendicular to the web (Table VIII, page 359) $= 66.9$. Hence the moment of inertia of the whole column-section with respect to the axis $AB = (2 \times 165.5) + (2 \times 66.9) = 464.8$.

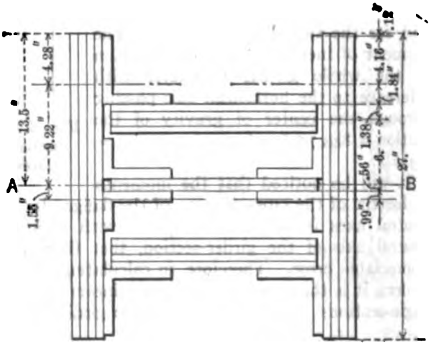


Fig. 7. Moment of Inertia of Cross-section of Three-web Plate-and-angle Box Column

(2) Find the moment of inertia about the axis CD. I, for one of the side plates (Table I, page 346) $= 72$. I, for one of the channels with respect to an axis parallel to the web $= 2.30$, $A = 4.46$ and the distance of the center of gravity from the back of the web = 0.64 in, approximately. Hence $h = 3.165 + 0.64 = 3.8$ in. $I_1 = 2.30 + 4.46 \times (3.8)^2 = 66.7$ and the moment of inertia of the whole column-section with respect to the axis $CD = (2 \times 72) + (2 \times 66.7) = 277.4$.

The Moment of Inertia of the Section of a Heavy Plate-and-Angle Column. Fig. 7 shows the cross-section of one of the basement-columns in the Bankers' Trust Company Building, New York City. It is made up of six flange-plates, each 27 by $\frac{3}{4}$ in section; two flange-plates, each 27 by $\frac{11}{16}$ in; four flange-angles, each 6 by 6 by $\frac{15}{16}$ in; eight outer web-plates, each 18 by $\frac{11}{16}$ in, four web-angles, each 6 by $3\frac{1}{2}$ by $\frac{15}{16}$ in; and two middle web-plates each 18 by $\frac{9}{16}$ in. What is its moment of inertia of the entire column-section with respect to the axis AB?

I for each 27 by $\frac{3}{4}$-in flange-plate (Table I) = 1 230.19
I for six 27 by $\frac{3}{4}$-in flange-plates = 1 230.19 × 6 = 7 381.14
I for each 27 by $\frac{11}{16}$-in web-plate (Table I) = 1 127.67
I for two 27 by $\frac{11}{16}$-in web-plates = 1 127.67 × 2 = 2 255.34
I for both flanges 9 636.48

For the flange-angles (Table XII, page 366) the area of a 6 by 6 by $\frac{15}{16}$-in angle = 10.37, its I with respect to an axis parallel to AB (Fig. 7) and passing through its center of gravity = 33.7 and the distance of this axis from the back of the leg = 1.84 in. Its I_1 with respect to the axis AB is found by Formula (3), page 338, $I_1 = I + Ah^2$. $h = 13.5 - (0.12 + 4.16)$ = the distance from the axis AB to the parallel axis through the center of gravity of the angle = 9.22 in. Hence, substituting in Formula (3),

$$I_1 = 33.7 + 10.37 \times (9.22)^2 = 915.15$$

I_1 for the four flange-angles = 915.15 × 4 = 3 660.60

Each outer web is $4 \times \frac{11}{16}$ in = $2\frac{3}{4}$ in thick. Hence the I for each outer web about the horizontal axis through its center of gravity = $18 \times (2.75)^3/12 = 31.2$. A = 18 by 2.75 in = 49.5 sq in. The distance from its center of gravity to the axis AB is $13.5 - (1.38 + 1.84 + 4.16 + 0.12) = 6.01$ or, say 6 in.

From Formula (3), therefore, $I_1 = 31.2 + 49.5 \times 6^2 = 1\,813.2$ and for both outer webs $I_1 = 1\,813.2 \times 2 =$ 3 626.4

For the four web-angles, from Table XI, page 363, the area of a 6 by $3\frac{1}{2}$ by $\frac{15}{16}$-in angle = 8.03, its I with respect to an axis through its center of gravity and parallel to the long leg = 6.9 and the distance of this axis from the back of the long leg = 0.99 in. h, the horizontal distance between the two axes = $\frac{9}{16}$ in, or 0.5625 in (the thickness of one of the middle web-plates) + 0.99 = 1.55 in, approximately. Therefore, for one web-angle, from Formula (3),

$$I_1 = 6.9 + 8.03 \times (1.55)^2 = 26.17$$

and for the four angles, $I_1 = 26.17 \times 4 =$ 104.68

The middle web-plates are together $\frac{9}{16}$ in × 2 = $1\frac{1}{8}$ in = 1.125 in thick. The I (= I_1) for the two plates is $18 \times (1.125)^3/12 =$ 1.90

The moment of inertia of the entire column-section for the axis AB is, therefore, the sum of these moments of inertia for the different parts:

I_1 for the eight flange-plates	9 636.48
I_1 for the four flange-angles	3 660.60
I_1 for the eight outer web-plates	3 626.40
I_1 for the four web-angles	104.68
I_1 for the middle web-plate	1.90
The moment of inertia for the entire section	17 030.06

5. Radii of Gyration of Compound Sections

The Radius of Gyration of any Compound Section may be found from Formula (2), page 333, by dividing the moment of inertia of the section by the total area of the section and taking the square root of the quotient. Thus, the radii of gyration of the channel-column section shown in Fig. 6, about the axes *AB* and *CD*, are found as follows: A = (the sum of the areas of two ½ by 12-in plates, or 12 sq in) + (the sum of the areas of the two channels, or 8.92 sq in) = 20.92 sq in. I about $AB = 464.8$ and about $CD = 277.4$.

Therefore, r, with respect to the axis $AB = \sqrt{\dfrac{464.8}{20.92}} = 4.71$

and r_1, with respect to the axis $CD = \sqrt{\dfrac{277.4}{20.92}} = 3.68$

Since r_1 is the smaller, it is the value to be used in the column-formula. It is to be noted that this value of r agrees with the r of the 10-in channel-column in Table XXV, on page 533. The value of r_1 does not, however, agree exactly with the r_1 in the same table, the variation being caused by a difference in the spacing of the channels, back to back.

The Least Radius of Gyration of a Section of a Plate-and-Angle Column. As another example, let it be required to find the least radius of gyration of the cross-section of the plate-and-angle column shown in Fig. 8, made up of one ⅜ by 12-in web-plate, two ⅜ by 12-in side plates and 4 by 4 by ½-in angles.

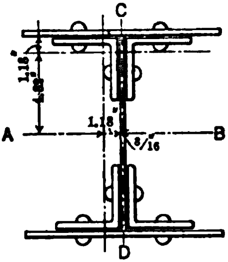


Fig. 8. Moment of Inertia of Cross-section of Plate-and-angle Column

(1) Find the moment of inertia about the axis *AB*. For the axis *AB*, I for each one of the side plates with respect to an axis through its own center of gravity and parallel to the axis $AB = 12 \times (3/8)^3/12 = 0.05$. $A = 3/8 \times 12 = 4.5$ sq in and $h = 6\,3/16$ in. $I_1 = 0.05 + 4.5 \times (6\,3/16)^2 = 172.33$. I for each one of the angles with respect to an axis through its center of gravity and parallel with the flange-leg is 5.6, $A = 3.75$ and the distance of the center of gravity from the back of the flange of the angle = 1.18. Hence, $h = 6$ in $- 1.18$ in $= 4.82$ in and I_1 for each angle $= 5.6 + 3.75 \times (4.82)^2 = 92.71$. I for the web-plate = 54. The moment of inertia of the whole column-section, therefore, about the axis $AB = (2 \times 172.33) + (4 \times 92.71) + 54 = 769.50$.

(2) Find the moment of inertia about the axis *CD*. I for each side plate = 54. I for each angle = 5.6 and A for each angle = 3.75. The distance of the center of gravity of each angle from the back of the flange of the angle = 1.18 in and hence, $h = 1.18$ in + 3/16 in = 1.36 in, approximately. I_1 for each angle $= 5.6 + 3.75 \times (1.36)^2 = 12.54$. I for each web-plate = 0.05. The moment of inertia of the whole column-section, therefore, about the axis $CD = (2 \times 54) + (4 \times 12.54) + 0.05 = 158.21$.

Since this is the least moment of inertia the least radius of gyration will likewise be about the axis *CD*. The area of the cross-section of the column = (4 × 3.75, the area of the angles) + (3 × 4.5, the area of each plate) = 28.5. $r^2 = 158.21/28.5 = 5.55$ and r, the least radius of gyration = 2.35.

The Radius of Gyration of the Cross-Section of a Hollow Rectangular Column. As another example, let it be required to find the radius of gyration of the cross-section of a hollow rectangular cast-iron column with outside dimensions 6 by 6 in and with a shell ¼ in thick. (See figures and formulas for hollow squares and rectangles, page 335.) $A = 6^2 - (5.5)^2 = 36 - 30.25 = 5.75$ sq in. $I = (bd^3 - b_1d_1^3)/12 = [6^4 - (5.5)^4]/12 = (1\,296 - 910)/12 = 386/12 = 32.2$. $r^2 = 32.2/5.75 = 5.6$ and $r = 2.37$ in.

The radii of gyration of round-section columns and square-section columns, varying from 2 to 20 in in diameter and of metal varying from ¼ to 2 in thick, are given in Tables II and III, see pages 348 to 351. For example: the radius of gyration of a 6 by 6-in square-section cast-iron column with a shell ¼ in thick, is, from Table III, 2.35 in.

Table I.* Moments of Inertia of Rectangles

Neutral axis through center and normal to depth

Depth in inches	Widths of rectangles in inches						
	¼	5/16	⅜	7/16	½	9/16	⅝
2	0.17	0.21	0.25	0.29	0.33	0.38	0.42
3	0.56	0.70	0.84	0.98	1.13	1.27	1.41
4	1.33	1.67	2.00	2.33	2.67	3.00	3.33
5	2.60	3.26	3.91	4.56	5.21	5.86	6.51
6	4.50	5.63	6.75	7.88	9.00	10.13	11.25
7	7.15	8.93	10.72	12.51	14.29	16.08	17.86
8	10.67	13.33	16.00	18.67	21.33	24.00	26.67
9	15.19	18.98	22.78	26.58	30.38	34.17	37.97
10	20.83	26.04	31.25	36.46	41.67	46.87	52.08
11	27.73	34.66	41.59	48.53	55.46	62.39	69.32
12	36.00	45.00	54.00	63.00	72.00	81.00	90.00
13	45.77	57.21	68.66	80.10	91.54	102.98	114.43
14	57.17	71.46	85.75	100.04	114.33	128.63	142.92
15	70.31	87.89	105.47	123.05	140.63	158.20	175.78
16	85.33	106.67	128.00	149.33	170.67	192.00	213.33
17	102.35	127.94	153.53	179.12	204.71	230.30	255.89
18	121.50	151.88	182.25	212.63	243.00	273.38	303.75
19	142.90	178.62	214.34	250.07	285.79	321.52	357.24
20	166.67	208.33	250.00	291.67	333.33	375.00	416.67
21	192.94	241.17	289.41	337.64	385.88	434.11	482.34
22	221.83	277.29	332.75	388.21	443.67	499.13	554.58
23	253.48	316.85	380.22	443.59	506.96	570.33	633.70
24	288.00	360.00	432.00	504.00	576.00	648.00	720.00
25	325.52	406.90	488.28	569.66	651.04	732.42	813.80
26	366.17	457.71	549.25	640.79	732.33	823.88	915.42
27	410.06	512.58	615.09	717.61	820.13	922.64	1025.16
28	457.33	571.67	686.00	800.33	914.67	1029.00	1143.33
29	508.10	635.13	762.16	889.18	1016.21	1143.23	1270.26
30	562.50	703.13	843.75	984.38	1125.00	1265.63	1406.25
32	682.67	853.33	1024.00	1194.67	1365.33	1536.00	1706.67
34	818.83	1023.54	1228.25	1432.96	1637.67	1842.38	2047.08
36	972.00	1215.00	1458.00	1701.00	1944.00	2187.00	2430.00
38	1143.17	1428.96	1714.75	2000.54	2286.33	2572.13	2857.92
40	1333.33	1666.67	2000.00	2333.33	2666.67	3000.00	3333.33
42	1543.50	1929.38	2315.25	2701.13	3087.00	3472.88	3858.75
44	1774.67	2218.33	2662.00	3105.67	3549.33	3993.00	4436.67
46	2027.83	2534.79	3041.75	3548.71	4055.67	4562.63	5069.58
48	2304.00	2880.00	3456.00	4032.00	4608.00	5184.00	5760.00
50	2604.17	3255.21	3906.25	4557.29	5208.33	5859.38	6510.42
52	2929.33	3661.67	4394.00	5126.33	5858.67	6591.00	7323.33
54	3280.50	4100.63	4920.75	5740.88	6561.00	7381.13	8201.25
56	3658.67	4573.33	5488.00	6402.67	7317.33	8232.00	9146.67
58	4064.83	5081.04	6097.25	7113.46	8129.67	9145.87	10162.08
60	4500.00	5625.00	6750.00	7875.00	9000.00	10125.00	11250.00

* This table may be used in computing the moments of inertia of plate girders, columns and other compound sections in which plates are used. See pages 341 and 343.

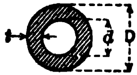
Table I* (Continued). Moments of Inertia of Rectangles

Neutral axis through center and normal to depth

Depth in inches	Widths of rectangles in inches					
	11/16	3/4	13/16	7/8	15/16	1
2	0.46	0.50	0.54	0.58	0.63	0.67
3	1.55	1.69	1.83	1.97	2.11	2.25
4	3.67	4.00	4.33	4.67	5.00	5.33
5	7.16	7.81	8.46	9.11	9.77	10.42
6	12.38	13.50	14.63	15.75	16.88	18.00
7	19.65	21.44	23.22	25.01	26.80	28.58
8	29.33	32.00	34.67	37.33	40.00	42.67
9	41.77	45.56	49.36	53.16	56.95	60.75
10	57.29	62.50	67.71	72.92	78.13	83.33
11	76.26	83.19	90.12	97.05	103.98	110.92
12	99.00	108.00	117.00	126.00	135.00	144.00
13	125.87	137.31	148.75	160.20	171.64	183.08
14	157.21	171.50	185.79	200.08	214.38	228.67
15	193.36	210.94	228.52	246.09	263.67	281.25
16	234.67	256.00	277.33	298.67	320.00	341.33
17	281.47	307.06	332.65	358.24	383.83	409.42
18	334.13	364.50	394.88	425.25	455.63	486.00
19	392.96	428.69	464.41	500.14	535.86	571.58
20	458.33	500.00	541.67	583.33	625.00	666.67
21	530.58	578.81	627.05	675.28	723.52	771.75
22	610.04	665.50	720.96	776.42	831.87	887.33
23	697.07	760.44	823.81	887.18	950.55	1013.92
24	792.00	864.00	936.00	1008.00	1080.00	1152.00
25	895.18	976.56	1057.94	1139.32	1220.70	1302.08
26	1006.96	1098.50	1190.04	1281.58	1373.13	1464.67
27	1127.67	1230.19	1332.70	1435.22	1537.73	1640.25
28	1257.67	1372.00	1486.33	1600.67	1715.00	1829.33
29	1397.29	1524.31	1651.34	1778.36	1905.39	2032.42
30	1546.88	1687.50	1828.13	1968.75	2109.38	2250.00
32	1877.33	2048.00	2218.67	2389.33	2560.00	2730.67
34	2251.79	2456.50	2661.21	2865.92	3070.63	3275.33
36	2673.00	2916.00	3159.00	3402.00	3645.00	3888.00
38	3143.71	3429.50	3715.29	4001.08	4286.88	4572.67
40	3666.67	4000.00	4333.33	4666.67	5000.00	5333.33
42	4244.63	4630.50	5016.38	5402.25	5788.13	6174.00
44	4880.33	5324.00	5767.67	6211.33	6655.00	7098.67
46	5576.54	6083.50	6590.46	7097.42	7604.38	8111.33
48	6336.00	6912.00	7488.00	8064.00	8640.00	9216.00
50	7161.46	7812.50	8463.54	9114.58	9765.63	10416.67
52	8055.67	8788.00	9520.33	10252.67	10985.00	11717.33
54	9021.38	9841.50	10661.63	11481.75	12301.88	13122.00
56	10061.33	10976.00	11890.67	12805.33	13720.00	14634.67
58	11178.29	12194.50	13210.71	14226.92	15243.12	16250.33
60	12375.00	13500.00	14625.00	15750.00	16875.00	18000.00

* This table may be used in computing the moments of inertia of plate girders, columns and other compound sections in which plates are used. See pages 341 and 342.

Table II.* Areas and Radii of Gyration of Hollow-Round Sections



$$\text{Area} = \frac{\pi (D^2 - d^2)}{4} = 0.7854\,(D^2 - d^2) \text{ sq in}$$

$$\text{Radius of gyration} = \frac{\sqrt{D^2 + d^2}}{4} \text{ in}$$

Diam. *D*, inches	*A* and *r*	Thickness *t* in inches							
		¼	5/16	⅜	½	⅝	¾	⅞	1
2	*A*	1.37	1.66	......	......	......	......	......	......
	r	0.63	0.61	......	......	......	......	......	......
3	*A*	2.16	2.64	......	......	......	......	......	......
	r	0.98	0.96	......	......	......	......	......	......
4	*A*	2.95	3.62	4.27	5.50	......	......	......	......
	r	1.33	1.31	1.29	1.25	......	......	......	......
5	*A*	3.73	4.60	5.45	7.07	8.59	10.01	......	......
	r	1.68	1.66	1.64	1.60	1.56	1.53	......	......
6	*A*	4.52	5.58	6.63	8.64	10.55	12.37	14.09	15.71
	r	2.03	2.01	1.99	1.95	1.91	1.88	1.84	1.80
7	*A*	5.30	6.57	7.80	10.21	12.52	14.73	16.84	18.85
	r	2.39	2.37	2.35	2.30	2.27	2.23	2.19	2.15
8	*A*	6.09	7.55	8.98	11.78	14.48	17.08	19.59	21.99
	r	2.74	2.72	2.70	2.66	2.62	2.58	2.54	2.50
9	*A*	6.87	8.53	10.16	13.35	16.44	19.44	22.33	25.13
	r	3.09	3.07	3.05	3.01	2.97	2.93	2.89	2.85
10	*A*	7.66	9.51	11.34	14.92	18.41	21.79	25.08	28.27
	r	3.45	3.43	3.41	3.36	3.32	3.28	3.24	3.20
11	*A*	8.44	10.49	12.52	16.49	20.37	24.15	27.83	31.42
	r	3.80	3.78	3.76	3.72	3.67	3.63	3.59	3.55
12	*A*	9.23	11.47	13.70	18.06	22.33	26.51	30.58	34.56
	r	4.16	4.13	4.11	4.07	4.03	3.99	3.95	3.91
13	*A*	10.01	12.46	14.87	19.63	24.30	28.86	33.33	37.70
	r	4.51	4.49	4.47	4.42	4.38	4.34	4.30	4.26
14	*A*	10.80	13.44	16.05	21.21	26.26	31.22	36.08	40.84
	r	4.86	4.84	4.82	4.78	4.73	4.69	4.65	4.61
15	*A*	11.58	14.42	17.23	22.78	28.23	33.58	38.83	43.98
	r	5.22	5.19	5.17	5.13	5.09	5.05	5.00	4.96
16	*A*	12.37	15.40	18.41	24.35	30.19	35.93	41.58	47.12
	r	5.57	5.55	5.53	5.48	5.44	5.40	5.36	5.32
17	*A*	13.16	16.38	19.59	25.92	32.15	38.29	44.33	50.27
	r	5.92	5.90	5.88	5.84	5.79	5.75	5.71	5.67
18	*A*	13.94	17.36	20.76	27.49	34.12	40.64	47.07	53.41
	r	6.28	6.25	6.23	6.19	6.15	6.10	6.06	6.02
19	*A*	14.73	18.35	21.94	29.06	36.08	43.00	49.82	56.55
	r	6.63	6.61	6.59	6.54	6.50	6.46	6.42	6.37
20	*A*	15.51	19.33	23.12	30.63	38.04	45.36	52.57	59.69
	r	6.98	6.96	6.94	6.90	6.85	6.81	6.77	6.73

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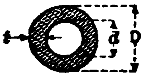
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table II * (Continued). Areas and Radii of Gyration of Hollow-Round Sections



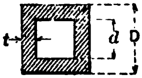
$$\text{Area} = \frac{\pi (D^2 - d^2)}{4} = 0.7854\,(D^2 - d^2) \text{ sq in}$$

$$\text{Radius of gyration} = \frac{\sqrt{D^2 + d^2}}{4} \text{ in}$$

Diam. *D*, inches	*A* and *r*	Thickness *t* in inches							
		1⅛	1¼	1⅜	1½	1⅝	1¾	1⅞	2
2	*A*	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
	r	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
3	*A*	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
	r	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
4	*A*	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
	r	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
5	*A*	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
	r	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
6	*A*	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
	r	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
7	*A*	20.76	22.58	......	......	......	......	......	......
	r	2.12	2.08	......	......	......	......	......	......
8	*A*	24.30	26.51	28.62	30.63	......	......	......	......
	r	2.46	2.43	2.39	2.36	......	......	......	......
9	*A*	27.83	30.43	32.94	35.34	37.65	39.86	......	......
	r	2.81	2.78	2.74	2.70	2.67	2.64	......	......
10	*A*	31.37	34.36	37.26	40.06	42.76	45.36	47.86	50.27
	r	3.16	3.13	3.09	3.05	3.02	2.98	2.95	2.92
11	*A*	34.90	38.29	41.58	44.77	47.86	50.85	53.75	56.55
	r	3.51	3.48	3.44	3.40	3.36	3.33	3.29	3.26
12	*A*	38.44	41.22	45.90	49.48	52.97	56.35	59.64	62.83
	r	3.87	3.83	3.79	3.75	3.71	3.68	3.64	3.61
13	*A*	41.97	46.14	50.22	54.19	58.07	61.85	65.53	69.12
	r	4.22	4.18	4.14	4.10	4.06	4.03	5.99	3.95
14	*A*	45.50	50.07	54.54	58.91	63.18	67.35	71.42	75.40
	r	4.57	4.53	4.49	4.45	4.41	4.38	4.34	4.30
15	*A*	49.04	54.00	58.86	63.62	68.28	72.85	77.31	81.68
	r	4.92	4.88	4.84	4.80	4.76	4.73	4.69	4.65
16	*A*	52.57	57.92	63.18	68.33	73.39	78.34	83.20	87.97
	r	5.27	5.23	5.19	5.15	5.11	5.08	5.04	5.00
17	*A*	56.11	61.85	67.50	73.04	78.49	83.84	89.09	94.25
	r	5.63	5.59	5.55	5.51	5.47	5.43	5.39	5.35
18	*A*	59.64	65.78	71.82	77.75	83.60	89.34	94.98	100.53
	r	5.98	5.94	5.90	5.86	5.82	5.78	5.74	5.70
19	*A*	63.18	69.70	76.13	82.47	88.70	94.84	100.87	106.82
	r	6.33	6.29	6.25	6.21	6.17	6.13	6.09	6.05
20	*A*	66.71	73.63	80.45	87.18	93.81	100.33	106.77	113.10
	r	6.69	6.64	6.60	6.56	6.52	6.48	6.44	6.40

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table III.* Areas and Radii of Gyration of Hollow-Square Sections



Area = $(D^2 - d^2)$ sq in

Radius of gyration = $\sqrt{\dfrac{D^2+d^2}{12}}$ in

Side *D*, inches	*A* and *r*	Thickness *t* in inches							
		¼	5⁄16	⅜	½	⅝	¾	⅞	1
2	*A*	1.75	2.11	......	......	......	......	......	....
	r	0.72	0.70	......	......	......	......	......	....
3	*A*	2.75	3.36	......	......	......	......	......	....
	r	1.13	1.10	......	......	......	......	......	....
4	*A*	3.75	4.61	5.44	7.00	......	......	......	....
	r	1.53	1.51	1.49	1.44	......	......	......	....
5	*A*	4.75	5.86	6.94	9.00	10.94	12.75	......	....
	r	1.94	1.92	1.89	1.85	1.80	1.76	......	....
6	*A*	5.75	7.11	8.44	11.00	13.44	15.75	17.94	20.0
	r	2.35	2.33	2.30	2.25	2.21	2.17	2.12	2.0
7	*A*	6.75	8.36	9.94	13.00	15.94	18.75	21.44	24.0
	r	2.76	2.73	2.71	2.66	2.62	2.57	2.53	2.4
8	*A*	7.75	9.61	11.44	15.00	18.44	21.75	24.94	28.0
	r	3.17	3.14	3.12	3.07	3.02	2.98	2.93	2.8
9	*A*	8.75	10.86	12.94	17.00	20.94	24.75	28.44	32.0
	r	3.57	3.55	3.53	3.48	3.43	3.38	3.34	3.2
10	*A*	9.75	12.11	14.44	19.00	23.44	27.75	31.94	36.0
	r	3.98	3.96	3.93	3.88	3.84	3.79	3.74	3.7
11	*A*	10.75	13.36	15.94	21.00	25.94	30.75	35.44	40.0
	r	4.39	4.37	4.34	4.29	4.24	4.20	4.15	4.1
12	*A*	11.75	14.61	17.44	23.00	28.44	33.75	38.94	44.0
	r	4.80	4.77	4.75	4.70	4.65	4.60	4.56	4.5
13	*A*	12.75	15.86	18.94	25.00	30.94	36.75	42.44	48.0
	r	5.21	5.18	5.16	5.11	5.06	5.01	4.96	4.9
14	*A*	13.75	17.11	20.44	27.00	33.44	39.75	45.94	52.0
	r	5.61	5.59	5.56	5.51	5.47	5.42	5.37	5.3
15	*A*	14.75	18.36	21.94	29.00	35.94	42.75	49.44	56.0
	r	6.02	6.00	5.97	5.92	5.87	5.83	5.78	5.7
16	*A*	15.75	19.61	23.44	31.00	38.44	45.75	52.94	60.0
	r	6.43	6.41	6.38	6.33	6.28	6.23	6.19	6.1
17	*A*	16.75	20.86	24.94	33.00	40.94	48.75	56.44	64.0
	r	6.84	6.81	6.79	6.74	6.69	6.64	6.59	6.5
18	*A*	17.75	22.11	26.44	35.00	43.44	51.75	59.94	68.0
	r	7.25	7.22	7.20	7.15	7.10	7.05	7.00	6.95
19	*A*	18.75	23.36	27.94	37.00	45.94	54.75	63.44	72.0
	r	7.66	7.63	7.61	7.56	7.51	7.46	7.41	7.36
20	*A*	19.75	24.61	29.44	39.00	48.44	57.75	66.94	76.0
	r	8.06	8.04	8.01	7.96	7.91	7.87	7.82	7.77

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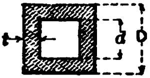
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh,

Table III[*] (Continued). Areas and Radii of Gyration of Hollow-Square Sections



Area = $(D^2 - d^2)$ sq in

Radius of gyration = $\sqrt{\dfrac{D^2 + d^2}{12}}$ in

Side D, inches	A and r	Thickness t in inches							
		1⅛	1¼	1⅜	1½	1⅝	1¾	1⅞	2
2	A	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
	r	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
3	A	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
	r	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
4	A	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
	r	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
5	A	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
	r	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
6	A	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
	r	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
7	A	26.44	28.75	......	......	......	......	......	......
	r	2.44	2.40	......	......	......	......	......	......
8	A	30.94	33.75	36.44	39.00	......	......	......	......
	r	2.84	2.80	2.76	2.72	......	......	......	......
9	A	35.44	38.75	41.94	45.00	47.94	50.75	......	......
	r	3.25	3.20	3.16	3.12	3.08	3.05	......	......
10	A	39.94	43.75	47.44	51.00	54.44	57.75	60.94	64.00
	r	3.65	3.61	3.57	3.52	3.48	3.44	3.40	3.37
11	A	44.44	48.75	52.94	57.00	60.94	64.75	68.44	72.00
	r	4.06	4.01	3.97	3.93	3.88	3.84	3.80	3.76
12	A	48.94	53.75	58.44	63.00	67.44	71.75	75.94	80.00
	r	4.46	4.42	4.37	4.33	4.29	4.25	4.20	4.16
13	A	53.44	58 75	63.94	69.00	73.94	78.75	83.44	88.00
	r	4.87	4.82	4.78	4.74	4.69	4.65	4.61	4.56
14	A	57.94	63.75	69.44	75.00	80.44	85.75	90.94	96.00
	r	5.28	5.23	5.18	5.14	5.10	5.05	5.01	4.97
15	A	62.44	68.75	74.94	81.00	86.94	92.75	98.44	104.00
	r	5.68	5.64	5.59	5.55	5.50	5.46	5.41	5.37
16	A	66.94	73.75	80.44	87.00	93.44	99.75	105.94	112.00
	r	6.09	6.04	6.00	5.95	5.91	5.86	5.82	5.77
17	A	71.44	78.75	85.94	93.00	99.94	106 75	113.44	120.00
	r	6.50	6.45	6.40	6.36	6.31	6.27	6.23	6.18
18	A	75.94	83.75	91.44	99.00	106.44	113.75	120.94	128.00
	r	6.90	6.86	6.81	6.76	6.72	6.67	6.63	6.58
19	A	80.44	88.75	96.94	105.00	112.94	120.75	128.44	136.00
	r	7.31	7.26	7.22	7.17	7.12	7.08	7.03	6.99
20	A	84.94	93.75	102.44	111.00	119.44	127.75	135.94	144.00
	r	7.72	7.67	7.62	7.58	7.53	7.49	7.44	7.39

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[*] From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

6. Dimensions, Moments of Inertia, Radii of Gyration and Section-Moduli of Standard Structural Shapes

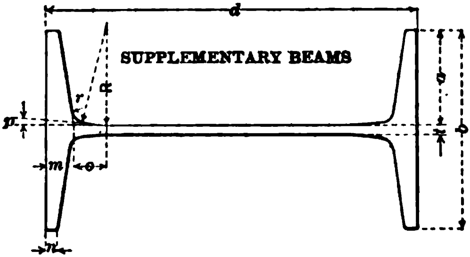
Explanation of Tables. As in using structural-steel shapes the choice is practically confined to such shapes as are rolled by the mills, it is essential to have at hand the dimensions and properties of those shapes in order to calculate the necessary sizes to meet special requirements for strength and practical conditions of economy and framing. Since 1890 great changes have been made both in the materials and in the shapes of the standard sections. The rolling-mills which manufacture the most complete assortment of structural shapes are those of the Carnegie Steel Company, the Cambria Steel Company, the Jones & Laughlin Steel Company and the Bethlehem Steel Company. In general, the products of these mills, especially beams and channels, are respectively similar in shape. This is particularly true of the shapes rolled by the first three of the companies named.

The standard steel beams and channels considered in the following pages are rolled by all of these mills, with the exception of those of the Bethlehem Steel Company. With a few exceptions the following tables of properties of standard structural shapes are adapted from the 1915 edition of the Pocket Companion of the Carnegie Steel Company. It may be well to state that the tables of properties for the various structural shapes, published by the companies named above, do not agree exactly, even for the same weights, but the differences are not of practical importance. The tables of the Cambria Steel Company and of the Carnegie Steel Company for beams and channels agree more closely. As angles are very extensively used for a great many purposes, the properties are given for all sizes rolled and also a table showing from which mills the different sizes may be obtained. Naturally it will generally be advantageous to use a size that is rolled by several mills.

Tables XV, XVI and XVII will be found very convenient when computing the strength of struts formed of pairs of angles, and Table XVIII when computing the same for pairs of channels.

Standard Steel Beams and Channels*

COMMON DIMENSIONS



$b = d/6 + 3$ $\qquad$ $o = 3.82t - 0.10$

$t = 0.01125d + 0.12$ $\qquad$ p, computed

$n = 0.01875d + 0.09$ $\qquad$ $r = 1.48t + 0.02$

$m = n + (b - t)/12$ $\qquad$ $R = 16.78t - 0.66$

Slope of flange, 1 : 6 = $16\frac{2}{3}\%$ = 9° 27′ 42″

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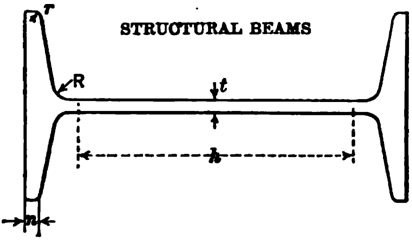
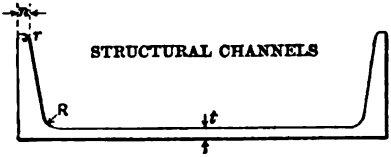
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.



n = minimum web = t
R = minimum web + 0.10
r = $\frac{9}{10}$ minimum web
h = distance between flange-fillets
Slope of flange, 1 : 6 = 16⅔% = 9° 27′ 42″



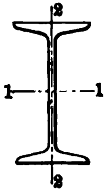
n = minimum web = t
R = minimum web + 0.10
r = $\frac{9}{10}$ minimum web
Slope of flange, 1 : 6 = 16⅔% = 9° 27′ 42″

All dimensions are in inches and apply only to the minimum-weight beams or channels.

Dimensions given for structural beams are those adopted in 1896, by the Association of American Steel Manufacturers and apply to all beam-sections shown on the pages of the Carnegie Steel Company's Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, except the American Standard beam-sections B 1, B 2 and B 3, beam-sections B 24 and B 81, and supplementary beams B 31 to B 38, inclusive.

Dimensions shown for structural channels are those adopted by the Association of American Steel Manufacturers and apply to all structural channel-sections.

Table IV.* Properties of I-Beam Sections

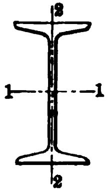


Section-index	Depth of beam	Weight per foot	Area of section	Width of flange	Thickness of web	Axis 1-1			Axis 2-2		
						I	r	I/c	I	r	I/c
	in	lb	sq in	in	in	in⁴	in	in³	in⁴	in	in³
B 31	27	83.0	24.41	7.500	0.424	2888.6	10.88	214.0	53.1	1.47	14.1
B 24	24	115.0	33.98	8.000	0.750	2955.5	9.33	246.3	83.2	1.57	20.8
		110.0	32.48	7.938	0.688	2883.5	9.42	240.3	81.0	1.58	20.4
		105.0	30.98	7.875	0.625	2811.5	9.53	234.3	78.9	1.60	20.0
B 1	24	100.0	29.41	7.254	0.754	2379.6	9.00	198.3	48.6	1.28	13.4
		95.0	27.94	7.193	0.693	2309.0	9.09	192.4	47.1	1.30	13.1
		90.0	26.47	7.131	0.631	2238.4	9.20	186.5	45.7	1.31	12.8
		85.0	25.00	7.070	0.570	2167.8	9.31	180.7	44.4	1.33	12.6
		80.0	23.32	7.000	0.500	2087.2	9.46	173.9	42.9	1.36	12.3
B 32	24	69.5	20.44	7.000	0.390	1928.0	9.71	160.7	39.3	1.39	11.2
B 33	21	57.5	16.85	6.500	0.357	1227.5	8.54	116.9	28.4	1.30	8.8
B 2	20	100.0	29.41	7.284	0.884	1655.6	7.50	165.6	52.7	1.34	14.5
		95.0	27.94	7.210	0.810	1606.6	7.58	160.7	50.8	1.35	14.1
		90.0	26.47	7.137	0.737	1557.6	7.67	155.8	49.0	1.36	13.7
		85.0	25.00	7.063	0.663	1508.5	7.77	150.9	47.3	1.37	13.4
		80.0	23.73	7.000	0.600	1466.3	7.86	146.6	45.8	1.39	13.1
B 3	20	75.0	22.06	6.399	0.649	1268.8	7.58	126.9	30.3	1.17	9.5
		70.0	20.59	6.325	0.575	1219.8	7.70	122.0	29.0	1.19	9.2
		65.0	19.08	6.250	0.500	1169.5	7.83	117.0	27.9	1.21	8.9
B 81	18	90.0	26.47	7.245	0.807	1260.4	6.90	140.0	52.0	1.40	14.4
		85.0	25.00	7.163	0.725	1220.7	6.99	135.6	50.0	1.42	14.0
		80.0	23.53	7.082	0.644	1181.0	7.09	131.2	48.1	1.43	13.6
		75.0	22.05	7.000	0.562	1141.3	7.19	126.8	46.2	1.45	13.2
B 80	18	70.0	20.59	6.259	0.719	921.2	6.69	102.4	24.6	1.09	7.9
		65.0	19.12	6.177	0.637	881.5	6.79	97.9	23.5	1.11	7.6
		60.0	17.65	6.095	0.555	841.8	6.91	93.5	22.4	1.13	7.3
		55.0	15.93	6.000	0.460	795.6	7.07	88.4	21.2	1.15	7.1
B 34	18	46.0	13.53	6.000	0.322	733.2	7.36	81.5	19.9	1.21	6.6
B 5	15	75.0	22.06	6.292	0.882	691.2	5.60	92.2	30.7	1.18	9.8
		70.0	20.59	6.194	0.784	663.7	5.68	88.5	29.0	1.19	9.4
		65.0	19.12	6.096	0.686	636.1	5.77	84.8	27.4	1.20	9.0
		60.0	17.67	6.000	0.590	609.0	5.87	81.2	26.0	1.21	8.7
B 7	15	55.0	16.18	5.746	0.656	511.0	5.62	68.1	17.1	1.02	5.9
		50.0	14.71	5.648	0.558	483.4	5.73	64.5	16.0	1.04	5.7
		45.0	13.24	5.550	0.460	455.9	5.87	60.8	15.1	1.07	5.4
		42.0	12.48	5.500	0.410	441.8	5.95	58.9	14.6	1.08	5.3
B 35	15	36.0	10.63	5.500	0.289	405.1	6.17	54.0	13.5	1.13	4.9

NOTE. The exponential figures used with I and I/c denote the mathematical "dimensions" of these quantities, that is, the number of times the linear unit appears as a factor in the quantities.

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table IV* (Continued). Properties of I-Beam Section

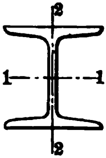


Section-index	Depth of beam	Weight per foot	Area of section	Width of flange	Thickness of web	Axis 1-1			Axis 2-2		
						I	r	I/c	I	r	I/c
	in	lb	sq in	in	in	in^4	in	in^3	in^4	in	in^3
B 8	12	55.0	16.18	5.611	0.821	321.0	4.45	53.5	17.5	1.04	6.2
		50.0	14.71	5.489	0.699	303.4	4.54	50.6	16.1	1.05	5.9
		45.0	13.24	5.366	0.576	285.7	4.65	47.6	14.9	1.06	5.6
		40.0	11.84	5.250	0.460	269.0	4.77	44.8	13.8	1.08	5.3
B 9	12	35.0	10.29	5.086	0.436	228.3	4.71	38.0	10.1	0.99	4.0
		31.5	9.26	5.000	0.350	215.8	4.83	36.0	9.5	1.01	3.8
B 36	12	27.5	8.04	5.000	0.255	199.6	4.98	33.3	8.7	1.04	3.5
B 11	10	40.0	11.76	5.099	0.749	158.7	3.67	31.7	9.5	0.90	3.7
		35.0	10.29	4.952	0.602	146.4	3.77	29.3	8.5	0.91	3.4
		30.0	8 82	4.805	0.455	134.2	3.90	26.8	7.7	0.93	3.2
		25.0	7.37	4.660	0.310	122.1	4.07	24.4	6.9	0.97	3.0
B 37	10	22.0	6.52	4.670	0.232	113.9	4.18	22.8	6.4	0.99	2.7
B 13	9	35.0	10.29	4.772	0.732	111.8	3.29	24.8	7.3	0.84	3.1
		30.0	8.82	4.609	0.569	101.9	3.40	22.6	6.4	0.85	2.8
		25.0	7.35	4.446	0.406	91.9	3.54	20.4	5.7	0.88	2.5
		21.0	6.31	4.330	0.290	84.9	3.67	18.9	5.2	0.90	2.4
B 15	8	25.5	7.50	4.271	0.541	68.4	3.02	17.1	4.8	0.80	2.2
		23.0	6.76	4.179	0.449	64.5	3.09	16.1	4.4	0.81	2.1
		20.5	6.03	4.087	0.357	60.6	3.17	15.2	4.1	0.82	2 0
		18.0	5.33	4.000	0.270	56.9	3.27	14.2	3.8	0.84	1.9
B 38	8	17.5	5.15	4.330	0.210	58.3	3.37	14.6	4.5	0.93	2.1
B 17	7	20.0	5.88	3.868	0.458	42.2	2.68	12.1	3.2	0.74	1 7
		17.5	5.15	3.763	0.353	39.2	2.76	11.2	2.9	0.76	1.6
		15.0	4.42	3.660	0.250	36.2	2.86	10.4	2.7	0.78	1.5
B 19	6	17.25	5.07	3.575	0.475	26.2	2.27	8.7	2.4	0.68	1.3
		14.75	4.34	3.452	0.352	24.0	2.35	8.0	2.1	0.69	1.2
		12.25	3.61	3.330	0.230	21.8	2.46	7.3	1.9	0.72	1.1
B 21	5	14.75	4.34	3.294	0.504	15.2	1.87	6.1	1.7	0.63	1 0
		12.25	3.60	3.147	0.357	13.6	1.94	5.5	1.5	0.63	0 92
		9.75	2.87	3.000	0.210	12.1	2.05	4.8	1.2	0.65	0.82
B 23	4	10.5	3.09	2.880	0.410	7.1	1.52	3.6	1.0	0.57	0.70
		9.5	2.79	2.807	0.337	6.8	1.55	3.4	0.93	0.58	0.66
		8.5	2.50	2.733	0.263	6.4	1.59	3.2	0.85	0.58	0.62
		7.5	2.21	2.660	0.190	6.0	1.64	3.0	0.77	0.59	0.58
B 77	3	7.5	2.21	2.521	0.361	2.9	1.15	1.9	0.60	0.52	0.48
		6.5	1.91	2.423	0.263	2.7	1.19	1.8	0.53	0.52	0.44
		5.5	1.63	2.330	0.170	2.5	1.23	1.7	0.46	0.53	0.40

See "Note" with table on preceding page.

*** From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.**

Table V.[*] Properties of H-Beam Sections



These may be employed as columns, using the axis 2-2

Section-index	Depth of beam	Weight per foot	Area of section	Width of flange	Thickness of web	Axis 1-1			Axis 2-2		
						I	r	I/c	I	r	I/c
	in	lb	sq in	in	in	in^4	in	in^3	in^4	in	in^3
H 4	8	34.0	10.00	8.0	0.375	115.4	3.40	28.9	35.1	1.87	8.8
H 3	6	23.8	7.00	6.0	0.313	45.1	2.54	15.0	14.7	1.45	4.9
H 2	5	18.7	5.50	5.0	0.313	23.8	2.08	9.5	7.9	1.20	3 1
H 1	4	13.6	4.00	4.0	0.313	10.7	1 63	5.3	3.6	0.95	1.8

See " Note " with Table IV, page 354.

[*] From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table VI.* Properties of Bethlehem I-Beam Sections

Depth of beam	Weight per foot	Area of section	Thickness of web	Width of flange	Increase of web and flange for each lb increase of weight	Neutral axis perpendicular to web at center			Neutral axis coincident with center line of web	
						I	r	I/c	I	r
in	lb	sq in	in	in	in	in^4	in	in^3	in^4	in
30	120.0	35.30	0.540	10.500	0.010	5239.6	12.18	349.3	165.0	2.16
28	105.0	30.88	0.500	10.000	0.011	4014.1	11.40	286.7	131.5	2.06
26	90.0	26.49	0.460	9.500	0.011	2977.2	10.60	229.0	101.2	1.95
24	84.0	24.80	0.460	9.250	0.012	2381.9	9.80	198.5	91.1	1.92
24	83.0	24.59	0.520	9.130	0.012	2240.9	9.55	186.7	78.0	1.78
24	73.0	21.47	0.390	9.000	0.012	2091.0	9.87	174.3	74.4	1.86
20	82.0	24.17	0.570	8.890	0.015	1559.8	8.03	156.0	79.9	1.82
20	72.0	21.37	0.430	8.750	0.015	1466.5	8.28	146.7	75.9	1.88
20	69.0	20.26	0.520	8.145	0.015	1268.9	7.91	126.9	51.2	1.59
20	64.0	18.86	0.450	8.075	0.015	1222.1	8.05	122.2	49.8	1.62
20	59.0	17.36	0.375	8.000	0.015	1172.2	8.22	117.2	48.3	1.66
18	59.0	17.40	0.495	7.675	0.016	883.3	7.12	98.1	39.1	1.50
18	54.0	15.87	0.410	7.590	0.016	842.0	7.28	93.6	37.7	1.54
18	52.0	15.24	0.375	7.555	0.016	825.0	7.36	91.7	37.1	1.56
18	48.5	14.25	0.320	7.500	0.016	798.3	7.48	88.7	36.2	1.59
15	71.0	20.95	0.520	7.500	0.020	796.2	6.16	106.2	61.3	1.71
15	64.0	18.81	0.605	7.195	0.020	664.9	5.95	88.6	41.9	1.49
15	54.0	15.88	0.410	7.000	0.020	610.0	6.20	81.3	38.3	1.55
15	46.0	13.52	0.440	6.810	0.020	484.8	5.99	64.6	25.2	1.36
15	41.0	12.02	0.340	6.710	0.020	456.7	6.16	60.9	24.0	1.41
15	38.0	11.27	0.290	6.660	0.020	442.6	6.27	59.0	23.4	1.44
12	36.0	10.61	0.310	6.300	0.025	269.2	5.04	44.9	21.3	1.42
12	32.0	9.44	0.335	6.205	0.025	228.5	4.92	38.1	16.0	1.30
12	28.5	8.42	0.250	6.120	0.025	216.2	5.07	36.0	15.3	1.35
10	28.5	8.34	0.390	5.990	0.029	134.6	4.02	26.9	12.1	1.21
10	23.5	6.94	0.250	5.850	0.029	122.9	4.21	24.6	11.2	1.27
9	24.0	7.04	0.365	5.555	0.033	92.1	3.62	20.5	8.8	1.12
9	20.0	6.01	0.250	5.440	0.033	85.1	3.76	18.9	8.2	1.17
8	19.5	5.78	0.325	5.325	0.037	60.6	3.24	15.1	6.7	1.08
8	17.5	5.18	0.250	5.250	0.037	57.4	3.33	14.3	6.4	1.11

See "Note" with Table IV, page 354.

* Adapted from Catalogue of Structural Shapes, 1909 Edition, Bethlehem Steel Company, Bethlehem, Pa.

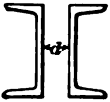
Table VII.* Properties of Bethlehem Girder-Beam Sections

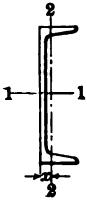
Depth of beam	Weight per foot	Area of section	Thickness of web	Width of flange	Increase of web and flange for each pound increase of weight	Neutral axis perpendicular to web at center			Neutral axis coincident with center line of web	
						I	r	I/c	I	r
in	lb	sq in	in	in	in	in^4	in	in^3	in^4	in
30	200.0	58.71	0.750	15.00	0.010	9150.6	12.48	610.0	630.2	3.28
30	180.0	53.00	0.690	13.00	0.010	8194.5	12.43	546.3	433.3	2.86
28	180.0	52.86	0.690	14.35	0.011	7264.7	11.72	518.9	533.3	3.18
28	165.0	48.47	0.660	12.50	0.011	6562.7	11.64	468.8	371.9	2.77
26	160.0	46.91	0.630	13.60	0.011	5620.8	10.95	432.4	435.7	3.05
26	150.0	43.94	0.630	12.00	0.011	5153.9	10.83	396.5	314.6	2.68
24	140.0	41.16	0.600	13.00	0.012	4201.4	10.10	350.1	346.9	2.90
24	120.0	35.38	0.530	12.00	0.012	3607.3	10.10	300.6	249.4	2.66
20	140.0	41.19	0.640	12.50	0.015	2934.7	8.44	293.5	348.9	2.91
20	112.0	32.81	0.550	12.00	0.015	2342.1	8.45	234.2	239.3	2.70
18	92.0	27.12	0.480	11.50	0.016	1591.4	7.66	176.8	182.6	2.59
15	140.0	41.27	0.800	11.75	0.020	1592.7	6.21	212.4	331.0	2.83
15	104.0	30.50	0.600	11.25	0.020	1220.1	6.32	162.7	213.0	2.64
15	73.0	21.49	0.430	10.50	0.020	883.4	6.41	117.8	123.2	2.39
12	70.0	20.58	0.460	10.00	0.025	538.8	5.12	89.8	114.7	2.36
12	55.0	16.18	0.370	9.75	0.025	432.0	5.17	72.0	81.1	2.24
10	44.0	12.95	0.310	9.00	0.030	244.2	4.34	48.8	57.3	2.10
9	38.0	11.22	0.300	8.50	0.033	170.9	3.90	38.0	44.1	1.98
8	32.5	9.54	0.290	8.00	0.037	114.4	3.46	28.6	32.9	1.86

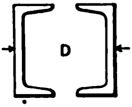
See "Note" with Table IV, page 354.

* Adapted from Catalogue of Structural Shapes, 1909 Edition, Bethlehem Steel Company, Bethlehem, Pa.

Table VIII.[*] Properties of Channel-Sections





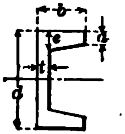


Depth of channel	Weight per foot	Area of section	Width of flange	Thickness of web	Axis 1-1			Axis 2-2			x	D	d
					I	r	I/c	I	r	I/c			
in	lb	sq in	in	in	in⁴	in	in³	in⁴	in	in³	in		
15	55.0	16.18	3.818	0.818	430.2	5.16	57.4	12.2	0.87	4.1	0.82	12.82	9.50
	50.0	14.71	3.720	0.720	402.7	5.23	53.7	11.2	0.87	3.8	0.80	12.73	9.43
	45.0	13.24	3.622	0.622	375.1	5.32	50.0	10.3	0.88	3.6	0.79	12.42	9.15
	40.0	11.76	3.524	0.524	347.5	5.43	46.3	9.4	0.89	3.4	0.78	12.23	8.92
	35.0	10.29	3.426	0.426	319.9	5.58	42.7	8.5	0.91	3.2	0.79	12.06	8.71
	33.0	9.90	3.400	0.400	312.6	5.62	41.7	8.2	0.91	3.2	0.79	11.96	8.53
12	40.0	11.76	3.418	0.758	196.9	4.09	32.8	6.6	0.75	2.5	0.72	10.63	7.67
	35.0	10.29	3.296	0.636	179.3	4.17	29.9	5.9	0.76	2.3	0.69	10.21	7.36
	30.0	8.82	3.173	0.513	161.7	4.28	26.9	5.2	0.77	2.1	0.68	9.91	7.07
	25.0	7.35	3.050	0.390	144.0	4.43	24.0	4.5	0.79	1.9	0.68	9.73	6.81
	20.5	6.03	2.940	0.280	128.1	4.61	21.4	3.9	0.81	1.7	0.70	9.62	6.60
10	35.0	10.29	3.183	0.823	115.5	3.35	23.1	4.7	0.67	1.9	0.70	9.02	6.33
	30.0	8.82	3.036	0.676	103.2	3.42	20.7	4.0	0.67	1.7	0.65	8.54	5.97
	25.0	7.35	2.889	0.529	91.0	3.52	18.2	3.4	0.68	1.5	0.62	8.28	5.67
	20.0	5.88	2.742	0.382	78.7	3.66	15.7	2.9	0.70	1.3	0.61	8.14	5.40
	15.0	4.46	2.600	0.240	66.9	3.87	13.4	2.3	0.72	1.2	0.64	8.09	5.17
9	25.0	7.35	2.815	0.615	70.7	3.10	15.7	3.0	0.64	1.4	0.62	8.19	5.63
	20.0	5.88	2.652	0.452	60.8	3.21	13.5	2.5	0.65	1.2	0.59	7.98	5.49
	15.0	4.41	2.488	0.288	50.9	3.40	11.3	2.0	0.67	1.0	0.59	7.59	5.12
	13.25	3.89	2.430	0.230	47.3	3.49	10.5	1.8	0.67	0.97	0.61	7.43	4.84
8	21.25	6.25	2.622	0.582	47.8	2.77	11.9	2.3	0.60	1.1	0.59	7.37	4.94
	18.75	5.51	2.530	0.499	43.8	2.82	11.0	2.0	0.60	1.0	0.57	7.07	4.72
	16.25	4.78	2.439	0.399	39.9	2.89	10.0	1.8	0.61	0.95	0.56	6.89	4.54
	13.75	4.04	2.347	0.307	36.0	2.98	9.0	1.6	0.62	0.87	0.56	6.77	4.38
	11.25	3.35	2.260	0.220	32.3	3.11	8.1	1.3	0.63	0.79	0.58	6.71	4.23
7	19.75	5.81	2.513	0.633	33.2	2.39	9.5	1.9	0.56	0.96	0.58	6.53	4.22
	17.25	5.07	2.408	0.528	30.2	2.44	8.6	1.6	0.57	0.87	0.56	6.21	3.99
	14.75	4.34	2.303	0.423	27.2	2.50	7.8	1.4	0.57	0.79	0.54	6.07	3.80
	12.25	3.60	2.198	0.318	24.2	2.59	6.9	1.2	0.58	0.71	0.53	5.99	3.64
	9.75	2.85	2.090	0.210	21.1	2.72	6.0	0.98	0.59	0.63	0.55	5.94	3.48
6	15.5	4.56	2.283	0.563	19.5	2.07	6.5	1.3	0.53	0.74	0.55	5.71	3.52
	13.0	3.82	2.160	0.440	17.3	2.13	5.8	1.1	0.53	0.65	0.52	5.42	3.28
	10.5	3.09	2.038	0.318	15.1	2.21	5.0	0.88	0.53	0.57	0.50	5.29	3.09
	8.0	2.38	1.920	0.200	13.0	2.34	4.3	0.70	0.54	0.50	0.52	5.23	2.91
5	11.5	3.38	2.037	0.477	10.4	1.75	4.2	0.82	0.49	0.54	0.51	4.87	2.79
	9.0	2.65	1.890	0.330	8.9	1.83	3.6	0.64	0.49	0.45	0.48	4.62	2.56
	6.5	1.95	1.750	0.190	7.4	1.95	3.0	0.48	0.50	0.38	0.49	4.51	2.34
4	7.25	2.13	1.725	0.325	4.6	1.46	2.3	0.44	0.46	0.35	0.46	4.04	2.06
	6.25	1.84	1.652	0,252	4.2	1.51	2.1	0.38	0.45	0.32	0.46	3.93	1.96
	5.25	1.55	1.580	0.180	3.8	1.56	1.9	0.32	0.45	0.29	0.46	3.84	1.85
3	6.0	1.76	1.602	0.362	2.1	1.08	1.4	0.31	0.42	0.27	0.46	3.22	1.31
	5.0	1.47	1.504	0.264	1.8	1.12	1.2	0.25	0.42	0.24	0.44	3.12	1.19
	4.0	1.19	1.410	0.170	1.6	1.17	1.1	0.20	0.41	0.21	0.44	3.07	1.07

See "Note" with Table IV, page 354.

[*] Rearranged from Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table IX.* Dimensions of Sections and Weights of Small Grooved Steel Channels



Section-index	Size of section, in	Width of flange, in	Thickness of web, in	Weight per foot, lb
C-164	2⅛	13/16	¼	2.55
C-165	2⅛	¾	3/16	2.09
C-166	2⅛	11/16	⅛	1.63
C-183	2	⅝	¼	2.11
C-184	2	9/16	3/16	1.68
C-185	2	½	⅛	1.26
C-190	1¾	11/16	3/16	1.71
C-191	1¾	⅝	⅛	1.33
C-193	1¾	17/32	5/32	1.33
C-195	1¾	⅜	⅛	0.96
C-197	1½	⅝	3/16	1.47
C-199	1¼	½	⅛	0.93
C-200	1⅛	9/16	3/16	1.12
C-203	1	½	⅛	0.83
C-207	1	25/64	⅛	0.71
C-213	⅞	7/16	⅛	0.66
C-217	⅞	⅜	⅛	0.58
C-219	¾	⅜	⅛	0.54
C-221	¾	11/32	3/32	0.40
C-223	⅝	5/16	⅛	0.43

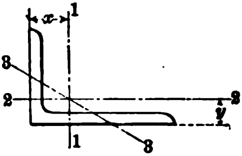
* Rolled by the Jones & Laughlin Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table X. Sizes and Makes of Rolled Steel Angles

The following table has been compiled to show angles of various sizes rolled by different companies. The word "all" indicates that angles of the sizes mentioned are rolled by all the companies included in the list. The abbreviations refer to the following companies: Cam., Cambria Steel Company; Car., Carnegie Steel Company; J. & L., Jones & Laughlin Steel Company.

Angles with unequal legs		Angles with equal legs	
Sizes in inches	Companies	Sizes in inches	Companies
8 ×6	Cam. and Car.	8 ×8	All
8 ×3½	Car.	6 ×6	All
7 ×3½	All	5 ×5	All
6 ×4	All	4½×4½	Cam.
6 ×3½	All	4 ×4	All
5 ×4	All	3½×3½	All
5 ×3½	All	3¼×3¼	J. & L.
5 ×3	All	3 ×3	All
4½×3	Car. and J. & L.	2¾×2¾	Cam. and J. & L.
4 ×3½	All	2½×2½	All
4 ×3	All	2¼×2¼	Cam. and J. & L.
3½×3	All	2 ×2	All
3½×2½	All	1¾×1¾	All
3¼×2	J. & L.	1½×1½	All
3¼×1½	J. & L.	1⅜×1⅜	J. & L.
3 ×2½	All	1¼×1¼	All
3 ×2	All	1 3/16×1 3/16	J. & L.
2½×2	All	1 ×1	All
2½×1¾	J. & L.	¾× ¾	J. & L.
2½×1½	Car. and J. & L.		
2½×1¼	Cam.		
2¼×1⅝	J. & L.		
2¼×1½	Car. and J. & L.		
2 ×1½	Car. and J. & L.		
2 ×1⅜	J. & L.		
2 ×1¼	Car.		
2 ×1	J. & L.		
1¾×1½	J. & L.		
1¾×1¼	Car.		
1¾×1⅛	J. & L.		
1½×1¼	Car.		
1½×1	J. & L.		
1⅜× ⅞	J. & L.		
1 ×13/16	J. & L.		
1 × ⅝	J. & L.		

Table XI.* Properties of Angle-Sections. Unequal Legs.

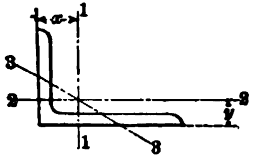


Size	Weight per foot	Area of section	Axis 1-1				Axis 2-2				Axis 3-3
			I	r	I/c	x	I	r	I/c	y	r_{min}
in	lb	sq in	in^4	in	in^3	in	in^4	in	in^3	in	in
8×6 ×1	44.2	13.00	80.8	2.49	15.1	2.65	38.8	1.73	8.9	1.65	1.28
8×6 ×$\frac{15}{16}$	41.7	12.25	76.6	2.50	14.3	2.63	36.8	1.73	8.4	1.63	1.28
8×6 ×$\frac{7}{8}$	39.1	11.48	72.3	2.51	13.4	2.61	34.9	1.74	7.9	1.61	1.28
8×6 ×$\frac{13}{16}$	36.5	10.72	67.9	2.52	12.5	2.59	32.8	1.75	7.4	1.59	1.29
8×6 ×$\frac{3}{4}$	33.8	9.94	63.4	2.53	11.7	2.56	30.7	1.76	6.9	1.56	1.29
8×6 ×$\frac{11}{16}$	31.2	9.15	58.8	2.54	10.8	2.54	28.6	1.77	6.4	1.54	1.29
8×6 ×$\frac{5}{8}$	28.5	8.36	54.1	2.54	9.9	2.52	26.3	1.77	5.9	1.52	1.30
8×6 ×$\frac{9}{16}$	25.7	7.56	49.3	2.55	8.9	2.50	24.0	1.78	5.3	1.50	1.30
8×6 ×$\frac{1}{2}$	23.0	6.75	44.3	2.56	8.0	2.47	21.7	1.79	4.8	1.47	1.30
8×6 ×$\frac{7}{16}$	20.2	5.93	39.2	2.57	7.1	2.45	19.3	1.80	4.2	1.45	1.30
8×3$\frac{1}{2}$×1	35.7	10.50	66.2	2.51	13.7	3.17	7.8	0.86	3.0	0.92	0.73
8×3$\frac{1}{2}$×$\frac{15}{16}$	33.7	9.90	62.0	2.52	12.9	3.14	7.4	0.87	2.9	0.89	0.73
8×3$\frac{1}{2}$×$\frac{7}{8}$	31.7	9.30	59.4	2.53	12.2	3.12	7.1	0.87	2.7	0.87	0.73
8×3$\frac{1}{2}$×$\frac{13}{16}$	29.6	8.68	55.9	2.54	11.4	3.10	6.7	0.88	2.5	0.85	0.73
8×3$\frac{1}{2}$×$\frac{3}{4}$	27.5	8.06	52.3	2.55	10.6	3.07	6.3	0.88	2.3	0.82	0.73
8×3$\frac{1}{2}$×$\frac{11}{16}$	25.3	7.43	48.5	2.56	9.8	3.05	5.9	0.89	2.2	0.80	0.73
8×3$\frac{1}{2}$×$\frac{5}{8}$	23.2	6.80	44.7	2.57	9.0	3.03	5.4	0.90	2.0	0.78	0.74
8×3$\frac{1}{2}$×$\frac{9}{16}$	21.0	6.15	40.8	2.57	8.2	3.00	5.0	0.90	1.8	0.75	0.74
8×3$\frac{1}{2}$×$\frac{1}{2}$	18.7	5.50	36.7	2.58	7.3	2.98	4.5	0.91	1.6	0.73	0.74
8×3$\frac{1}{2}$×$\frac{7}{16}$	16.5	4.84	32.5	2.59	6.4	2.95	4.1	0.92	1.5	0.70	0.74
7×3$\frac{1}{2}$×1	32.3	9.50	45.4	2.19	10.6	2.71	7.5	0.89	3.0	0.96	0.74
7×3$\frac{1}{2}$×$\frac{15}{16}$	30.5	8.97	43.1	2.19	10.0	2.69	7.2	0.89	2.8	0.94	0.74
7×3$\frac{1}{2}$×$\frac{7}{8}$	28.7	8.42	40.8	2.20	9.4	2.66	6.8	0.90	2.6	0.91	0.74
7×3$\frac{1}{2}$×$\frac{13}{16}$	26.8	7.87	38.4	2.21	8.8	2.64	6.5	0.91	2.5	0.89	0.74
7×3$\frac{1}{2}$×$\frac{3}{4}$	24.9	7.31	36.0	2.22	8.2	2.62	6.1	0.91	2.3	0.87	0.74
7×3$\frac{1}{2}$×$\frac{11}{16}$	23.0	6.75	33.5	2.23	7.6	2.60	5.7	0.92	2.1	0.85	0.74
7×3$\frac{1}{2}$×$\frac{5}{8}$	21.0	6.17	30.9	2.24	7.0	2.57	5.3	0.93	2.0	0.82	0.75
7×3$\frac{1}{2}$×$\frac{9}{16}$	19.1	5.59	28.2	2.25	6.3	2.55	4.9	0.93	1.8	0.80	0.75
7×3$\frac{1}{2}$×$\frac{1}{2}$	17.0	5.00	25.4	2.25	5.7	2.53	4.4	0.94	1.6	0.78	0.75
7×3$\frac{1}{2}$×$\frac{7}{16}$	15.0	4.40	22.6	2.26	5.0	2.50	4.0	0.95	1.4	0.75	0.76
7×3$\frac{1}{2}$×$\frac{3}{8}$	13.0	3.80	19.6	2.27	4.3	2.48	3.5	0.96	1.3	0.73	0.76
6×4 ×1	30.6	9.00	30.8	1.85	8.0	2.17	10.8	1.09	3.8	1.17	0.85
6×4 ×$\frac{15}{16}$	28.9	8.50	29.3	1.86	7.6	2.14	10.3	1.10	3.6	1.14	0.85
6×4 ×$\frac{7}{8}$	27.2	7.98	27.7	1.86	7.2	2.12	9.8	1.11	3.4	1.12	0.86
6×4 ×$\frac{13}{16}$	25.4	7.47	26.1	1.87	6.7	2.10	9.2	1.11	3.2	1.10	0.86
6×4 ×$\frac{3}{4}$	23.6	6.94	24.5	1.88	6.2	2.08	8.7	1.12	3.0	1.08	0.86
6×4 ×$\frac{11}{16}$	21.8	6.40	22.8	1.89	5.8	2.06	8.1	1.13	2.8	1.06	0.86
6×4 ×$\frac{5}{8}$	20.0	5.86	21.1	1.90	5.3	2.03	7.5	1.13	2.5	1.03	0.86
6×4 ×$\frac{9}{16}$	18.1	5.31	19.3	1.90	4.8	2.01	6.9	1.14	2.3	1.01	0.87
6×4 ×$\frac{1}{2}$	16.2	4.75	17.4	1.91	4.3	1.99	6.3	1.15	2.1	0.99	0.87
6×4 ×$\frac{7}{16}$	14.3	4.18	15.5	1.92	3.8	1.96	5.6	1.16	1.8	0.96	0.87
6×4 ×$\frac{3}{8}$	12.3	3.61	13.5	1.93	3.3	1.94	4.9	1.17	1.6	0.94	0.88

See "Note" with Table IV, page 354.

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XI* (Continued). Properties of Angle-Sections. Unequal Legs

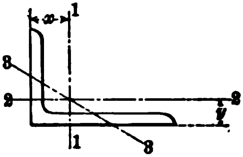


Size	Weight per foot	Area of section	Axis 1-1				Axis 2-2				Axis 3-3
			I	r	I/c	x	I	r	I/c	y	r_{min}
in	lb	sq in	in^4	in	in^3	in	in^4	in	in^3	in	in
6×3½×1	28.9	8.50	29.2	1.85	7.8	2.26	7.2	0.92	2.9	1.01	0.74
6×3½×15/16	27.3	8.03	27.8	1.86	7.4	2.24	6.9	0.93	2.7	0.99	0.74
6×3½×⅞	25.7	7.55	26.4	1.87	7.0	2.22	6.6	0.93	2.6	0.97	0.75
6×3½×13/16	24.0	7.06	24.9	1.88	6.6	2.20	6.2	0.94	2.4	0.95	0.75
6×3½×¾	22.4	6.56	23.3	1.89	6.1	2.18	5.8	0.94	2.3	0.93	0.75
6×3½×11/16	20.6	6.06	21.7	1.89	5.6	2.15	5.5	0.95	2.1	0.90	0.75
6×3½×⅝	18.9	5.55	20.1	1.90	5.2	2.13	5.1	0.96	1.9	0.88	0.75
6×3½×9/16	17.1	5.03	18.4	1.91	4.7	2.11	4.7	0.96	1.8	0.86	0.75
6×3½×½	15.3	4.50	16.6	1.92	4.2	2.08	4.3	0.97	1.6	0.83	0.76
6×3½×7/16	13.5	3.97	14.8	1.93	3.7	2.06	3.8	0.98	1.4	0.81	0.76
6×3½×⅜	11.7	3.42	12.9	1.94	3.3	2.04	3.3	0.99	1.2	0.79	0.77
6×3½×5/16	9.8	2.87	10.9	1.95	2.7	2.01	2.9	1.00	1.0	0.76	0.77
5×4 ×⅞	24.2	7.11	16.4	1.52	5.0	1.71	9.2	1.14	3.3	1.21	0.84
5×4 ×13/16	22.7	6.65	15.5	1.53	4.7	1.68	8.7	1.15	3.1	1.18	0.84
5×4 ×¾	21.1	6.19	14.6	1.54	4.4	1.66	8.2	1.15	2.9	1.16	0.84
5×4 ×11/16	19.5	5.72	13.6	1.54	4.1	1.64	7.7	1.16	2.7	1.14	0.84
5×4 ×⅝	17.8	5.23	12.6	1.55	3.7	1.62	7.1	1.17	2.5	1.12	0.84
5×4 ×9/16	16.2	4.75	11.6	1.56	3.4	1.60	6.6	1.18	2.3	1.10	0.85
5×4 ×½	14.5	4.25	10.5	1.57	3.1	1.57	6.0	1.18	2.0	1.07	0.85
5×4 ×7/16	12.8	3.75	9.3	1.58	2.7	1.55	5.3	1.19	1.8	1.05	0.85
5×4 ×⅜	11.0	3.23	8.1	1.59	2.3	1.53	4.7	1.20	1.6	1.03	0.86
5×3½×⅞	22.7	6.67	15.7	1.53	4.9	1.79	6.2	0.95	2.5	1.04	0.75
5×3½×13/16	21.3	6.25	14.8	1.54	4.6	1.77	5.9	0.97	2.4	1.02	0.75
5×3½×¾	19.8	5.81	13.9	1.55	4.3	1.75	5.6	0.98	2.2	1.00	0.75
5×3½×11/16	18.3	5.37	13.0	1.56	4.0	1.72	5.2	0.98	2.1	0.97	0.75
5×3½×⅝	16.8	4.92	12.0	1.56	3.7	1.70	4.8	0.99	1.9	0.95	0.75
5×3½×9/16	15.2	4.47	11.0	1.57	3.3	1.68	4.4	1.00	1.7	0.93	0.75
5×3½×½	13.6	4.00	10.0	1.58	3.0	1.66	4.0	1.01	1.6	0.91	0.75
5×3½×7/16	12.0	3.53	8.9	1.59	2.6	1.63	3.6	1.01	1.4	0.88	0.76
5×3½×⅜	10.4	3.05	7.8	1.60	2.3	1.61	3.2	1.02	1.2	0.86	0.76
5×3½×5/16	8.7	2.56	6.6	1.61	1.9	1.59	2.7	1.03	1.0	0.84	0.76
5×3 ×13/16	19.9	5.84	14.0	1.55	4.5	1.86	3.7	0.80	1.7	0.86	0.64
5×3 ×¾	18.5	5.44	13.2	1.55	4.2	1.84	3.5	0.80	1.6	0.84	0.64
5×3 ×11/16	17.1	5.03	12.3	1.56	3.9	1.82	3.3	0.81	1.5	0.82	0.64
5×3 ×⅝	15.7	4.61	11.4	1.57	3.5	1.80	3.1	0.81	1.4	0.80	0.64
5×3 ×9/16	14.3	4.18	10.4	1.58	3.2	1.77	2.8	0.82	1.3	0.77	0.65
5×3 ×½	12.8	3.75	9.5	1.59	2.9	1.75	2.6	0.83	1.1	0.75	0.65
5×3 ×7/16	11.3	3.31	8.4	1.60	2.6	1.73	2.3	0.84	1.0	0.73	0.65
5×3 ×⅜	9.8	2.86	7.4	1.61	2.2	1.70	2.0	0.84	0.89	0.70	0.65
5×3 ×5/16	8.2	2.40	6.3	1.61	1.9	1.68	1.8	0.85	0.75	0.68	0.66

See "Note" with Table IV, page 354.

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XI* (Continued). Properties of Angle-Sections. Unequal Legs

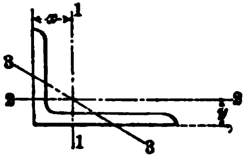


Size	Weight per foot	Area of section	Axis 1-1				Axis 2-2				Axis 3-3
			I	r	I/c	x	I	r	I/c	y	r_{min}
in	lb	sq in	in⁴	in	in³	in	in⁴	in	in³	in	in
4½×3 ×13/16	18.5	5.43	10.3	1.38	3.6	1.65	3.6	0.81	1.7	0.90	0.64
4½×3 ×¾	17.3	5.06	9.7	1.39	3.4	1.63	3.4	0.82	1.6	0.88	0.64
4½×3 ×11/16	16.0	4.68	9.1	1.39	3.1	1.60	3.2	0.83	1.5	0.85	0.64
4½×3 ×⅝	14.7	4.30	8.4	1.40	2.9	1.58	3.0	0.83	1.4	0.83	0.64
4½×3 ×9/16	13.3	3.90	7.8	1.41	2.6	1.56	2.8	0.85	1.3	0.81	0.64
4½×3 ×½	11.9	3.50	7.0	1.42	2.4	1.54	2.5	0.85	1.1	0.79	0.65
4½×3 ×7/16	10.6	3.09	6.3	1.43	2.1	1.51	2.3	0.85	1.0	0.76	0.65
4½×3 ×⅜	9.1	2.67	5.5	1.44	1.8	1.49	2.0	0.86	0.88	0.74	0.66
4½×3 ×5/16	7.7	2.25	4.7	1.44	1.5	1.47	1.7	0.87	0.75	0.72	0.66
4 ×3½×13/16	18.5	5.43	7.8	1.19	2.9	1.36	5.5	1.01	2.3	1.11	0.72
4 ×3½×¾	17.3	5.06	7.3	1.20	2.8	1.34	5.2	1.01	2.1	1.09	0.72
4 ×3½×11/16	16.0	4.68	6.9	1.21	2.6	1.32	4.9	1.02	2.0	1.07	0.72
4 ×3½×⅝	14.7	4.30	6.4	1.22	2.4	1.29	4.5	1.03	1.8	1.04	0.72
4 ×3½×9/16	13.3	3.90	5.9	1.23	2.1	1.27	4.2	1.03	1.7	1.02	0.72
4 ×3½×½	11.9	3.50	5.3	1.23	1.9	1.25	3.8	1.04	1.5	1.00	0.72
4 ×3½×7/16	10.6	3.09	4.8	1.24	1.7	1.23	3.4	1.05	1.3	0.98	0.72
4 ×3½×⅜	9.1	2.67	4.2	1.25	1.5	1.21	3.0	1.06	1.2	0.96	0.73
4 ×3½×5/16	7.7	2.25	3.6	1.26	1.3	1.18	2.6	1.07	1.0	0.93	0.73
4 ×3 ×13/16	17.1	5.03	7.3	1.21	2.9	1.44	3.5	0.83	1.7	0.94	0.64
4 ×3 ×¾	16.0	4.69	6.9	1.22	2.7	1.42	3.3	0.84	1.6	0.92	0.64
4 ×3 ×11/16	14.8	4.34	6.5	1.22	2.5	1.39	3.1	0.84	1.5	0.89	0.64
4 ×3 ×⅝	13.6	3.98	6.0	1.23	2.3	1.37	2.9	0.85	1.4	0.87	0.64
4 ×3 ×9/16	12.4	3.62	5.6	1.24	2.1	1.35	2.7	0.86	1.2	0.85	0.64
4 ×3 ×½	11.1	3.25	5.0	1.25	1.9	1.33	2.4	0.86	1.1	0.83	0.64
4 ×3 ×7/16	9.8	2.87	4.5	1.25	1.7	1.30	2.2	0.87	1.0	0.80	0.64
4 ×3 ×⅜	8.5	2.48	4.0	1.26	1.5	1.28	1.9	0.88	0.87	0.78	0.64
4 ×3 ×5/16	7.2	2.09	3.4	1.27	1.2	1.26	1.7	0.89	0.74	0.76	0.65
4 ×3 ×¼	5.8	1.69	2.8	1.28	1.0	1.24	1.4	0.89	0.60	0.74	0.65
3½×3 ×13/16	15.8	4.62	5.0	1.04	2.2	1.23	3.3	0.85	1.7	0.98	0.62
3½×3 ×¾	14.7	4.31	4.7	1.04	2.1	1.21	3.1	0.85	1.5	0.96	0.62
3½×3 ×11/16	13.6	4.00	4.4	1.05	1.9	1.19	3.0	0.86	1.4	0.94	0.62
3½×3 ×⅝	12.5	3.67	4.1	1.06	1.8	1.17	2.8	0.87	1.3	0.92	0.62
3½×3 ×9/16	11.4	3.34	3.8	1.07	1.6	1.15	2.5	0.87	1.2	0.90	0.62
3½×3 ×½	10.2	3.00	3.5	1.07	1.5	1.13	2.3	0.88	1.1	0.88	0.62
3½×3 ×7/16	9.1	2.65	3.1	1.08	1.3	1.10	2.1	0.89	0.98	0.85	0.62
3½×3 ×⅜	7.9	2.30	2.7	1.09	1.1	1.08	1.8	0.90	0.85	0.83	0.62
3½×3 ×5/16	6.6	1.93	2.3	1.10	0.96	1.06	1.6	0.90	0.72	0.81	0.63
3½×3 ×¼	5.4	1.56	1.9	1.11	0.78	1.04	1.3	0.91	0.58	0.79	0.63
3½×2½×11/16	12.5	3.65	4.1	1.06	1.9	1.27	1.7	0.69	0.99	0.77	0.53
3½×2½×⅝	11.5	3.36	3.8	1.07	1.7	1.25	1.6	0.69	0.92	0.75	0.53
3½×2½×9/16	10.4	3.06	3.6	1.08	1.6	1.23	1.5	0.70	0.84	0.73	0.53
3½×2½×½	9.4	2.75	3.2	1.09	1.4	1.20	1.4	0.70	0.76	0.70	0.53
3½×2½×7/16	8.3	2.43	2.9	1.09	1.3	1.18	1.2	0.71	0.68	0.68	0.54
3½×2½×⅜	7.2	2.11	2.6	1.10	1.1	1.16	1.1	0.72	0.59	0.66	0.54
3½×2½×5/16	6.1	1.78	2.2	1.11	0.93	1.14	0.94	0.73	0.50	0.64	0.54
3½×2½×¼	4.9	1.44	1.8	1.12	0.75	1.11	0.78	0.74	0.41	0.61	0.54

See "Note" with Table IV, page 354.

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa

Table XI * (Continued). Properties of Angle-Sections. Unequal Legs

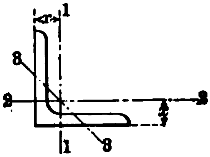


Size	Weight per foot	Area of section	Axis 1-1				Axis 2-2				Axis 3-3
			I	*r*	*I/c*	*x*	*I*	*r*	*I/c*	*y*	*r*min
in	lb	sq in	in⁴	in	in³	in	in⁴	in	in³	in	in
×2½×9/16	9.5	2.78	2.3	0.91	1.2	1.02	1.4	0.72	0.82	0.77	0.52
×2½×½	8.5	2.50	2.1	0.91	1.0	1.00	1.3	0.72	0.74	0.75	0.52
×2½×7/16	7.6	2.21	1.9	0.92	0.93	0.98	1.2	0.73	0.66	0.73	0.52
×2½×⅜	6.6	1.92	1.7	0.93	0.81	0.96	1.0	0.74	0.58	0.71	0.52
×2½×5/16	5.6	1.62	1.4	0.94	0.69	0.93	0.90	0.74	0.49	0.68	0.53
×2½×¼	4.5	1.31	1.2	0.95	0.56	0.91	0.74	0.75	0.40	0.66	0.53
×2 ×½	7.7	2.25	1.9	0.92	1.0	1.08	0.67	0.55	0.47	0.58	0.43
×2 ×7/16	6.8	2.00	1.7	0.93	0.89	1.06	0.61	0.55	0.42	0.56	0.43
×2 ×⅜	5.9	1.73	1.5	0.94	0.78	1.04	0.54	0.56	0.37	0.54	0.43
×2 ×5/16	5.0	1.47	1.3	0.95	0.66	1.02	0.47	0.57	0.32	0.52	0.43
×2 ×¼	4.1	1.19	1.1	0.95	0.54	0.99	0.39	0.57	0.25	0.49	0.43
×2 ×½	6.8	2.00	1.1	0.75	0.70	0.88	0.64	0.56	0.46	0.63	0.42
×2 ×7/16	6.1	1.78	1.0	0.76	0.62	0.85	0.58	0.57	0.41	0.60	0.42
×2 ×⅜	5.3	1.55	0.91	0.77	0.55	0.83	0.51	0.58	0.36	0.58	0.42
×2 ×5/16	4.5	1.31	0.79	0.78	0.47	0.81	0.45	0.58	0.31	0.56	0.42
×2 ×¼	3.62	1.06	0.65	0.78	0.38	0.79	0.37	0.59	0.25	0.54	0.42
×2 ×3/16	2.75	0.81	0.51	0.79	0.29	0.76	0.29	0.60	0.20	0.51	0.43
×2 ×⅛	1.86	0.55	0.35	0.80	0.20	0.74	0.20	0.61	0.13	0.49	0.43
×1½×5/16	3.92	1.15	0.71	0.79	0.44	0.90	0.19	0.41	0.17	0.40	0.32
×1½×¼	3.19	0.94	0.59	0.79	0.36	0.88	0.16	0.41	0.14	0.38	0.32
×1½×3/16	2.44	0.72	0.46	0.80	0.28	0.85	0.13	0.42	0.11	0.35	0.33
×1½×½	5.6	1.63	0.75	0.68	0.54	0.86	0.26	0.40	0.26	0.48	0.32
×1½×7/16	5.0	1.45	0.68	0.69	0.48	0.83	0.24	0.41	0.23	0.46	0.32
×1½×⅜	4.4	1.27	0.61	0.69	0.42	0.81	0.21	0.41	0.20	0.44	0.32
×1½×5/16	3.66	1.07	0.53	0.70	0.36	0.79	0.19	0.42	0.17	0.42	0.32
×1½×¼	2.98	0.88	0.44	0.71	0.30	0.77	0.16	0.42	0.14	0.39	0.32
×1½×3/16	2.28	0.67	0.34	0.72	0.23	0.75	0.12	0.43	0.11	0.37	0.33
×1½×⅜	3.99	1.17	0.43	0.61	0.34	0.71	0.21	0.42	0.20	0.46	0.32
×1½×5/16	3.39	1.00	0.38	0.62	0.29	0.69	0.18	0.42	0.17	0.44	0.32
×1½×¼	2.77	0.81	0.32	0.62	0.24	0.66	0.15	0.43	0.14	0.41	0.32
×1½×3/16	2.12	0.62	0.25	0.63	0.18	0.64	0.12	0.44	0.11	0.39	0.32
×1½×⅛	1.44	0.42	0.17	0.64	0.13	0.62	0.09	0.45	0.08	0.37	0.33
×1¼×¼	2.55	0.75	0.30	0.63	0.23	0.71	0.09	0.34	0.10	0.33	0.27
×1¼×3/16	1.96	0.57	0.23	0.64	0.18	0.69	0.07	0.35	0.08	0.31	0.27
×1¼×¼	2.34	0.69	0.20	0.54	0.18	0.60	0.09	0.35	0.10	0.35	0.27
×1¼×3/16	1.80	0.53	0.16	0.55	0.14	0.58	0.07	0.36	0.08	0.33	0.27
×1¼×⅛	1.23	0.36	0.11	0.56	0.09	0.56	0.05	0.37	0.05	0.31	0.27
×1¼×5/16	2.59	0.76	0.16	0.45	0.16	0.52	0.10	0.35	0.11	0.40	0.26
×1¼×¼	2.13	0.63	0.13	0.46	0.13	0.50	0.08	0.36	0.09	0.38	0.26
×1¼×3/16	1.64	0.48	0.10	0.46	0.10	0.48	0.07	0.37	0.07	0.35	0.26

See "Note" with Table IV, page 354.

* From Pocket Companion, 1913 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XII.[*] Properties of Angle-Sections. Equal Legs

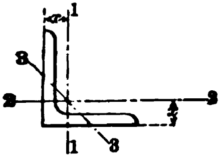


Size	Weight per foot	Area of section	Axis 1-1 and Axis 2-2				Axis 3-3
			I	r	I/c	x	r_{min}
in	lb	sq in	in⁴	in	in³	in	in
8×8×1 1/8	56.9	16.73	98.0	2.42	17.5	2.41	1.55
8×8×1 1/16	54.0	15.87	93.5	2.43	16.7	2.39	1.56
8×8×1	51.0	15.00	89.0	2.44	15.8	2.37	1.56
8×8×15/16	48.1	14.12	84.3	2.44	14.9	2.34	1.56
8×8×7/8	45.0	13.23	79.6	2.45	14.0	2.32	1.56
8×8×13/16	42.0	12.34	74.7	2.46	13.1	2.30	1.57
8×8×3/4	38.9	11.44	69.7	2.47	12.2	2.28	1.57
8×8×11/16	35.8	10.53	64.6	2.48	11.2	2.25	1.58
8×8×5/8	32.7	9.61	59.4	2.49	10.3	2.23	1.58
8×8×9/16	29.6	8.68	54.1	2.50	9.3	2.21	1.58
8×8×1/2	26.4	7.75	48.6	2.51	8.4	2.19	1.58
6×6×1	37.4	11.00	35.5	1.80	8.6	1.86	1.16
6×6×15/16	35.3	10.37	33.7	1.80	8.1	1.84	1.16
6×6×7/8	33.1	9.73	31.9	1.81	7.6	1.82	1.17
6×6×13/16	31.0	9.09	30.1	1.82	7.2	1.80	1.17
6×6×3/4	28.7	8.44	28.2	1.83	6.7	1.78	1.17
6×6×11/16	26.5	7.78	26.2	1.83	6.2	1.75	1.17
6×6×5/8	24.2	7.11	24.2	1.84	5.7	1.73	1.17
6×6×9/16	21.9	6.43	22.1	1.85	5.1	1.71	1.18
6×6×1/2	19.6	5.75	19.9	1.86	4.6	1.68	1.18
6×6×7/16	17.2	5.06	17.7	1.87	4.1	1.66	1.19
6×6×3/8	14.9	4.36	15.4	1.88	3.5	1.64	1.19
5×5×1	30.6	9.00	19.6	1.48	5.8	1.61	0.96
5×5×15/16	28.9	8.50	18.7	1.48	5.5	1.59	0.96
5×5×7/8	27.2	7.98	17.8	1.49	5.2	1.57	0.96
5×5×13/16	25.4	7.47	16.8	1.50	4.9	1.55	0.97
5×5×3/4	23.6	6.94	15.7	1.50	4.5	1.52	0.97
5×5×11/16	21.8	6.40	14.7	1.51	4.2	1.50	0.97
5×5×5/8	20.0	5.86	13.6	1.52	3.9	1.48	0.97
5×5×9/16	18.1	5.31	12.4	1.53	3.5	1.46	0.98
5×5×1/2	16.2	4.75	11.3	1.54	3.2	1.43	0.98
5×5×7/16	14.3	4.18	10.0	1.55	2.8	1.41	0.98
5×5×3/8	12.3	3.61	8.7	1.56	2.4	1.39	0.99
4×4×13/16	19.9	5.84	8.1	1.18	3.0	1.29	0.77
4×4×3/4	18.5	5.44	7.7	1.19	2.8	1.27	0.77
4×4×11/16	17.1	5.03	7.2	1.19	2.6	1.25	0.77
4×4×5/8	15.7	4.61	6.7	1.20	2.4	1.23	0.77
4×4×9/16	14.3	4.18	6.1	1.21	2.2	1.21	0.78
4×4×1/2	12.8	3.75	5.6	1.22	2.0	1.18	0.78
4×4×7/16	11.3	3.31	5.0	1.23	1.8	1.16	0.78
4×4×3/8	9.8	2.86	4.4	1.23	1.5	1.14	0.79
4×4×5/16	8.2	2.40	3.7	1.24	1.3	1.12	0.79
4×4×1/4	6.6	1.94	3.0	1.25	1.0	1.09	0.79

See " Note " with Table IV, page 354.

[*] From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, P

Table XII* (Continued). Properties of Angle-Sections. Equal Legs

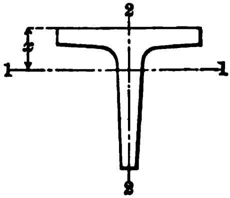


Size	Weight per foot	Area of section	Axis 1-1 and Axis 2-2				Axis 3-3
			I	r	I/c	x	r_{min}
in	lb	sq in	in⁴	in	in³	in	in
3½×3½×13/16	17.1	5.03	5.3	1.02	2.3	1.17	0.67
3½×3½×¾	16.0	4.69	5.0	1.03	2.1	1.15	0.67
3½×3½×11/16	14.8	4.34	4.7	1.04	2.0	1.12	0.67
3½×3½×⅝	13.6	3.98	4.3	1.04	1.8	1.10	0.68
3½×3½×9/16	12.4	3.62	4.0	1.05	1.6	1.08	0.68
3½×3½×½	11.1	3.25	3.6	1.06	1.5	1.06	0.68
3½×3½×7/16	9.8	2.87	3.3	1.07	1.3	1.04	0.68
3½×3½×⅜	8.5	2.48	2.9	1.07	1.2	1.01	0.69
3½×3½×5/16	7.2	2.09	2.5	1.08	0.98	0.99	0.69
3½×3½×¼	5.8	1.69	2.0	1.09	0.79	0.97	0.69
3×3 ×⅝	11.5	3.36	2.6	0.88	1.3	0.98	0.57
3×3 ×9/16	10.4	3.06	2.4	0.89	1.2	0.95	0.58
3×3 ×½	9.4	2.75	2.2	0.90	1.1	0.93	0.58
3×3 ×7/16	8.3	2.43	2.0	0.91	0.95	0.91	0.58
3×3 ×⅜	7.2	2.11	1.8	0.91	0.83	0.89	0.58
3×3 ×5/16	6.1	1.78	1.5	0.92	0.71	0.87	0.59
3×3 ×¼	4.9	1.44	1.2	0.93	0.58	0.84	0.59
2½×2½×½	7.7	2.25	1.2	0.74	0.73	0.81	0.47
2½×2½×7/16	6.8	2.00	1.1	0.75	0.65	0.78	0.48
2½×2½×⅜	5.9	1.73	0.98	0.75	0.57	0.76	0.48
2½×2½×5/16	5.0	1.47	0.85	0.76	0.48	0.74	0.49
2½×2½×¼	4.1	1.19	0.70	0.77	0.39	0.72	0.49
2½×2½×3/16	3.07	0.90	0.55	0.78	0.30	0.69	0.49
2½×2½×⅛	2.08	0.61	0.38	0.79	0.20	0.67	0.50
2×2 ×7/16	5.3	1.56	0.54	0.59	0.40	0.66	0.39
2×2 ×⅜	4.7	1.36	0.48	0.59	0.35	0.64	0.39
2×2 ×5/16	3.92	1.15	0.42	0.60	0.30	0.61	0.39
2×2 ×¼	3.19	0.94	0.35	0.61	0.25	0.59	0.39
2×2 ×3/16	2.44	0.71	0.28	0.62	0.19	0.57	0.40
2×2 ×⅛	1.65	0.48	0.19	0.63	0.13	0.55	0.40
1¾×1¾×7/16	4.6	1.34	0.35	0.51	0.30	0.59	0.33
1¾×1¾×⅜	3.99	1.17	0.31	0.51	0.26	0.57	0.34
1¾×1¾×5/16	3.39	1.00	0.27	0.52	0.23	0.55	0.34
1¾×1¾×¼	2.77	0.81	0.23	0.53	0.19	0.53	0.34
1¾×1¾×3/16	2.12	0.62	0.18	0.54	0.14	0.51	0.35
1¾×1¾×⅛	1.44	0.42	0.13	0.55	0.10	0.48	0.35
1½×1½×⅜	3.35	0.98	0.19	0.44	0.19	0.51	0.29
1½×1½×5/16	2.86	0.84	0.16	0.44	0.16	0.49	0.29
1½×1½×¼	2.34	0.69	0.14	0.45	0.13	0.47	0.29
1½×1½×3/16	1.80	0.53	0.11	0.46	0.10	0.44	0.29
1½×1½×⅛	1.23	0.36	0.08	0.46	0.07	0.42	0.30
1¼×1¼×5/16	2.33	0.68	0.09	0.36	0.11	0.42	0.24
1¼×1¼×¼	1.92	0.56	0.08	0.37	0.09	0.40	0.24
1¼×1¼×3/16	1.48	0.43	0.06	0.38	0.07	0.38	0.24
1¼×1¼×⅛	1.01	0.30	0.04	0.38	0.05	0.35	0.25
1×1 ×¼	1.49	0.44	0.04	0.29	0.06	0.34	0.19
1×1 ×3/16	1.16	0.34	0.03	0.30	0.04	0.32	0.19
1×1 ×⅛	0.80	0.23	0.02	0.31	0.03	0.30	0.19

*See "Note" with Table IV, page 354.

†From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XIII.* Properties of ⊤ Sections. Flange and Stem Equal

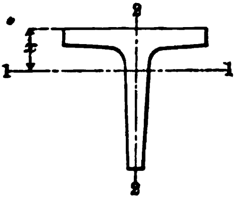


Size				Weight per foot	Area of section	Axis 1-1				Axis 2-2		
Flange	Stem	Minimum thickness				*I*	*r*	*I/c*	*x*	*I*	*r*	*I/c*
		Flange	Stem									
in	in	in	in	lb	sq in	in^4	in	in^3	in	in^4	in	in^3
4	4	½	½	13.5	3.97	5.7	1.20	2.0	1.18	2.8	0.84	1.4
4	4	⅜	⅜	10.5	3.09	4.5	1.21	1.6	1.13	2.1	0.83	1.1
3½	3½	½	½	11.7	3.44	3.7	1.04	1.5	1.05	1.9	0.74	1.1
3½	3½	⅜	⅜	9.2	2.68	3.0	1.05	1.2	1.01	1.4	0.73	0.81
3	3	½	½	9.9	2.91	2.3	0.88	1.1	0.93	1.2	0.64	0.8
3	3	7/16	7/16	8.9	2.59	2.1	0.89	0.98	0.91	1.0	0.63	0.7
3	3	⅜	⅜	7.8	2.27	1.8	0.90	0.86	0.88	0.90	0.63	0.6
3	3	5/16	5/16	6.7	1.95	1.6	0.90	0.74	0.86	0.75	0.62	0.5
2½	2½	⅜	⅜	6.4	1.87	1.0	0.74	0.59	0.76	0.52	0.53	0.4
2½	2½	5/16	5/16	5.5	1.60	0.88	0.74	0.50	0.74	0.44	0.52	0.3
2¼	2¼	5/16	5/16	4.9	1.43	0.65	0.67	0.41	0.68	0.33	0.48	0.2
2¼	2¼	¼	¼	4.1	1.19	0.52	0.66	0.32	0.65	0.25	0.46	0.2
2	2	5/16	5/16	4.3	1.26	0.44	0.59	0.31	0.61	0.23	0.43	0 2
2	2	¼	¼	3.56	1.05	0.37	0.59	0.26	0.59	0.18	0.42	0.1
1¾	1¾	¼	¼	3.09	0.91	0.23	0.51	0.19	0.54	0.12	0.37	0.1
1½	1½	¼	¼	2.47	0.73	0.15	0.45	0.14	0.47	0.08	0.32	0 1
1½	1½	3/16	3/16	1.94	0.57	0.11	0.45	0.11	0.44	0.06	0.32	0.0
1¼	1¼	¼	¼	2.02	0.59	0.08	0.37	0.10	0.40	0.05	0.28	0.0
1¼	1¼	3/16	3/16	1.59	0.47	0.06	0.37	0.07	0.38	0.03	0.27	0.0
1	1	3/16	3/16	1.25	0.37	0.03	0.29	0.05	0.32	0.02	0.22	0.0
1	1	⅛	⅛	0.89	0.26	0.02	0.30	0.03	0.29	0.01	0.21	0.0

See " Note " with Table IV, page 354.

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, P

Table XIV.* Properties of T Sections. Flange and Stem Unequal



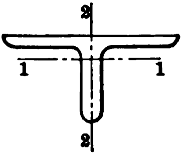
Size					Axis 1-1				Axis 2-2		
Stem	Minimum thickness		Weight per foot	Area of section	I	r	I/c	x	I	r	I/c
	Flange	Stem									
in	in	in	lb	sq in	in⁴	in	in³	in	in⁴	in	in³
3	½	13/32	13.4	3.93	2.4	0.78	1.1	0.73	5.4	1.17	2.2
2½	⅜	7/16	10.9	3.18	1.5	0.68	0.78	0.63	4.1	1.14	1.6
3½	7/16	11/16	15.7	4.60	5.1	1.05	2.1	1.11	3.7	0.90	1.7
3	⅜	⅜	9.8	2.88	2.1	0.84	0.91	0.74	3.0	1.02	1.3
3	5/16	5/16	8.4	2.46	1.8	0.85	0.78	0.71	2.5	1.01	1.1
2½	⅜	⅜	9.2	2.68	1.2	0.67	0.63	0.59	3.0	1.05	1.3
2½	5/16	5/16	7.8	2.29	1.0	0.68	0.54	0.57	2.5	1.05	1.1
5	½	½	15.3	4.50	10.8	1.55	3.1	1.56	2.8	0.79	1.4
5	⅜	⅜	11.9	3.49	8.5	1.56	2.4	1.51	2.1	0.78	1.1
4½	½	½	14.4	4.23	7.9	1.37	2.5	1.37	2.8	0.81	1.4
4½	⅜	⅜	11.2	3.29	6.3	1.39	2.0	1.31	2.1	0.80	1.1
3	⅜	⅜	9.2	2.68	2.0	0.86	0.90	0.78	2.1	0.89	1.1
3	5/16	5/16	7.8	2.29	1.7	0.87	0.77	0.75	1.8	0.88	0.88
2½	⅜	⅜	8.5	2.48	1.2	0.69	0.62	0.62	2.1	0.92	1.0
2½	5/16	5/16	7.2	2.12	1.0	0.69	0.53	0.60	1.8	0.91	0.88
2	⅜	⅜	7.8	2.27	0.60	0.52	0.40	0.48	2.1	0.96	1.1
2	5/16	5/16	6.7	1.95	0.53	0.52	0.34	0.46	1.8	0.95	0.88
4	½	½	12.6	3.70	5.5	1.21	2.0	1.24	1.9	0.72	1.1
4	⅜	⅜	9.8	2.88	4.3	1.23	1.5	1.19	1.4	0.70	0.81
3	½	½	10.8	3.17	2.4	0.87	1.1	0.88	1.9	0.77	1.1
3	⅜	⅜	8.5	2.48	1.9	0.88	0.89	0.83	1.4	0.75	0.81
3	5/16	⅜	7.5	2.20	1.8	0.91	0.85	0.85	1.2	0.74	0.68
4	½	½	11.7	3.44	5.2	1.23	1.9	1.32	1.2	0.59	0.81
4	7/16	7/16	10.5	3.06	4.7	1.23	1.7	1.29	1.1	0.59	0.70
4	⅜	⅜	9.2	2.68	4.1	1.24	1.5	1.27	0.90	0.58	0.60
3½	½	½	10.8	3.17	3.5	1.06	1.5	1.12	1.2	0.62	0.80
3½	7/16	7/16	9.7	2.83	3.2	1.06	1.3	1.10	1.0	0.60	0.69
3½	⅜	⅜	8.5	2.48	2.8	1.07	1.2	1.07	0.93	0.61	0.62
2½	⅜	⅜	7.1	2.07	1.1	0.72	0.60	0.71	0.89	0.66	0.59
2½	5/16	5/16	6.1	1.77	0.94	0.73	0.52	0.68	0.75	0.65	0.50
3	⅜	⅜	7.1	2.07	1.7	0.91	0.84	0.95	0.53	0.51	0.42
3	5/16	5/16	6.1	1.77	1.5	0.92	0.72	0.92	0.44	0.50	0.35
1¼	3/16	3/16	2.87	0.84	0.08	0.31	0.09	0.32	0.29	0.58	0.23
1½	¼	¼	3.09	0.91	0.16	0.42	0.15	0.42	0.18	0.45	0.18
2	3/16	3/16	2.45	0.72	0.27	0.61	0.19	0.63	0.06	0.92	0.08
1¼	⅛	⅛	1.25	0.37	0.05	0.37	0.05	0.33	0.04	0.32	0.05
⅝	No. 9	⅛	0.88	0.26	0.01	0.16	0.01	0.16	0.02	0.31	0.04

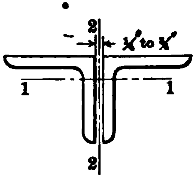
See "Note" with Table IV, page 354.

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XV.* Properties of Double-Angle Sections. Equal Legs

ANGLES PLACED BACK TO BACK





Single angle		Two angles	Radii of gyration, *r*, in inches					
				Axis 2-2				
Size, in	Weight per foot, lb	Area, sq in	Axis 1-1	In contact	¼-in apart	⅜-in apart	½-in apart	¾-in apart
8 × 8 × 1 1/8	56.9	33.46	2.42	3.42	3.51	3.55	3.60	3.69
13/16	42.0	24.68	2.46	3.37	3.46	3.50	3.55	3.64
½	26.4	15.51	2.51	3.33	3.41	3.45	3.50	3.59
6 × 6 × 1	37.4	22.00	1.80	2.59	2.68	2.72	2.77	2.87
11/16	26.5	15.56	1.83	2.54	2.63	2.67	2.71	2.81
⅜	14.9	8.72	1.88	2.49	2.58	2.62	2.66	2.75
5 × 5 × 1	30.6	18.00	1.48	2.19	2.28	2.33	2.38	2.47
11/16	21.8	12.80	1.51	2.13	2.22	2.26	2.31	2.40
⅜	12.3	7.22	1.56	2.09	2.17	2.21	2.26	2.35
4 × 4 × 13/16	19.9	11.68	1.18	1.75	1.85	1.89	1.94	2.04
¼	6.6	3.88	1.25	1.66	1.75	1.79	1.84	1.93
3½ × 3½ × 13/16	17.1	10.06	1.02	1.55	1.65	1.70	1.75	1.85
¼	5.8	3.38	1.09	1.46	1.55	1.59	1.64	1.73
3 × 3 × ⅝	11.5	6.72	0.88	1.32	1.41	1.46	1.51	1.61
¼	4.9	2.88	0.93	1.25	1.34	1.38	1.43	1.53
2½ × 2½ × ½	7.7	4.50	0.74	1.09	1.19	1.24	1.29	1.39
¼	4.1	2.38	0.77	1.05	1.14	1.19	1.24	1.34
2 × 2 × 7/16	5.3	3.12	0.59	0.88	0.98	1.03	1.08	1.19
¼	3.19	1.88	0.61	0.85	0.94	0.99	1.04	1.14

This table and the two following are employed in computing the safe resistance compressive stress of two angles, back to back, used as struts or as the compressio chords of roof-trusses, etc., by the following rule:

Obtain from the compression-formula in use the allowed stress per square in corresponding to the ratio of slenderness of the section, and multiply that value the area. The result will be the allowable compressive stress.

Example 1. Section given. Required the safe load in compression, as per formu $S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$, on a strut composed of two angles, 4 by 4 by ¼ in, back to bac with an unsupported length of 9 ft.

Area of section, $A = 3.88$ sq in; least radius of gyration, $r = 1.25$ in.
Ratio of slenderness, $l/r = 9 \times 12 \div 1.25 = 86.4$.
Allowed unit stress, $S = 19\,000 - 100 \times 86.4 = 10\,360$ lb per sq in.
Safe load, $AS = 3.88 \times 10\,360 = 40\,200$ lb.

Example 2. Stress given. Required a section for a member in compressio 12 ft 3 in long, made of two angles separated by ½-in gusset-plates, to resist a tot stress of 35 000 lb; ratio of slenderness not to exceed 120.

Assume two angles, 5 by 3 by 5/16 in, long legs back to back.
Area of section, $A = 4.80$ sq in; least radius of gyration, $r = 1.26$ in.
Ratio of slenderness, $l/r = 12.25 \times 12 \div 1.26 = 116.7$.
Allowed unit stress, $S = 19\,000 - 100 \times 116.7 = 7\,330$ lb per sq in.
Safe load, $AS = 4.80 \times 7\,330 = 35\,200$ lb.

In the first case the least radius of gyration is that about the axis 1-1; in the seco case, about the axis 2-2; in all cases the least radius of gyration determines the ra of slenderness and therewith the allowed safe compressive stress. In all cases, al the two angles are to be secured together by stay-rivets, so spaced as to insure th the section acts as a unit. The ratio of slenderness of any single angle between ri must always be less than that of the strut or compression-chord.

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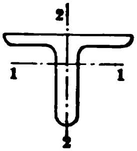
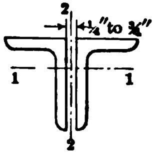
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh.

Table XVI.* Properties of Double-Angle Sections. Long Legs Vertical

ANGLES PLACED BACK TO BACK



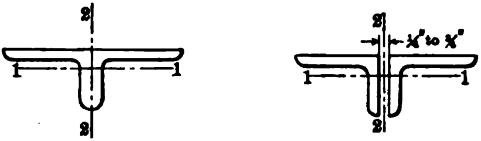


Single angle		Two angles	Radii of gyration, *r*, in inches					
				Axis 2–2				
Size, in	Weight per foot, lb	Area, sq in	Axis 1–1	In contact	¼-in apart	⅜-in apart	½-in apart	¾-in apart
×6 ×1	44.2	26.00	2.49	2.39	2.48	2.52	2.57	2.66
¾	33.8	19.88	2.53	2.35	2.44	2.48	2.52	2.61
7/16	20.2	11.86	2.57	2.31	2.39	2.43	2.48	2.56
×3½×1	35.7	21.00	2.51	1.26	1.35	1.40	1.45	1.55
¾	27.5	16.12	2.55	1.20	1.29	1.34	1.39	1.49
7/16	16.5	9.68	2.59	1.15	1.23	1.28	1.32	1.41
×3½×1	32.3	19.00	2.19	1.31	1.40	1.45	1.50	1.60
11/16	23.0	13.50	2.23	1.25	1.34	1.39	1.44	1.53
⅜	13.0	7.60	2.27	1.20	1.28	1.33	1.37	1.46
×4 ×1	30.6	18.00	1.85	1.60	1.69	1.74	1.79	1.89
11/16	21.8	12.80	1.89	1.55	1.63	1.68	1.73	1.82
⅜	12.3	7.22	1.93	1.50	1.58	1.62	1.67	1.76
×3½×1	28.9	17.00	1.85	1.37	1.47	1.51	1.56	1.66
11/16	20.6	12.12	1.89	1.31	1.41	1.45	1.49	1.60
5/16	9.8	5.74	1.95	1.25	1.33	1.37	1.42	1.50
×4 ×⅞	24.2	14.22	1.52	1.66	1.76	1.80	1.85	1.95
⅜	11.0	6.46	1.59	1.58	1.66	1.70	1.75	1.85
×3½×⅞	22.7	13.34	1.53	1.42	1.51	1.56	1.61	1.71
5/16	8.7	5.12	1.61	1.33	1.41	1.45	1.50	1.59
×3 ×13/16	19.9	11.68	1.55	1.18	1.27	1.32	1.37	1.47
5/16	8.2	4.80	1.61	1.09	1.17	1.22	1.26	1.35
×3 ×13/16	18.5	10.86	1.38	1.21	1.31	1.36	1.41	1.51
5/16	7.7	4.50	1.44	1.13	1.22	1.26	1.30	1.40
×3½×13/16	18.5	10.86	1.19	1.50	1.59	1.64	1.69	1.79
5/16	7.7	4.50	1.26	1.42	1.51	1.55	1.60	1.69
×3 ×13/16	17.1	10.06	1.21	1.25	1.35	1.40	1.45	1.55
¼	5.8	3.38	1.28	1.16	1.24	1.28	1.33	1.43
×3 ×13/16	15.8	9.24	1.04	1.30	1.40	1.45	1.50	1.60
¼	5.4	3.12	1.11	1.20	1.29	1.34	1.38	1.48
×2½×11/16	12.5	7.30	1.06	1.03	1.13	1.18	1.23	1.33
¼	4.9	2.88	1.12	0.95	1.04	1.09	1.13	1.23
×2½×9/16	9.5	5.56	0.91	1.05	1.15	1.20	1.25	1.35
¼	4.5	2.64	0.95	1.00	1.09	1.13	1.18	1.28
×2 ×½	7.7	4.50	0.92	0.80	0.89	0.94	1.00	1.10
¼	4.1	2.38	0.95	0.74	0.84	0.88	0.93	1.03
×2 ×½	6.8	4.00	0.75	0.84	0.94	0.99	1.04	1.15
¼	3.62	2.12	0.78	0.80	0.89	0.93	0.98	1.08

From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XVII.* Properties of Double-Angle Sections. Short Legs Vertical

ANGLES PLACED BACK TO BACK

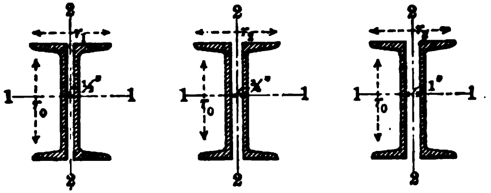


Single angle		Two angles	Radii of gyration, r, in inches					
				Axis 2-2				
Size, in	Weight per foot, lb	Area, sq in	Axis 1-1	In contact	¼-in apart	⅜-in apart	½-in apart	¾-in apart
8 ×6 ×1	44.2	26.00	1.73	3.64	3.73	3.78	3.83	3.92
¾	33.8	19.88	1.76	3.60	3.69	3.73	3.78	3.87
7/16	20.2	11.86	1.80	3.55	3.64	3.68	3.73	3.82
8 ×3½×1	35.7	21.00	0.86	4.04	4.14	4.19	4.24	4.34
¾	27.5	16.12	0.88	3.99	4.09	4.13	4.18	4.28
7/16	16.5	9.68	0.92	3.93	4.02	4.07	4.12	4.22
7 ×3½×1	32.3	19.00	0.89	3.48	3.58	3.63	3.68	3.78
11/16	23.0	13.50	0.92	3.42	3.52	3.57	3.62	3.72
⅜	13.0	7.60	0.96	3.36	3.46	3.50	3.55	3.65
6 ×4 ×1	30.6	18.00	1.09	2.85	2.95	2.99	3.04	3.14
11/16	21.8	12.80	1.13	2.79	2.89	2.93	2.98	3.08
⅜	12.3	7.22	1.17	2.74	2.83	2.87	2.92	3.02
6 ×3½×1	28.9	17.00	0.92	2.92	3.02	3.07	3.12	3.22
11/16	20.6	12.12	0.95	2.87	2.96	3.01	3.06	3.16
5/16	9.8	5.74	1.00	2.81	2.90	2.95	3.00	3.09
5 ×4 ×⅞	24.2	14.22	1.14	2.29	2.38	2.43	2.48	2.58
⅜	11.0	6.46	1.20	2.20	2.29	2.34	2.38	2.48
5 ×3½×⅞	22.7	13.34	0.96	2.36	2.45	2.50	2.55	2.65
5/16	8.7	5.12	1.03	2.26	2.35	2.39	2.44	2.54
5 ×3 ×13/16	19.9	11.68	0.80	2.42	2.52	2.57	2.62	2.72
5/16	8.2	4.80	0.85	2.33	2.42	2.47	2.52	2.61
4½×3 ×13/16	18.5	10.86	0.81	2.15	2.25	2.30	2.35	2.45
5/16	7.7	4.50	0.87	2.06	2.15	2.20	2.25	2.34
4 ×3½×13/16	18.5	10.86	1.01	1.81	1.91	1.96	2.01	2.11
5/16	7.7	4.50	1.07	1.73	1.81	1.86	1.91	2.00
4 ×3 ×13/16	17.1	10.06	0.83	1.88	1.98	2.03	2.08	2.18
¼	5.8	3.38	0.89	1.78	1.87	1.92	1.96	2.06
3½×3 ×13/16	15.8	9.24	0.85	1.61	1.71	1.76	1.81	1.91
¼	5.4	3.12	0.91	1.52	1.61	1.65	1.70	1.80
3½×2½×11/16	12.5	7.30	0.69	1.66	1.75	1.80	1.86	1.96
¼	4.9	2.88	0.74	1.58	1.67	1.71	1.76	1.86
3 ×2½×9/16	9.5	5.56	0.72	1.37	1.46	1.51	1.56	1.66
¼	4.5	2.64	0.75	1.31	1.40	1.45	1.50	1.59
3 ×2 ×½	7.7	4.50	0.55	1.42	1.52	1.57	1.62	1.72
¼	4.1	2.38	0.57	1.38	1.47	1.52	1.57	1.67
2½×2 ×½	6.8	4.00	0.56	1.15	1.25	1.30	1.35	1.46
¼	3.62	2.12	0.59	1.11	1.20	1.25	1.30	1.40

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XVIII. Properties of Double-Channel Sections

STANDARD CHANNELS PLACED BACK TO BACK

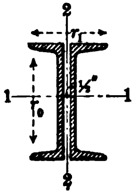


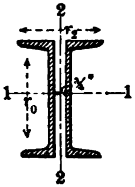
The radii of gyration given correspond to directions indicated by the arrow-heads

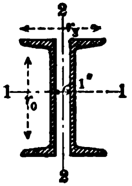
Depth, in	Thickness of web, in	Weight per foot of one channel, lb	Area of two channels, sq in	Radii of gyration, r, in inches			
				Axis 1-1	Axis 2-2		
					½-in apart	¾-in apart	1-in apart
15	0.40	33.00	19.80	5.62	1.38	1.48	1.58
	0.43	35.00	20.58	5.58	1.38	1.47	1.57
	0.52	40.00	23.52	5.43	1.37	1.46	1.56
	0.62	45.00	26.48	5.32	1.37	1.45	1.56
	0.72	50.00	29.42	5.23	1.37	1.46	1.56
	0.82	55.00	32.36	5.16	1.38	1.47	1.58
12	0.28	20.50	12.06	4.61	1.24	1.34	1.44
	0.39	25.00	14.70	4.43	1.21	1.31	1.41
	0.51	30.00	17.64	4.28	1.20	1.30	1.40
	0.64	35.00	20.58	4.17	1.21	1.31	1.41
	1.76	40.00	23.52	0.09	1.23	1.32	1.43
10	0.24	15.00	8.92	3.87	1.14	1.24	1.34
	0.38	20.00	11.76	3.66	1.10	1.20	1.31
	0.53	25.00	14.70	3.52	1.10	1.20	1.31
	0.68	30.00	17.64	3.42	1.12	1.22	1.33
	0.82	35.00	20.58	3.35	1.16	1.26	1.37
9	0.23	13.25	7.78	3.49	1.09	1.19	1.29
	0.29	15.00	8.82	3.40	1.07	1.17	1.28
	0.45	20.00	11.76	3.21	1.05	1.15	1.26
	0.62	25.00	14.70	3.10	1.07	1.17	1.28

Table XVIII (Continued). Properties of Double-Channel Sections

STANDARD CHANNELS PLACED BACK TO BACK







The radii of gyration given correspond to directions indicated by the arrow-heads

Depth, in	Thickness of web, in	Weight per foot of one channel, lb	Area of two channels, sq in	Radii of gyration, r, in inches			
				Axis 1-1	Axis 2-2		
					½-in apart	¾-in apart	1-in apart
8	0.22	11.25	6.70	3.11	1.04	1.14	1.25
8	0.31	13.75	8.08	2.98	1.04	1.14	1.25
8	0.40	16.25	9.56	2.89	1.03	1.14	1.24
8	0.49	18.75	11.02	2.82	1.03	1.14	1.24
8	0.58	21.25	12.50	2.77	1.03	1.14	1.24
7	0.21	9.75	5.70	2.72	0.99	1.09	1.20
7	0.32	12.25	7.20	2.59	0.99	1.09	1.20
7	0.42	14.75	8.68	2.50	0.99	1.10	1.21
7	0.53	17.25	10.14	2.44	1.00	1.10	1.21
7	0.63	19.75	11.62	2.39	1.00	1.10	1.22
6	0.20	8.00	4.76	2.34	0.94	1.05	1.15
6	0.32	10.50	6.18	2.21	0.94	1.05	1.16
6	0.44	13.00	7.64	2.13	0.95	1.06	1.16
6	0.56	15.50	9.12	2.07	0.95	1.06	1.17
5	0.19	6.50	3.90	1.95	0.89	1.00	1.10
5	0.33	9.00	5.30	1.83	0.90	1.00	1.11
5	0.48	11.50	6.76	1.75	0.91	1.01	1.12
4	0.18	5.25	3.10	1.56	0.84	0.95	1.06
4	0.25	6.25	3.68	1.51	0.84	0.95	1.06
4	0.32	7.25	4.26	1.46	0.84	0.95	1.06
3	0.17	4.00	2.38	1.17	0.80	0.91	1.02
3	0.26	5.00	2.94	1.12	0.81	0.92	1.03
3	0.36	6.00	3.52	1.08	0.83	0.93	1.05

CHAPTER XI

RESISTANCE TO TENSION. PROPERTIES OF IRON AND STEEL

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1. Definitions, Working Stresses and Examples

The Ultimate Tensile Strength of a material is the amount of internal stress which a section one square inch in area is capable of exerting against an external axial force. It is the UNIT STRESS or INTENSITY OF STRESS, expressed in pounds per square inch, which the material can withstand. It is often called the ULTIMATE STRENGTH or ULTIMATE STRESS of the material. Its value for any material depends on the tenacity of the fibers or the cohesion of the particles of which the material is composed.

An Axial Force is one which acts uniformly over the section of a prismatic body so that the resultant of the distributed forces coincides with the axis of the body. Hence the total AXIAL FORCE which any cross-section of a body will resist is the product of the ultimate strength of the material and the area of the cross-section, in square inches.

Safe Working Stress. The ultimate strength of different building materials has been found by pulling apart bars of known dimensions and dividing the maximum load each sustained by the area of the bar before testing. This ultimate strength, however, must not be used to proportion the size of members of structures, because of variations in material, hidden defects and imperfect workmanship; and, especially, because of indefiniteness as to the maximum load that may be imposed on the structure. To provide safety against the rupture of a member and the consequent failure of the structure from any of these causes, the proportions of the members must be based on SAFE WORKING STRESSES which are usually some fractional part of the ultimate strength found by experiment to provide proper security against failure.

The Factor of Safety is the ratio of the ultimate strength to this safe working stress for that material. Its value ranges generally from 2 to 10, depending upon the nature of the material and the service to which it is applied.

Safe Working Stress in Tension. Table I gives these values for various building materials. The total SAFE LOAD that may be applied to a piece of material of uniform section is found by multiplying the cross-section of the piece, in square inches, by the safe working stress opposite the name of the material of which the piece is composed.

Then if P = the safe load in lb,
S_t = the allowable safe working stress in tension,
b = the width of a rectangular bar,
h = the depth of a rectangular bar,
d = the diameter of a round bar,

there results, for a rectangular bar,

$$P = bhS_t \tag{1}$$

and for a round bar,

$$P = 0.7854\, d^2 S_t \tag{2}$$

The area of cross-section to support a load P is, for a rectangular bar,

$$A = \frac{P}{S_t} \tag{3}$$

and for a round bar

$$d = \sqrt{\frac{P}{0.7854\,S_t}} \tag{4}$$

Table I. Safe Working Stress in Tension for Building Materials

Material	Safe stress lb per sq in (S_t)
Cast iron (New York City)	3 000
Wrought iron	12 000
Steel, medium	16 000
Chestnut	850
Hemlock (New York City)	600
Pine, long-leaf yellow	1 200
Pine, Douglas fir	800
Pine, Norway	800
Pine, white	700
Redwood	700
Spruce	800

Except where noted, the above values are in accordance with the recommendations of the Association of Railway Superintendents.

Example 1. What size of medium-steel angle should be used to sustain a tensile force of 64 000 lb?

Answer. By formula (3),

$$\text{the net sectional area} = \frac{64\,000}{16\,000} = 4.00 \text{ sq in}$$

From the Table of the Properties of Angles (Chapter X) we find that a 4 by 4 by ⅝-in angle has an area of 4.61 sq in, which is to be reduced by a ⅞-in hole for a ¾-in rivet, leaving 4.61 − (⅞ × ⅝) = 4.06 sq in, net area. This is slightly in excess of the required amount.

The SAFE LOAD for angles commonly used in roof-trusses is given in Table X; and the REDUCTION IN SECTIONAL AREA caused by rivet-holes, in Table XI, this chapter, and in Table I, Chapter XX. See, also, Chapter XII, page 414, paragraph on Punching Rivet-Holes.

Example 2. What size of white-pine tie-beam should be used to sustain a tensile force of 60 000 lb?

Answer. By formula (3),

$$\text{the net sectional area} = \frac{60\,000}{700} = 85.7 \text{ sq in}$$

If the depth is taken at 12 in, the net width must be $\frac{85.7}{12} = 7.2$ in. Allowance must be made for the increase in tension on the lower side of the beam, due to its own weight, and also for any cutting that may be necessary in making the connections or holes for truss-rods. If there is a 2-in hole through the beam, a

10 by 12-in timber must be used. This makes allowance for the weight of the beam itself. If the unsupported length of the beam is great, the allowance for the weight must be made according to the methods explained in Chapter XV, page 572, for the calculation of tie-beams subjected to transverse loading.

2. Wrought Iron

Manufacture. Wrought iron is a mixture of pure iron and slag, about 96% iron and 3% slag, together with from ½ to ¾% of other elements including carbon, phosphorus, sulphur and manganese. It is made from pig iron and iron oxide, or mill-scale, in a reverberatory furnace consisting of a firebox, a hearth or working-chamber, and the necessary dampers and flues. The impurities are removed from the iron at different stages in the process, silicon and manganese during the melting-down stage, part of the phosphorus and sulphur during the clearing-stage and the carbon and remainder of the phosphorus and sulphur during the boiling-stage. The iron is then in a pasty condition ready for a thorough stirring by the workman, who collects it into balls of about 80 lb weight and takes it to a squeezer or forge where the greater part of the slag is removed. It is then rolled out into MUCK-BARS. These bars are cut into pieces which are piled into bundles suited to the size of the finished bar. The piles are heated and rolled again. The rolling reduces the amount of slag and makes the material denser. The process of rerolling may be repeated a number of times to produce double or triple-refined MERCHANT-BAR IRON.

The Appearance of Wrought Iron is very much like that of steel. It may be distinguished from steel by nicking one side of the bar and bending it away from the nick. Iron will split along the slag-laminations and show the COARSELY FIBROUS nature of the material; while steel will bend or rupture at the nick without splitting, any fracture being FINELY FIBROUS or CRYSTALLINE. When ruptured in a tension-test wrought iron shows a dark fibrous fracture. If the specimen is grooved before testing or broken in impact the fracture will be coarsely crystalline.

Welds. Wrought iron is more easily welded than steel because the work may be accomplished through a wider range of temperature than with steel. A weld may develop the full strength of the bar, but tests on hand-forged welds on rough tie-bars reported by Kirkaldy gave average values of about 60% of the strength of the bar.

Use. Wrought iron is no longer used for the manufacture of structural shapes, such as angles, channels and beams, its use for structural work being practically limited to bars, rods and bolts. It can be worked more easily than steel in threading-machines; and on this account, unless steel is specified, some companies will furnish truss-rods, bolts, etc., in wrought iron.

Specifications* for Wrought Iron. Wrought iron may be purchased under the Specifications of the American Society for Testing Materials. The more important paragraphs† for the grades of MERCHANT IRON are:

Process of Manufacture. 1. Wrought iron shall be made by the puddling or the charcoal-hearth process or rolled from fagots or piles made from wrought-iron scrap, alone or with muck-bar added.

Physical Properties. TENSION-TEST. 2. The minimum physical qualities required in the four classes of wrought iron shall be as follows:

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* For amendments the Year Books of this society should be consulted.

† Some of the numbered paragraphs are purposely omitted.

Properties considered	Stay-bolt iron	Merchant iron		
		Grade A	Grade B	Grade C
Tensile strength, lb per sq in...	46 000	50 000	48 000	48 000
Yield-point, lb per sq in.......	25 000	25 000	25 000	25 000
Elongation, percentage in 8 in...	28	25	20	20

4. NICKING-TEST. When the specimen is slightly and evenly nicked on one side and bent back through an angle of 180° it shall show the following fractures:

(b) Merchant iron, Grade A, a long, clean, silky fiber, free from slag or dirt or any coarse crystalline spots. A few fine crystalline spots may be tolerated, provided they do not in the aggregate exceed 10% of the sectional area of the bar.

(c) Merchant iron, Grade B, a generally fibrous fracture, free from coarse crystalline spots. Not over 10% of the fractured surface shall be granular.

(d) Merchant iron, Grade C, a generally fibrous fracture, free from coarse crystalline spots. Not over 15% of the fractured surface shall be granular.

5. COLD BENDING-TEST. A specimen cut from the bar as rolled shall be bent through an angle of 180° by pressure or by a succession of light blows. The classes of Merchant iron shall conform to the following bending-tests:

(f) Merchant iron, Grade A, shall bend, cold, 180° flat on itself, without fracture on the outside of the bent portion.

(g) Merchant iron, Grade B, shall bend, cold, 180° around a diameter equal to the thickness of the specimen tested, without fracture on the outside of the bent portion.

(h) Merchant iron, Grade C, shall bend, cold, around a diameter equal to twice the thickness of the specimen tested, without fracture on the outside of the bent portion.

6. HOT BENDING-TEST. Specimens cut from the bar as rolled, heated to a bright-red heat, shall be bent through an angle of 180° by pressure or by a succession of light blows, without hammering directly on the bend. The classes of Merchant iron shall conform to the following hot-bending tests:

(j) Merchant iron, Grade A, shall bend flat on itself, without showing cracks or flaws. A similar specimen heated to a yellow heat and suddenly quenched in water the temperature of which is between 80° and 90° F., shall bend, without hammering on the bend, 180° flat on itself, without showing cracks or flaws. A similar specimen heated to a bright-red heat, shall be split at the end and each part bent back through an angle of 180°. It shall also be quenched and expanded by drifts until a round hole is formed whose diameter is not less than nine-tenths the diameter of the rod or width of the bar. Any extension of the original split or indication of fracture, cracks, or flaws developed by the above tests will be sufficient cause for the rejection of the lot represented by that rod or bar.

(k) Merchant iron, Grade B, shall bend through 180° flat on itself, without showing cracks or flaws.

(l) Merchant iron, Grade C, shall bend sharply to a right angle, without showing cracks or flaws.

Test-Pieces and Methods of Testing. 8. TENSILE SPECIMENS. Whenever possible iron shall be tested in full-size as rolled, to determine the physical qualities specified in paragraph No. 2, the elongation being measured on an

8-in gauged length. In flats and shapes too large to test as rolled, the standard specimen shall be 1½ in wide and 8 in, gauged length.

12. THE YIELD-POINT specified in paragraph No. 2 shall be determined by the careful observation of the drop of the beam of the testing-machine.

Finish. 13. All wrought iron must be practically straight, smooth, free from cinder-spots or injurious flaws, buckles, blisters, or cracks. In round iron, sizes must conform to the Standard Limit gauge as adopted by the Master Car Builders' Association in November, 1883.

8. Cast Iron

Cast Iron has been defined as a saturated solution of carbon in iron, the carbon-content varying from 1½ to 4% according to the other impurities contained. It is hard, brittle, non-malleable and very fluid when melted, so that it is well adapted for casting into complex forms.

Manufacture. It is produced in the blast-furnace, which is essentially a closed refractory-lined stack, with a valve-charging device at the top, tuyeres or openings in the lower part for the introduction of the air-blast, and a hearth at the bottom with a tap-hole for the periodic withdrawal of the iron and slag. The FURNACE-IRON is cast into PIGS about 3 ft long and weighing about 100 lb each. FOUNDRY-CASTINGS are made from PIG IRON and SCRAP melted in a cupola and poured into green-sand molds. The charge is made up of different quantities of the different grades of pig so as to control the physical properties of the castings, principally through control of the silicon-content.

Appearance. CASTINGS have a gray or white fracture according to the condition of the contained carbon, the gray fracture indicating graphitic or separated carbon and the white the combined carbon. GRAY IRON is softer and tougher and is specified for ordinary CASTINGS.

Strength. Cast iron does not have a definite ELASTIC LIMIT. A relatively small stress will produce some permanent deformation. Its ULTIMATE TENSILE STRENGTH varies from 15 000 to 20 000 lb per sq in; and in some iron is as high as 30 000 lb per sq in. Its COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH varies over a wide range, 80 000 lb per sq in being a fair average value.

Defects. Castings are liable to several common DEFECTS the chief of which are blow-holes due to the formation of steam from the damp molds, sand-holes due to misplaced sand, rough surfaces, cold shuts due to chilling of the iron and failure to fill the parts of the mold, shrinkage-cracks due to uneven cooling of the castings in parts of different thickness. In cored castings, also, the walls are frequently of variable thickness because of the shifting of the cores. This is especially frequent in case of hollow columns cast in a horizontal position. Because of these defects and on account of the low ULTIMATE STRENGTH, cast iron should never be used where it is subjected to any great tensile stress.

Specifications* for Cast Iron. The specifications of the American Society for Testing Materials, for GRAY-IRON CASTINGS, include the following paragraphs:

1. Unless FURNACE-IRON is specified, all GRAY CASTINGS are understood to be made by the CUPOLA-PROCESS.

2. The SULPHUR-CONTENTS are to be:

For light castings, not over 0.08 per cent.
For medium castings, not over 0.10 per cent.
For heavy castings, not over 0.12 per cent.

3. In dividing castings into LIGHT, MEDIUM and HEAVY classes, the following standards have been adopted:

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* For amendments the Year Books of this society should be consulted.

Castings having any section less than ½ in thick shall be known as LIGHT CASTINGS.

Castings in which no section is less than 2 inches thick shall be known as HEAVY CASTINGS.

MEDIUM CASTINGS are those not included in the above classification.

4. TRANSVERSE TEST. The minimum BREAKING STRENGTH of the ARBITRATION-BAR under transverse load shall be:

For light castings, not under 2 500 lb.
For medium castings, not under 2 900 lb.
For heavy castings, not under 3 300 lb.

In no case shall the DEFLECTION be under 0.10 in.

TENSION-TEST. Where specified this shall be:

For light castings, not less than 18 000 lb per sq in.
For medium castings, not less than 21 000 lb per sq in.
For heavy castings, not less than 24 000 lb per sq in.

The specifications give explicit directions for casting the ARBITRATION-BAR, which is 1¼ in in diameter and 15 in long. Two of these are cast for each twenty tons of castings. One of each pair must fulfill the requirements to permit acceptance of the castings. The bar is loaded at the middle at a rate that will cause a 0.10-in deflection in from twenty to forty seconds. The tension-test is not recommended.

11. CASTINGS shall be true to pattern, free from cracks, flaws and excessive shrinkage. In other respects they shall conform to whatever points shall be specially agreed upon.

4. Steel

Steel is a mixture of compounds of iron and carbon with small quantities of other elements, including manganese, phosphorus, sulphur, silicon, etc. The carbon-content controls the hardness and strength of the steel. Less than 0.10% of carbon is present in the soft steels, which have most of the characteristics of wrought iron; while steel with more than 0.40% carbon is capable of being tempered, cannot be welded and is very much stronger. Manganese acts as a cleanser during the process of manufacture, and increases the forgeability of the steel. Phosphorus and sulphur are harmful in their effects, phosphorus making steel brittle under sudden loading and sulphur making it hot-short or brittle when heated.

Manufacture. STRUCTURAL STEEL is manufactured by the BESSEMER and the OPEN-HEARTH PROCESSES. In the first, molten cast iron is charged into a Bessemer converter, an air-blast is driven through the charge from perforations in the false bottom of the converter and the silicon, sulphur and carbon burned out. Carbon in the form of ferro-manganese is then added to deoxidize the charge and give the proper content of carbon in the finished steel, which is quickly drawn off and poured into ingots. Phosphorus is not removed ordinarily by the Bessemer process; but if the lining of the converter is made of basic material, such as dolomite limestone, and if lime is added with the charge, the phosphorus will unite with it and be poured off with the slag.

The Open-Hearth Process. In this process scrap-steel, pig-iron or molten furnace-iron and limestone flux are charged on the hearth of a Siemens furnace, a reducing gas-flame is directed onto the charge and the carbon and other impurities are gradually removed. When the reduction is about completed samples are taken and carbon determined so that the charge may be withdrawn at the proper time. The process thus permits of much more accurate control of the product. The material is more uniform and consequently more dependable in service than BESSEMER STEEL. OPEN-HEARTH STEEL is used for most structural work.

Phosphorus may be removed by the basic process as in case of Bessemer steel. Ores running low in phosphorus are generally used in America so that the basic process is little employed here.

The Effect of Carbon and Phosphorus on the STATIC STRENGTH of steel for the limits of carbon included in structural steel is an increase in strength of about 1 000 lb per sq in for each 0.01% increase in either element. Cunningham's formula

$$S_t = 40\,000 + 100\,000\,(C + P)$$

gives the approximate relation between the strength and the chemical composition. C and P are respectively the amounts of carbon and phosphorus expressed in percentage. For example, the ULTIMATE STRENGTH of a steel having 0.15% carbon and 0.07% phosphorus is, approximately,

$$S_t = 40\,000 + 100\,000\,(0.15 + 0.07) = 62\,000 \text{ lb per sq in}$$

The Percentage of Elongation decreases as the carbon-content and ULTIMATE STRENGTH increase. An approximate relation being

$$\text{percentage of elongation} = \frac{1\,400\,000}{S_t}$$

Since the TOTAL ELONGATION of a ruptured specimen is due to the local stretching at the point of rupture and the uniform elongation over the whole gauge-length, it is necessary to report the gauge-length when reporting this result. Since the LOCAL ELONGATION is the same for a 2 or an 8-in length. the PERCENTAGE OF ELONGATION for the same material, tested on a 2-in gauge-length, is greater than if measured on an 8-in length.

The Elastic Behavior of a specimen of steel loaded to rupture is best shown by a STRESS-STRAIN DIAGRAM on which the stresses are plotted as vertical ordinates and the elongations or strains as abscissas, as in Fig. 1. Five significant results are shown:

(1) **The Modulus of Elasticity** (E). The relation between the stress and the strain or elongation is called the MODULUS OF ELASTICITY. It is equal to the unit stress divided by the unit strain or deformation and is represented graphically by the tangent of the angle of the initial line with the horizontal. Its value for steel for tension is about 30 000 000 lb per sq in.

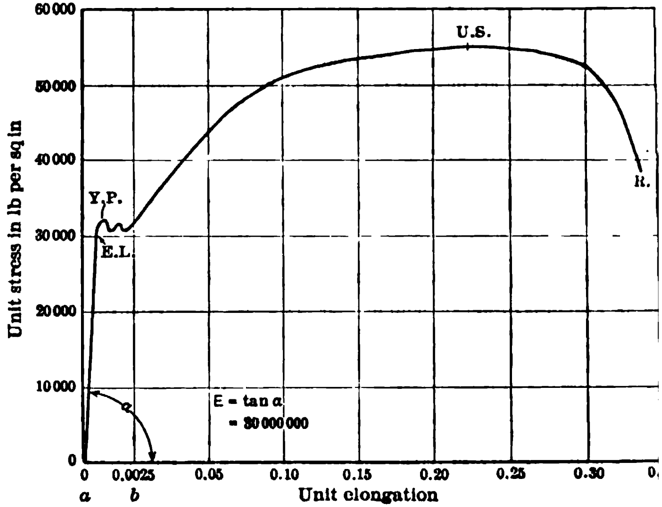
(2) **The Elastic Limit** ($E.L.$) is that unit stress beyond which the ratio of stress to strain ceases to be constant, or beyond which the curve ceases to be a straight line.

(3) **The Yield-Point** ($Y.P.$), slightly above or beyond the ELASTIC LIMIT, is that unit stress at which the specimen begins to stretch without increase in the load. This stress may be determined from a test without the use of delicate measuring-apparatus by the DROP OF THE BEAM or HALT IN THE GAUGE of the testing-machine.

(4) **The Ultimate Strength** ($U.S.$) is the greatest unit stress the specimen can sustain.

(5) **The Rupture-Stress** (R) is the unit stress at the time of failure. This is the unit stress at the point of failure after the area of the cross-section of the specimen has been reduced; and because of the rapid dropping off of the load it is difficult to determine. It is not regularly observed in testing, attention

being called to it merely to emphasize the fact that the ULTIMATE STRENGTH steel is not the stress at the time of failure of the specimen. This is true, als for wrought iron and ductile materials in general.



The horizontal scale for the distance $a\,b$ is ten times greater than for the remaining distance

Fig. 1. Stress-strain Diagram of Test on Steel Specimens.

Effect of Punching and Shearing. Structural steel is hardened by t action of the punch and shear in the process of manufacture in the shop. O the die-side the metal is forced to flow from the tool and this cold worki hardens and injures it as may be shown by a cold-bend test. The effect m be removed by annealing; but in the best work it is usually specified th rivet-holes shall be reamed during the assembling of the parts. This remo the injured metal and brings the parts into better alinement for the inserti of the rivets. The injury from shearing may be removed by milling the shea edges.

The Coefficient of Expansion of steel is 0.000 006 5 per degree Fahrenh The ELONGATION in a length l, due to a change in temperature of t degrees then

$$e = 0.000\,006\,5\,lt$$

in which l is expressed in inches and t in degrees Fahrenheit.

The Weight of Steel is taken at 489.6 lb per cu ft. The sectional are a member in square inches multiplied by 3.4 equals the weight in pounds linear foot.

The Working Stress for structural steel in tension in buildings and bridge 16 000 lb per sq in in most specifications and building laws. For members s ject to constant load some designers use a WORKING STRESS of 20 000 lb per sq

5. Standard Specifications* for Structural Steel for Buildings

Specifications. Structural steel may be purchased under the specifications of the Association of American Steel Manufacturers or of the American Society for Testing Materials. Extracts from these specifications follow:

Manufacture. (1) Structural steel may be made by either the open-hearth or Bessemer process.

Rivet-steel and plate or angle-material over ¾ in thick, which is to be punched, shall be made by the open-hearth process.

Chemical and Physical Properties. (2) They shall conform to these limits:

Properties considered	Structural steel	Rivet steel, open hearth
Phosphorus, maximum, Bessemer	0.10 per cent	....
Phosphorus, maximum, open-hearth	0.06 per cent	0.06 per cent
Sulphur, maximum	....	0.045 per cent
Ultimate tensile strength, lb per sq in	55 000–65 000	46 000–56 000
Yield-point	½ ult. tens. str.	½ ult. tens. str.
Elongation, min per cent in 8 in (Fig. 2)	$\frac{1\,400\,000^*}{\text{Ult. tens. str.}}$	$\frac{1\,400\,000}{\text{Ult. tens. str.}}$
Cold bend without fracture	180° to diameter of 1 thickness	180° flat

* See Percentage of Elongation, page 384.

For the purposes of these specifications, the yield-point shall be determined by the careful observation of the drop of the beam of the testing-machine.

Chemical Determinations. (3) In order to determine if the material conforms to the chemical limitations prescribed in paragraph (2) herein, analysis shall be made by the manufacturer from a test-ingot taken at the time of the pouring of each melt or blow of steel, and a correct copy of such analysis shall be furnished to the engineer or his inspector.

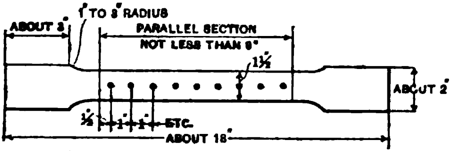


Fig. 2. Form of Specimen for Steel-test

Form of Specimens. (4) Specimens for tension-tests and bending-tests shall be made by cutting from the finished product coupons, which shall have both faces rolled and both edges milled to the form shown in Fig. 2; or both edges parallel; or they may be turned to a diameter of ¾ in for a length of at least 9 in and have enlarged ends.

(a) For material more than ¾ in thick the bending-test specimen may be 1 in by ½ in in section.

(b) Rivet-rounds and small rolled bars shall be tested as rolled.

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* Revisions of form or substance of matter of some paragraphs, as (3), (4), (5), (7) and (11), have been proposed or adopted (1914-15). For amendments see Year Books of the Am. Soc. for Test. Mats.

Annealed Specimens. (5) Material which is to be used without annealing or further treatment shall be tested in the condition in which it comes from the rolls. When material is to be annealed or otherwise treated before use, the specimens for tension-tests, representing such material, shall be cut from properly annealed or similarly treated short lengths of the full section of the bar.

Number of Tests. (6) At least one tension-test and one bending-test shall be made from each melt or blow of steel as rolled. In case steel differing ⅜ in and more in thickness is rolled from one melt or blow, a test shall be made from the thickest and thinnest material rolled. Should either of these test-specimens develop flaws, or should the tension-test specimen break outside of the middle third of its gauged length, it may be discarded and another test-specimen substituted therefor. In case a tension-test specimen does not meet the specification, additional tests may be made.

(c) The bending-test may be made by pressure or by blows.

Modifications in Elongation for Thin and Thick Material. (7) For material less than 5/16 in and more than ¾ in in thickness, the following modifications shall be made in the requirements for elongation:

(d) For each increase of ⅛ in in thickness above ¾ in, a deduction of 1 shall be made from the specified percentage of elongation.

(e) For each decrease of 1/16 in in thickness below 5/16 in, a deduction of 2½ shall be made from the specified percentage of elongation.

(f) For pins, the required percentage of elongation shall be 5 less than that specified in the tabulation of paragraph (2), as determined on a test-specimen, the center of which shall be 1 in from the surface.

Finish. (8) Finished material must be free from injurious seams, flaws, or cracks, and have a workmanlike finish.

Branding. (9) Test-specimens and every finished piece of steel shall be stamped with melt or blow-number, except that small pieces may be shipped in bundles securely wired together, with the melt or blow-number on a metal tag attached.

Variation in Weight. (10) A variation in cross-section or weight of each piece of steel, of more than 2½% from that specified, will be sufficient cause for rejection, except in case of sheared plates. These latter are covered by the following permissible variations, which are to apply to single plates:

(A) Plates, When Ordered to Weight

PLATES 12½ POUNDS PER SQUARE FOOT OR HEAVIER:
- (g) Up to 100 in wide, 2½% above or below the specified weight.
- (h) 100 in wide and over, 5% above or below.

PLATES UNDER 12½ POUNDS PER SQUARE FOOT:
- (i) Up to 75 in wide, 2½% above or below.
  75 inches and up to 100 inches wide, 5% above or 3% below.
- (j) 100 in wide and over, 10% above or 3% below.

(B) Plates, When Ordered to Gauge

Plates will be accepted if they measure not more than 0.01 in below the ordered thickness.

An excess over the nominal weight corresponding to the dimensions on the order will be allowed for each plate, if not more than that shown in the following tables, 1 cu in of rolled steel being assumed to weigh 0.2833 lb.

PLATES ¼ INCH AND OVER IN THICKNESS

Thickness ordered, in	Nominal weights, lb per sq ft	Width of plate			
		Up to 75 in %	75 in and up to 100 in %	100 in and up to 115 in %	Over 115 in %
¼	10.20	10	14	18	....
5/16	12.75	8	12	16	....
⅜	15.30	7	10	13	17
7/16	17.85	6	8	10	13
½	20.40	5	7	9	12
9/16	22.95	4½	6½	8½	11
⅝	25.50	4	6	8	10
Over ⅝	.....	3½	5	6½	9

PLATES UNDER ¼ INCH IN THICKNESS

Thickness ordered, in	Nominal weights, lb per sq ft	Width of plate		
		Up to 50 in %	50 in and up to 70 in %	Over 70 in %
⅛ up to 5/32	5.10 to 6.37	10	15	20
5/32 up to 3/16	6.37 to 7.65	8½	12½	17
3/16 up to ¼	7.65 to 10.20	7	10	15

Inspection. (11) The inspector representing the purchaser shall have all reasonable facilities afforded to him by the manufacturer to satisfy him that the finished material is furnished in accordance with these specifications. All tests and inspections shall be made at the place of manufacture, prior to shipment.

Additional Paragraphs. The general specifications for a building of ordinary construction should include in addition to the above, governing the quality and tests on the material, paragraphs giving specifications for:

(1) The exact scope of the work embodied in the contract.

(2) Provision for the inspection of material and workmanship, stating specifically who is to bear the expense of the inspection.

(3) Special tests; for example, tests of full-size eye-bars.

(4) Size, limiting pitch and allowable stress for shop-rivets and field-rivets.

(5) Cleaning of surfaces and shop-painting.

6. Tension-Members

Angles. The best section for tension-members of relatively small size depends greatly on the kind of end-connections used. Angles or channels are generally used for riveted connections. For very small members rectangular bars, such as lacing-bars, may be used. The strength of such members is computed on the net area through the rivet-holes. Angles used in tension should have lugs riveted to the outstanding legs and the tie-plate for the better distribution of the stress over the section. Tests on angles with riveted connections reported by F. P. McKibben* gave from 77 to 86% of the strength of the material as shown by tension-tests on standard specimens cut from these angles. Lugs increased the strength from 4.7 to 8.7%. It was also shown that a connection giving the center of the pull on the center of gravity of the section gave considerably higher strengths than when the center of pull was in line with the gauge-line of the rivets. In computing the NET SECTIONAL AREA as reduced by rivet and bolt-holes Table XI will be found very convenient.

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* Proceedings of the American Society for Testing Materials, Vol. VI.

Eye-Bars are used for the main tension-members of pin-connected trusses. They are rectangular in section with a forged head upset in dies and of the same thickness as the bar. The eye is accurately drilled in position in the axis of the bar, true to diameter and exact central distance. Because of its advantages for forging, soft steel is used in making eye-bars. They are also carefully annealed before drilling. Table VI gives the dimensions of STANDARD EYE-BARS manufactured by the mills of the American Bridge Company. These bars are of practically the same dimensions as the standard bars of other companies. There is from 34 to 42% excess material in the section through the eye to insure in the forged part the development of the full strength of the body of the bar. Standard bars should be used in design to avoid the expense of making special dies in which to form the heads. Bars of less than the given minimum thickness are liable to fail, when loaded, by buckling in the head. Thick bars increase the BENDING-STRESSES in the pins and thus, indirectly, the necessary size of the eye. Except for very large structures they are limited to about 2 in.

Tests of Full-Size Eye-Bars are generally required when a great number of them are to be used in a structure, one in every fifty bars being usually tested. The specifications for carbon-steel bars require that an ULTIMATE TENSILE STRENGTH of 56 000 lb per sq in shall be developed, that the ELONGATION in the whole length shall be 10% and that failure shall occur in the body of the bar. Nickel steel has been used for tension-members on a few long-span bridges. The WORKING STRESS on the eye-bars was increased about one-half over that used for carbon steel, and the requirements of the test-bars made correspondingly severe. The eye is made 1/50 in greater than the diameter of the pin. Bars packed on the same pins are drilled at the same setting so as to be of exactly the same length. Bars must be true to length within 1/32 in. Small eye-bars are sometimes made with UPSET SCREW-ENDS and SLEEVE-NUTS or TURNBUCKLES in the middle for adjustment, as shown in Fig. 3 and Table VI, page 395.

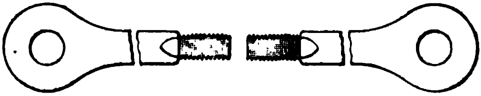


Fig. 3. Eye-bar with Screw-ends for Sleeve-nut or Turn-buckle

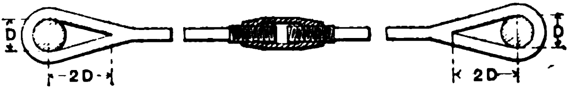


Fig. 4. Loop-eyes and Sleeve-nuts

Loop-Rods (Fig. 4, and Table VII) of round or square section with welded loop-ends are used for counterties and bracing. Because of the weld they are not so dependable as other types of tension-members, but, because of the adjustment, are well adapted for this service as secondary members.

A Forked-Loop Rod, Fig. 5, may be used for one of two tension-rods so as to avoid eccentricity where two rods balance each other on a pin. A CLEVIS at each end of one of the rods accomplishes the same object.

Turnbuckles and Sleeve-Nuts. The dimensions of these for adjusting the lengths and initial stress in ties are given in Table VIII, page 397. The open turnbuckle has the advantage of being easily inspected to note that the thread has sufficient bearing and that the ends of the rods do not butt together.

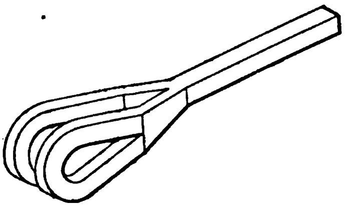


Fig. 5. Forked Loop

Upset Screw-Ends are threaded enlargements on the ends of rods or bolts designed to give to the threaded portions a strength as great as that of the body of the bar. Because of effects of forging it is necessary to make the area of the cross-section of the upset end at the root of the thread a little larger than that of the rod itself. A standard upset rod will fail in the body of the bar without damaging the threaded portion enough to prevent the turning of the nuts. The dimensions given are nearly the same with all manufacturers. If upset rods can not be obtained the section-area at the root of the thread must be used in computing the safe load.

Clevises. Table IX, page 398, gives the dimensions and other details for clevises according to the latest standards of the American Bridge Company.

Tables. The following tables will be found useful in designing tension-members, or for drawing turnbuckles, sleeve-nuts, clevises, etc. The strength of plain rods in Table II is based on the area at the root of the thread. For lengths and weights of tie-rods and anchors for steel beams, see Table XIX, Chapter XV.

Table II. Safe Loads in Pounds on Round Rods

Diameter inches	Plain rods Load in pounds based on area at root of thread			Upset rods Load in pounds based on full area of rod		
	Stress in lb per sq in			Stress in lb per sq in		
	10 000	12 000	16 000	10 000	12 000	16 000
¼	270	324	432	491	590	785
5/16	450	540	720	767	920	1 230
⅜	680	816	1 088	1 104	1 320	1 770
7/16	930	1 116	1 488	1 503	1 800	2 400
½	1 260	1 513	2 016	1 963	2 360	3 140
9/16	1 620	1 944	2 592	2 485	2 970	3 960
⅝	2 020	2 424	3 232	3 068	3 680	4 910
¾	3 020	3 624	4 832	4 418	5 300	7 070
⅞	4 200	5 040	6 720	6 013	7 210	9 620
1	5 500	6 600	8 800	7 854	9 420	12 570
1⅛	6 940	8 328	11 104	9 940	11 930	15 900
1¼	8 930	10 716	14 288	12 270	14 720	19 630
1⅜	10 570	12 680	16 910	14 840	17 810	23 750
1½	12 950	15 540	20 720	17 670	21 200	28 270
1⅝	15 150	18 180	24 240	20 730	24 880	33 170
1¾	17 440	20 930	27 900	24 050	28 860	38 480
1⅞	20 480	24 580	32 760	27 610	33 130	44 180
2	23 020	27 620	36 830	31 420	37 700	50 270
2⅛	26 340	31 610	42 150	35 460	42 550	56 640
2¼	30 230	36 280	48 370	39 760	47 710	63 600
2⅜	33 000	39 600	52 800	44 300	53 160	70 880
2½	37 150	44 630	59 440	49 080	58 900	78 530
2¾	46 190	55 430	73 900	59 390	71 270	95 020
3	54 280	65 140	86 850	70 680	84 820	113 090
3¼	65 100	78 120	101 160	82 950	99 540	132 720
3½	75 480	90 570	120 770	96 210	115 450	153 840
3¾	86 410	103 690	138 250	110 450	132 540	176 690
4	99 930	119 920	159 890	125 660	150 790	201 050
4¼	113 290	135 900	181 300	141 800	170 160	226 880
4½	127 430	152 900	203 900	159 000	190 800	254 400
4¾	142 200	170 600	227 500	177 200	212 640	283 520
5	157 630	189 100	252 200	196 300	235 560	314 080
5¼	175 720	210 800	281 100	216 400	259 680	346 200
5½	192 670	231 200	308 300	237 500	285 000	380 000
5¾	212 620	255 100	340 200	259 600	311 000	414 700
6	230 980	277 200	369 600	282 700	339 200	452 300

Table III. Safe Loads in Pounds for Flat Rolled Bars

Computed for a stress of 16 000 pounds per square inch

Width in inches									
1	1¼	1½	1¾	2	2¼	2½	2¾	3	3¼
1 000	1 250	1 500	1 750	2 000	2 250	2 500	2 750	3 000	3 250
2 000	2 500	3 000	3 500	4 000	4 500	5 000	5 500	6 000	6 500
3 000	3 750	4 500	5 250	6 000	6 750	7 500	8 250	9 000	9 750
4 000	5 000	6 000	7 000	8 000	9 000	10 000	11 000	12 000	13 000
5 000	6 250	7 500	8 750	10 000	11 250	12 500	13 750	15 000	16 250
6 000	7 500	9 000	10 500	12 000	13 500	15 000	16 500	18 000	19 500
7 000	8 750	10 500	12 250	14 000	15 750	17 500	19 250	21 000	22 750
8 000	10 000	12 000	14 000	16 000	18 000	20 000	22 000	24 000	26 000
9 000	11 250	13 500	15 750	18 000	20 250	22 500	24 750	27 000	29 250
10 000	12 500	15 000	17 500	20 000	22 500	25 000	27 500	30 000	32 500
11 000	13 750	16 500	19 250	22 000	24 750	27 500	30 250	33 000	36 750
12 000	15 000	18 000	21 000	24 000	27 000	30 000	33 000	36 000	39 000
13 000	16 250	19 500	22 750	26 000	29 250	32 500	35 750	39 000	42 250
14 000	17 500	21 000	24 500	28 000	31 500	35 000	38 500	42 000	45 500
15 000	18 750	22 500	26 250	30 000	33 750	37 500	41 250	45 000	48 750
16 000	20 000	24 000	28 000	32 000	36 000	40 000	44 000	48 000	52 000
17 000	21 250	25 500	29 750	34 000	38 250	42 500	46 750	51 000	55 250
18 000	22 500	27 000	31 500	36 000	40 500	45 000	49 500	54 000	58 500
19 000	23 750	28 500	33 250	38 000	42 750	47 500	52 250	57 000	61 750
20 000	25 000	30 000	35 000	40 000	45 000	50 000	55 000	60 000	65 000
22 000	27 500	33 000	38 500	44 000	49 500	55 000	60 500	66 000	71 500
24 000	30 000	36 000	42 000	48 000	54 000	60 000	66 000	72 000	78 000
26 000	32 500	39 000	45 500	52 000	58 500	65 000	71 500	78 000	84 500
28 000	35 000	42 000	49 000	56 000	63 000	70 000	77 000	84 000	91 000
30 000	37 500	45 000	53 500	60 000	67 500	75 000	83 500	90 000	97 500
32 000	40 000	48 000	56 000	64 000	72 000	80 000	88 000	96 000	104 000

Table III (Continued). Safe Loads in Pounds for Flat Rolled Bars

Computed for a stress of 16 000 pounds per square inch

Thickness in inches	Width in inches									
	3½	3¾	4	4¼	4½	4¾	5	5½	6	6½
1/16	3 500	3 750	4 000	4 250	4 500	4 750	5 000	5 500	6 000	6 500
1/8	7 000	7 500	8 000	8 500	9 000	9 500	10 000	11 000	12 000	13 000
3/16	10 500	11 250	12 000	12 750	13 500	14 250	15 000	16 500	18 000	19 500
1/4	14 000	15 000	16 000	17 000	18 000	19 000	20 000	22 000	24 000	26 000
5/16	17 500	18 750	20 000	21 250	22 500	23 750	25 000	27 500	30 000	32 500
3/8	21 000	22 500	24 000	25 500	27 000	28 500	30 000	33 000	36 000	39 000
7/16	24 500	26 250	28 000	29 750	31 500	33 250	35 000	38 500	42 000	45 500
1/2	28 000	30 000	32 000	34 000	36 000	38 000	40 000	44 000	48 000	52 000
9/16	31 500	33 750	36 000	38 250	40 500	42 750	45 000	49 500	54 000	58 500
5/8	35 000	37 500	40 000	42 500	45 000	47 500	50 000	55 000	60 000	65 000
11/16	38 500	41 250	44 000	46 750	49 500	52 250	55 000	60 500	66 000	71 500
3/4	42 000	45 000	48 000	51 000	54 000	57 000	60 000	66 000	72 000	78 000
13/16	45 500	48 750	52 000	55 250	58 500	61 750	65 000	71 500	78 000	84 500
7/8	49 000	52 500	56 000	59 500	63 000	66 500	70 000	77 000	84 000	91 000
15/16	52 500	56 250	60 000	63 750	67 500	71 250	75 000	82 500	90 000	97 500
1	56 000	60 000	64 000	68 000	72 000	76 000	80 000	88 000	96 000	104 000
1 1/16	59 500	63 750	68 000	72 250	76 500	80 750	85 000	93 500	102 000	110 500
1 1/8	63 000	67 500	72 000	76 500	81 000	85 500	90 000	99 000	108 000	117 000
1 3/16	66 500	71 250	76 000	80 750	85 500	90 250	95 000	104 500	114 000	123 500
1 1/4	70 000	75 000	80 000	85 000	90 000	95 000	100 000	110 000	120 000	130 000
1 3/8	77 000	82 500	88 000	93 500	99 000	104 500	110 000	121 000	132 000	143 000
1 1/2	84 000	90 000	96 000	102 000	108 000	114 000	120 000	132 000	144 000	156 000
1 5/8	91 000	97 500	104 000	110 500	117 000	123 500	130 000	143 000	156 000	169 000
1 3/4	98 000	105 000	112 000	119 000	126 000	133 000	140 000	154 000	168 000	182 000
1 7/8	105 000	112 500	120 000	127 500	135 000	142 500	150 000	165 000	180 000	195 000
2	112 000	120 000	128 000	136 000	144 000	152 000	160 000	176 000	192 000	208 000

Table IV. Safe Loads in Pounds for Flat Rolled Bars

Computed for a stress of 10 000 lb per square inch*

Thickness in inches	Width in inches									
	1	1¼	1½	1¾	2	2¼	2½	2¾	3	3¼
1/16	630	780	940	1 090	1 250	1 410	1 560	1 720	1 880	2 030
⅛	1 250	1 560	1 880	2 190	2 500	2 810	3 130	3 440	3 750	4 060
3/16	1 880	2 340	2 810	3 280	3 750	4 220	4 690	5 160	5 630	6 090
¼	2 500	3 130	3 750	4 380	5 000	5 630	6 250	6 880	7 500	8 130
5/16	3 130	3 910	4 690	5 470	6 250	7 030	7 810	8 590	9 380	10 200
⅜	3 750	4 690	5 630	6 560	7 500	8 440	9 380	10 300	11 300	12 200
7/16	4 380	5 470	6 560	7 660	8 750	9 840	10 900	12 000	13 100	14 200
½	5 000	6 250	7 500	8 750	10 000	11 300	12 500	13 800	15 000	16 300
9/16	5 630	7 030	8 440	9 840	11 300	12 700	14 100	15 500	16 900	18 300
⅝	6 250	7 810	9 380	10 900	12 500	14 100	15 600	17 200	18 800	20 300
11/16	6 880	8 590	10 300	12 000	13 800	15 500	17 200	18 900	20 600	22 300
¾	7 500	9 380	11 300	13 100	15 000	16 900	18 800	20 600	22 500	24 400
13/16	8 130	10 200	12 200	14 200	16 300	18 300	20 300	22 300	24 400	26 400
⅞	8 750	10 900	13 100	15 300	17 500	19 700	21 900	24 100	26 300	28 400
15/16	9 380	11 700	14 100	16 400	18 800	21 100	23 400	25 800	28 100	30 500
1	10 000	12 500	15 000	17 500	20 000	22 500	25 000	27 500	30 000	32 500
1 1/16	10 600	13 300	15 900	18 600	21 300	23 900	26 600	29 200	31 900	34 500
1⅛	11 300	14 100	16 900	19 700	22 500	25 300	28 100	30 900	33 800	36 600
1 3/16	11 900	14 800	17 800	20 800	23 800	26 700	29 700	32 700	35 600	38 600
1¼	12 500	15 600	18 800	21 900	25 000	28 100	31 300	34 400	37 500	40 600
1⅜	13 800	17 200	20 600	24 100	27 500	30 900	34 400	37 800	41 300	44 700
1½	15 000	18 800	22 500	26 300	30 000	33 800	37 500	41 300	45 000	48 800
1⅝	16 300	20 300	24 400	28 400	32 500	36 600	40 600	44 700	48 800	52 800
1¾	17 500	21 900	26 300	30 600	35 000	39 400	43 800	48 100	52 500	56 900
1⅞	18 800	23 400	28 100	32 800	37 500	42 200	46 900	51 600	56 300	60 900
2	20 000	25 000	30 000	35 000	40 000	45 000	50 000	55 000	60 000	65 000

* For unit stresses of 12 000, 12 500, and 15 000 lb increase by ⅕, ¼, and ½ respectively.

For working strength of wrought iron and steel, see pages 376 and 382.

Table IV (Continued). Safe Loads in Pounds for Flat Rolled Bars

Computed for a stress of 10 000 lb per square inch

Thickness in inches	Width in inches									
	3½	3¾	4	4¼	4½	4¾	5	5½	6	6½
1/16	2 190	2 340	2 500	2 660	2 810	2 970	3 130	3 440	3 750	4 060
⅛	4 380	4 690	5 000	5 310	5 630	5 940	6 250	6 880	7 500	8 130
3/16	6 560	7 030	7 500	7 970	8 440	8 910	9 380	10 300	11 300	12 200
¼	8 750	9 380	10 000	10 600	11 300	11 900	12 500	13 800	15 000	16 300
5/16	10 900	11 700	12 500	13 300	14 100	14 800	15 600	17 200	18 800	20 300
⅜	13 100	14 100	15 000	15 900	16 900	17 800	18 800	20 600	22 500	24 400
7/16	15 300	16 400	17 500	18 600	19 700	20 800	21 900	24 100	26 300	28 400
½	17 500	18 800	20 000	21 300	22 500	23 800	25 000	27 500	30 000	32 500
9/16	19 700	21 100	22 500	23 900	25 300	26 700	28 100	30 900	33 800	36 600
⅝	21 900	23 400	25 000	26 600	28 100	29 700	31 300	34 400	37 500	40 600
11/16	24 100	25 800	27 500	29 200	30 900	32 700	34 400	37 800	41 300	44 700
¾	26 300	28 100	30 000	31 900	33 800	35 600	37 500	41 300	45 000	48 800
13/16	28 400	30 500	32 500	34 500	36 600	38 600	40 600	44 700	48 800	52 800
⅞	30 600	32 800	35 000	37 200	39 400	41 600	43 800	48 100	52 500	56 900
15/16	32 800	35 200	37 500	39 800	42 200	44 500	46 900	51 600	56 300	60 900
1	35 000	37 500	40 000	42 500	45 000	47 500	50 000	55 000	60 000	65 000
1 1/16	37 200	39 800	42 500	45 200	47 800	50 500	53 100	58 400	63 800	69 100
1⅛	39 400	42 200	45 000	47 800	50 600	53 400	56 300	61 900	67 500	73 100
1 3/16	41 600	44 500	47 500	50 500	53 400	56 400	59 400	65 300	71 300	77 200
1¼	43 800	46 900	*50 000	53 100	56 300	59 400	62 500	68 800	75 000	81 300
1⅜	48 100	51 600	55 000	58 400	61 900	65 300	68 800	75 600	82 500	89 400
1½	52 500	56 300	60 000	63 800	67 500	71 300	75 000	82 500	90 000	97 500
1⅝	56 900	60 900	65 000	69 100	73 100	77 200	81 300	89 400	97 500	105 600
1¾	61 300	65 600	70 000	74 400	78 800	83 100	87 500	96 300	105 000	113 800
1⅞	65 600	70 300	75 000	79 700	84 400	89 100	93 800	103 100	112 500	121 900
2	70 000	75 000	80 000	85 000	90 000	95 000	100 000	110 000	120 000	130 000

* See foot-note, preceding table.

Table V. Standard Proportions of Upset Screw-Ends for Round and Square Bars

Diam. of round or side of square bar in	Round bars				Square bars			
	Diam. of upset screw-end in	Diam. of screw at root of thread in	Number of threads per inch	Excess of effective area of screw-end over bar %	Diam. of upset screw-end in	Diam. of screw at root of thread in	Number of threads per inch	Excess of effective area of screw-end over bar %
½	¾	0.620	10	54	¾	0.620	10	21
9/16	¾	0.620	10	21	⅞	0.731	9	33
⅝	⅞	0.731	9	37	1	0.837	8	41
11/16	1	0.837	8	48	1	0.837	8	17
¾	1	0.837	8	25	1⅛	0.940	7	23
13/16	1⅛	0.940	7	34	1¼	1.065	7	35
⅞	1¼	1.065	7	48	1⅜	1.160	6	38
15/16	1¼	1.065	7	29	1⅜	1.160	6	20
1	1⅜	1.160	6	35	1½	1.284	6	29
1 1/16	1⅜	1.160	6	19	1⅝	1.389	5½	34
1⅛	1½	1.284	6	30	1⅝	1.389	5½	20
1 3/16	1½	1.284	6	17	1¾	1.490	5	24
1¼	1⅝	1.389	5½	23	1⅞	1.615	5	31
1 5/16	1¾	1.490	5	29	1⅞	1.615	5	19
1⅜	1¾	1.490	5	18	2	1.712	4½	22
1 7/16	1⅞	1.615	5	26	2⅛	1.837	4½	28
1½	2	1.712	4½	30	2⅛	1.837	4½	18
1 9/16	2	1.712	4½	20	2¼	1.962	4½	24
1⅝	2⅛	1.837	4½	28	2⅜	2.087	4½	30
1 11/16	2⅛	1.837	4½	18	2⅜	2.087	4½	20
1¾	2¼	1.962	4½	26	2½	2.175	4	21
1 13/16	2¼	1.962	4½	17	2⅝	2.300	4	26
1⅞	2⅜	2.087	4½	24	2⅝	2.300	4	18
1 15/16	2½	2.175	4	26	2¾	2.425	4	23
2	2½	2.175	4	18	2⅞	2.550	4	28
2 1/16	2⅝	2.300	4	24	2⅞	2.550	4	20
2⅛	2⅝	2.300	4	17	3	2.629	3½	20
2 3/16	2¾	2.425	4	23	3⅛	2.754	3½	24

Table V (Continued). Standard Proportions of Upset Screw-Ends for Round and Square Bars

Diam. of round or side of square bar in	Round bars				Square bars			
	Diam. of upset screw-end in	Diam. of screw at root of thread in	Number of threads per inch	Excess of effective area of screw-end over bar %	Diam. of upset screw-end in	Diam. of screw at root of thread in	Number of threads per inch	Excess of effective area of screw-end over bar %
$2\frac{1}{4}$	$2\frac{7}{8}$	2.550	4	28	$3\frac{1}{8}$	2.754	$3\frac{1}{2}$	18
$2\frac{5}{16}$	$2\frac{7}{8}$	2.550	4	22	$3\frac{1}{4}$	2.879	$3\frac{1}{2}$	22
$2\frac{3}{8}$	3	2.629	$3\frac{1}{2}$	23	$3\frac{3}{8}$	3.004	$3\frac{1}{2}$	26
$2\frac{7}{16}$	$3\frac{1}{8}$	2.754	$3\frac{1}{2}$	28	$3\frac{3}{8}$	3.004	$3\frac{1}{2}$	19
$2\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{8}$	2.754	$3\frac{1}{2}$	21	$3\frac{1}{2}$	3.100	$3\frac{1}{4}$	21
$2\frac{9}{16}$	$3\frac{1}{4}$	2.879	$3\frac{1}{2}$	26	$3\frac{5}{8}$	3.225	$3\frac{1}{4}$	24
$2\frac{5}{8}$	$3\frac{1}{4}$	2.879	$3\frac{1}{2}$	20	$3\frac{5}{8}$	3.225	$3\frac{1}{4}$	19
$2\frac{11}{16}$	$3\frac{3}{8}$	3.004	$3\frac{1}{2}$	25	$3\frac{3}{4}$	3.317	3	20
$2\frac{3}{4}$	$3\frac{3}{8}$	3.004	$3\frac{1}{2}$	19	$3\frac{7}{8}$	3.442	3	23
$2\frac{13}{16}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	3.100	$3\frac{1}{4}$	22	$3\frac{7}{8}$	3.442	3	18
$2\frac{7}{8}$	$3\frac{5}{8}$	3.225	$3\frac{1}{4}$	26	4	3.567	3	21
$2\frac{15}{16}$	$3\frac{5}{8}$	3.225	$3\frac{1}{4}$	21	$4\frac{1}{8}$	3.692	3	24
3	$3\frac{3}{4}$	3.317	3	22	$4\frac{1}{8}$	3.692	3	19
$3\frac{1}{8}$	$3\frac{7}{8}$	3.442	3	21	$4\frac{3}{8}$	3.923	$2\frac{7}{8}$	24
$3\frac{1}{4}$	4	3.567	3	20	$4\frac{1}{2}$	4.028	$2\frac{3}{4}$	21
$3\frac{3}{8}$	$4\frac{1}{8}$	3.692	3	20	$4\frac{5}{8}$	4.153	$2\frac{3}{4}$	19
$3\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{4}$	3.798	$2\frac{7}{8}$	18	...	.....	...	..
$3\frac{5}{8}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	4.028	$2\frac{3}{4}$	23	...	.....	...	..
$3\frac{3}{4}$	$4\frac{5}{8}$	4.153	$2\frac{3}{4}$	23	...	.....	...	..
$3\frac{7}{8}$	$4\frac{3}{4}$	4.255	$2\frac{5}{8}$	21	...	.....	...	..

REMARKS. As upsetting reduces the strength of iron, bars having the same diameter at the root of the thread as that of the bar invariably break in the screw-end when tested to destruction, without developing the full strength of the bar. It is therefore necessary to make up for this loss in strength by an excess of metal in the upset screw-ends over that in the bar.

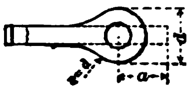
Table V is the result of numerous tests on finished bars made at the Keystone Bridge Company's Works in Pittsburgh, Pa., and gives proportions that will cause the bar to break in the body rather than in the upset end.

The screw-threads in the above table are the Franklin Institute standards.

To make one upset end for a 5-in length of thread, allow 6 in in length of rod, additional.

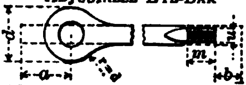
Table VI.* **Steel Eye-Bars** (AMERICAN BRIDGE COMPANY STANDARD)

ORDINARY EYE-BAR



Bar			Head				
	Thickness			Maximum pin		Additional material, a, ft and in	
Width, in	Max, in	Min, in	Dia. d, in	Dia. in	Excess head over bar, %	For ordering bar	For figuring w't
2	1	½	4½	1¾	37.5	1-0	0-7
			5½	2¾		1-4	0-11
			†6½	3¾		1-9	1-4
2½	1	⅝	6	2½	40.0	1-3	0-10
			7	3½		1-7	1-2
			†8	4½		2-0	1-7
3	1½	⅝	7½	3¼	41.7	1-6	1-1
			8½	4¼		1-11	1-5
			†9½	5¼		2-4	1-10
4	1¾	¾	10	4½	37.5	1-11	1-6
		⅞	11	5½		2-3	1-10
		1	†12	6½		2-8	2-2
5	2	¾	12	5¼	35.0	2-1	1-8
		1	13½	6¾		2-8	2-2
		1	†15	8¼		3-3	2-9
6	2	¾	14	5¾	37.5	2-4	1-10
		1	14¾	6¼		2-6	2-1
		1	†16½	8¼		3-2	2-8
7	2	1	16½	7	35.7	2-7	2-2
		1⅛	17½	8		2-11	2-6
		1⅛	†18½	9		3-4	2-11
8	2	1	18	7	37.5	2-8	2-3
		1⅛	19	8		3-0	2-6
		1¼	†20	9		3-4	2-11
9	2	1⅛	20	7½	38.9	2-11	2-6
		1¼	22	9½		3-7	3-1
10	2	1⅛	22½	9	35.0	3-5	2-10
		1¼	24	10½		3-9	3-3
		1⅜	†25	11½		4-1	3-7
12	2	1¼	26½	10	37.5	3-8	3-3
		1⅜	28	11½		4-2	3-8
		1½	†29½	13		4-8	4-1
14	2	1⅜	31	12	35.7	4-3	3-9
		1½	33	14		4-10	4-4
		1⅝	†34	15		5-5	4-8
16	2	1⅜	36	14	37.5	4-11	4-5
		1⅞	†37½	16	34.4	5-5	4-10

ADJUSTABLE EYE-BAR



Minimum length of short end from center of pin to end of screw, 6 ft, preferably 7 ft..

Thread on short end to be left hand

Pitch and shape of thread A. B. Co standard

Bar		Screw-end				
					Additional material, b, ft and in	
Width, in	Min thickness, in	Dia. u, in	Excess upset over bar, %	L'th m, in	For ordering bar	For figuring w't
2	†⅝	1¾	39.6	4	1-0	8
	¾	1⅞	36.6	4½	1-0	7½
	⅞	2	31.4	4½	0-11	7½
2½	†¾	2⅛	41.2	4½	1-0	8
	⅞	2¼	38.1	5	1-0	8
	1	2⅜	36.7	5	1-0	7½
3	†¾	2¼	34.3	5	1-0	7½
	⅞	2½	41.6	5½	1-1	9½
	1	2½	23.9	5½	1-1	8½
4	†¾	2½	23.9	5½	1-1	8½
	⅞	2¾	32.0	5½	0-11	7½
	1	3	35.7	6	1-1	8½
	1⅛	3¼	44.6	6½	1-2	9½
5	†¾	2⅞	36.2	6	1-0	8
	⅞	3	24.1	6	0-11	7
	1	3¼	30.2	6½	1-0	8
	1⅛	3½	34.2	7	1-1	8½
	1¼	3¾	38.3	7	1-2	9
6	†1	3½	25.8	7	1-0	7½
	1⅛	3¾	28.0	7	1-0	8
	1¼	4	33.2	7½	1-1	8½
	1⅜	4¼	37.3	8	1-2	9½
7	†1⅛	4	26.9	7½	1-0	8
	1¼	4¼	29.5	8	1-1	8½
	1⅜	4½	32.4	8½	1-2	9
	1½	4¾	35.4	8½	1-2	9½
8	†1⅛	4¼	25.9	8	1-0	8
	1¼	4½	27.4	8½	1-1	8½
	1⅜	4¾	29.3	8½	1-1	8½
	1½	5	31.4	9	1-2	9
	1⅝	5¼	35.2	9½	1-3	10

Bars marked † should be used only when absolutely unavoidable

Deduct pin-hole when figuring weight

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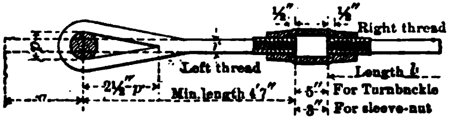
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table VII.* Loop-Rods

AMERICAN BRIDGE COMPANY STANDARD



Pitch and shape of thread A. B. Co standard

Additional length A, in feet and inches, for one loop. $A = 4.17p + 5.89r$

Diam. of pin, p, in	Diameter or side r of rod in inches										
	¾	⅞	1	1⅛	1¼	1⅜	1½	1⅝	1¾	1⅞	2
1⅛	0- 9½	0-10	0-11	0-11½	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1¼	0-10	0-10½	0-11½	1- 0	1- 1	....	....	....	....	....	....
1½	0-11	0-11½	1- 0½	1- 1	1- 2	1- 2½	....	....	....	....	....
1¾	1- 0	1- 0½	1- 1½	1- 2	1- 3	1- 3½	1- 4½	1- 5	1- 6	....	....
2	1- 1	1- 1½	1- 2½	1- 3	1- 4	1- 4½	1- 5½	1- 6	1- 7	1- 7½	1- 8½
2¼	1- 2	1- 3	1- 3½	1- 4½	1- 5	1- 5½	1- 6½	1- 7	1- 8	1- 8½	1- 9½
2½	1- 3	1- 4	1- 4½	1- 5½	1- 6	1- 7	1- 7½	1- 9	1- 9	1- 9½	1-10½
2¾	1- 4	1- 5	1- 5½	1- 6½	1- 7	1- 8	1- 8½	1- 9½	1-10	1-11	1-11½
3	1- 5	1- 6	1- 6½	1- 7½	1- 8	1- 9	1- 9½	1-10½	1-11	2- 0	2- 0½
†3¼	1- 6	1- 7	1- 7½	1- 8½	1- 9	1-10	1-10½	1-11½	2- 0	2- 1	2- 1½
3½	1- 7½	1- 8	1- 8½	1- 9½	1-10	1-11	1-11½	2- 0½	2- 1	2- 2	2- 2½
†3¾	1- 8½	1- 9	1-10	1-10½	1-11	2- 0	2- 0½	2- 1½	2- 2	2- 3	2- 3½
4	1- 9½	1-10	1-11	1-11½	2- 0½	2- 1	2- 2	2- 2½	2- 3	2- 4	2- 4½
†4¼	....	1-11	2- 0	2- 0½	2- 1½	2- 2	2- 3	2- 3½	2- 4½	2- 5	2- 6
4½	....	2- 0	2- 1	2- 1½	2- 2½	2- 3	2- 4	2- 4½	2- 5½	2- 6	2- 7
†4¾	....	2- 1	2- 2	2- 2½	2- 3½	2- 4	2- 5	2- 5½	2- 6½	2- 7	2- 8
5	....	2- 2½	2- 3	2- 3½	2- 4½	2- 5	2- 6	2- 6½	2- 7½	2- 8	2- 9
†5¼	....	....	2- 4	2- 5	2- 5½	2- 6	2- 7	2- 7½	2- 8½	2- 9	2-10
5½	....	....	2- 5	2- 6	2- 6½	2- 7½	2- 8	2- 9	2- 9½	2-10	2-11
†5¾	....	....	2- 6	2- 7	2- 7½	2- 8½	2- 9	2-10	2-10½	2-11½	3- 0
6	....	....	2- 7	2- 8	2- 8½	2- 9½	2-10	2-11	2-11½	3- 0½	3- 1
†6¼	....	....	....	2- 9	2- 9½	2 10½	2-11	3- 0	3- 0½	3- 1½	3- 2
6½	....	....	....	2-10	2-10½	2-11½	3- 0	3- 1	3- 1½	3- 2½	3- 3
†6¾	....	....	....	2-11	3- 0	3- 0½	3- 1	3- 2	3- 2½	3- 3½	3- 4
7	....	....	....	3- 0	3- 1	3- 1½	3- 2½	3- 3	3- 3½	3- 4½	3- 5

Pins marked † are special. Maximum shipping length of l = 35 ft

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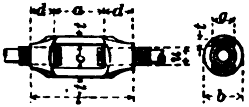
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table VIII.* Turnbuckles and Sleeve-Nuts

AMERICAN BRIDGE COMPANY STANDARD

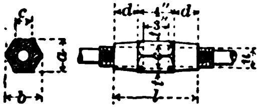
All dimensions in inches

TURNBUCKLES



a=9" for turnbuckles marked†
and shape of thread, A. B. Co standard

SLEEVE-NUTS



Pitch and shape of thread, A. B. Co standard

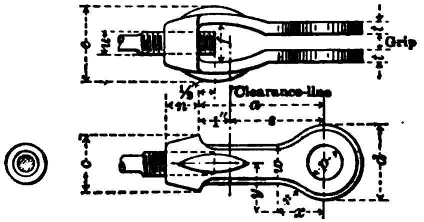
Standard dimensions						W't, lb	Dia. of screw u	Standard dimensions						W't, lb
d	l	c	t	g	b			d	l	a	b	c	t	
[illegible]	7⅛	⁹⁄₁₆	³⁄₁₆	½	1¹⁄₁₆	1	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
[illegible]	7³⁄₁₆	⅝	¼	⅝	1⅜	1	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
[illegible]	7½	⅝	¼	⅝	1⅜	1	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
[illegible]	7¹¹⁄₁₆	¹³⁄₁₆	⁵⁄₁₆	¾	1⁹⁄₁₆	1½	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
[illegible]	7⅞	¹³⁄₁₆	⁵⁄₁₆	¾	1⁹⁄₁₆	1½	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
[illegible]	8¼	1¹⁄₁₆	¹¹⁄₃₂	⅞	2	2	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
[illegible]	8⅝	1⅛	⅜	1	2¼	3	⅞	1½	7	1⅝	1⅞	1⅛	¼	3
1⅝	9	1⁵⁄₁₆	⁷⁄₁₆	1¼	2⁷⁄₁₆	4	1	1½	7	1⅝	1⅞	1⅛	¼	3
1¹¹⁄₁₆	9⅜	1⁷⁄₁₆	½	1¼	2⁹⁄₁₆	5	1⅛	1¾	7½	2	2⁵⁄₁₆	1⅜	⁵⁄₁₆	4
1⅞	9¾	1⁹⁄₁₆	½	1½	2¾	6	1¼	1¾	7½	2	2⁵⁄₁₆	1⅜	⁵⁄₁₆	4
2¹⁄₁₆	10⅛	1¹¹⁄₁₆	½	1⅝	3¹⁄₁₆	7	1⅜	2	8	2⅜	2¾	1⅝	⅜	5
2¼	10½	1¾	⅝	1¾	3³⁄₁₆	8	1½	2	8	2⅜	2¾	1⅝	⅜	6
2⁷⁄₁₆	10¾	2	⅝	1⅞	3½	10	1⅝	2¼	8½	2¾	3³⁄₁₆	1⅞	⁷⁄₁₆	8
2⅝	11¼	2⅛	⅝	2	3¾	11	1¾	2¼	8½	2¾	3³⁄₁₆	1⅞	⁷⁄₁₆	9
2¹³⁄₁₆	11⅝	2³⁄₁₆	¹¹⁄₁₆	2⅛	3⅞	12	1⅞	2½	9	3⅛	3⅝	2⅛	½	10
3	12	2⅜	¹¹⁄₁₆	2¼	4¼	14	2	2½	9	3⅛	3⅝	2⅛	½	11
3³⁄₁₆	12⅜	2½	²³⁄₃₂	2½	4½	17	2⅛	2¾	9½	3½	4¹⁄₁₆	2⅜	⁹⁄₁₆	14
3⅜	12¾	2¹¹⁄₁₆	¹³⁄₁₆	2½	4¾	20	2¼	2¾	9½	3½	4¹⁄₁₆	2⅜	⁹⁄₁₆	15
3⁹⁄₁₆	13⅛	2¾	¹³⁄₁₆	2¾	4⅞	22	2⅜	3	10	3⅞	4½	2⅝	⅝	18
3¾	13½	3¹⁄₁₆	²⁷⁄₃₂	3	5⅜	25	2½	3	10	3⅞	4½	2⅝	⅝	19
4⅛	14¼	3¼	¹⁵⁄₁₆	3¼	5¾	33	2¾	3¼	10½	4¼	4¹⁵⁄₁₆	2⅞	¹¹⁄₁₆	23
4⁷⁄₁₆	14⅝	3⁷⁄₁₆	1¹⁄₃₂	3¼	6¹⁄₁₆	36	2⅞	3½	11	4⅝	5⅜	3⅛	¾	27
4½	15	3⅝	1¹⁄₃₂	3½	6⅜	40	3	3½	11	4⅝	5⅜	3⅛	¾	28
4⅞	15¾	3⅞	1¹⁄₁₆	4	6¾	50	3¼	3¾	11½	5	5¹³⁄₁₆	3⅜	¹³⁄₁₆	35
5¼	16½	4¼	1⁷⁄₃₂	4	7¼	65	3½	4	12	5⅜	6¼	3⅝	⅞	40
5⅝	17¼	4⁷⁄₁₆	1⁵⁄₁₆	5	8¼	95	3¾	4¼	12½	5¾	6¹¹⁄₁₆	3⅞	¹⁵⁄₁₆	47
6	18	4⅝	1⁷⁄₁₆	5	8¾	108	4	4½	13	6⅛	7¹⁄₁₆	4⅛	1	55
6¼	21½	4⅝	1⅝	5⁵⁄₃₂	9¼	140	4¼	4¾	13½	6½	7½	4⅜	1¹⁄₁₆	65
6¾	22½	5½	1¾	6½	10¾	195	4½	5	14	6⅞	7¹⁵⁄₁₆	4¾	1¹⁄₁₆	75
7¼	23½	5⅝	2	6½	11¼	205	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
7½	24	6	2¼	6½	11⅞	250	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

*From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa

Table IX.* Clevises

AMERICAN BRIDGE COMPANY STANDARD

All dimensions in inches



Grip = thickness of plate + ¼ in, but must not exceed dimension *f*

Clevis-No.	Head								Nut					Fork			W't. lb
	d	*w*	*t*	Max *p*	Min *p*	*r*	*x*	*y*	*n*	*c*	Max *u*	Min *u*	*e*	*f*	*a*	*s*	
3	3	1½	½	1½	1	2¼	2¼	3	1½	2¼	1⅛	1	3¹⁄₁₆	1¼	5	4	4
4	4	2	½	2	1¼	3	3	4	1¾	2⅞	1⅝	1⅛	3⅞	1¾	6	5	8
5	5	2½	⅝	2½	1½	3¾	3¾	5	2¼	3¾	2⅛	1½	4½	2¼	7	6	16
6	6	3	¾	3	2	4½	4½	6	2½	4⅜	2⅝	2	5⅜	2¾	8	7	26
7	7	3½	⅞	3½	2½	5¼	5¼	7	3	5	3	2¼	6³⁄₁₆	3¼	9	8	36

CLEVIS-NUMBERS FOR VARIOUS RODS AND PINS

Rods			Pins										
Round	Square	Upset	1	1¼	1½	1¾	2	2¼	2½	2¾	3	3¼	3½
¾	.....	1	3	3	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
.....	¾	1⅛	3	3	3	4	4	...	...	...	...	...	...
⅞	⅞	1¼	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...	...	...	...
1	.....	1⅜	...	4	4	4	4	...	...	...	...	...	...
1⅛	1	1½	...	4	4	4	4	5	5	...	...	...	...
1¼	1⅛	1⅝	...	4	4	4	4	5	5	...	...	...	...
1⅜	.....	1¾	...	...	5	5	5	5	5	...	...	...	...
.....	1¼	1⅞	...	...	5	5	5	5	5	...	...	...	...
1½	1⅜	2	...	...	5	5	5	5	5	6	6	...	...
1⅝	.....	2⅛	...	...	5	5	5	5	5	6	6	...	...
1¾	1½	2¼	...	...	...	...	6	6	6	6	6	7	7
1⅞	1⅝	2⅜	...	...	...	...	6	6	6	6	6	7	7
2	1¾	2½	...	...	...	...	6	6	6	6	6	7	7
2⅛	.....	2⅝	...	...	...	...	6	6	6	6	6	7	7
.....	1⅞	2¾	...	...	...	...	...	...	7	7	7	7	7
2¼	2	2⅞	...	...	...	...	...	...	7	7	7	7	7
2⅜	2⅛	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	7	7	7	7	7

Clevises above and to right of zigzag line may be used with forks straight, thos below and to left of this line should have forks closed so as not to overstress the pin.

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* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa

Table X. Safe Loads in Tension for Common Sizes of Angles with One ⅞-Inch Rivet-Hole for a ¾-Inch Rivet

Load in pounds for a stress of 16 000 lb per sq in

Size of angle	Load	Size of angle	Load
6×4×¾	100 500	3½×2½×⅝	45 000
⅝	85 000	9/16	41 100
½	68 900	½	37 000
		⅜	28 500
5×3½×¾	82 500	¼	19 500
⅝	70 100		
½	57 000	3×3×⅝	45 000
		½	37 000
5×3×¾	76 500	⅜	28 500
⅝	64 900	¼	19 500
½	53 000		
⅜	40 500	3×2½×½	33 000
		⅜	25 600
4×4×¾	76 500	5/16	21 800
⅜	40 500	¼	17 600
4×3½×⅝	60 000		
⅜	37 600	3×2×7/16*	25 900
		⅜*	25 600
4×3×⅝	55 000	5/16*	21 800
½	45 000	¼*	17 600
⅜	34 600		
		2½×2½×7/16	25 900
3½×3½×¾	64 500	⅜	22 600
⅝	55 000	5/16	19 200
½	45 000	¼	15 500
⅜	34 600		
		2½×2×7/16	22 400
3½×3×⅝	50 100	⅜	19 500
½	41 000	5/16	16 600
⅜	31 500	¼	12 800

* These are special angles. It is better not to use them in ordinary work because of risk of delay in delivery.

Table XI. Sectional Area to be Deducted from Plates and Angles for One Round Hole

Note. Bolt-holes should be 1/16 in larger than the diameter of the bolt; rivet-holes are usually ⅛ in larger than the diameter of the rivet.*

Thickness of plate	Diameter of hole in fractions of an inch and inches															
	¼	5/16	⅜	7/16	½	9/16	⅝	11/16	¾	13/16	⅞	15/16	1	1 1/16	1 3/16	1 7/16	1 9/16
3/16	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.08	0.09	0.11	0.12	0.13	0.14	0.15	0.16	0.18	0.19	0.20	0.23	0.27	0.30
¼	0.06	0.08	0.09	0.11	0.13	0.14	0.16	0.17	0.19	0.20	0.22	0.23	0.25	0.27	0.30	0.36	0.39
5/16	0.08	0.10	0.12	0.14	0.16	0.18	0.20	0.21	0.23	0.25	0.27	0.29	0.31	0.33	0.37	0.45	0.49
⅜	0.09	0.12	0.14	0.16	0.19	0.21	0.23	0.26	0.28	0.30	0.33	0.35	0.38	0.40	0.45	0.54	0.59
7/16	0.11	0.14	0.16	0.19	0.22	0.25	0.27	0.30	0.33	0.36	0.38	0.41	0.44	0.46	0.52	0.63	0.69
½	0.13	0.16	0.19	0.22	0.25	0.28	0.31	0.34	0.38	0.41	0.44	0.47	0.50	0.53	0.59	0.72	0.78
9/16	0.14	0.18	0.21	0.25	0.28	0.32	0.35	0.39	0.42	0.46	0.49	0.53	0.56	0.60	0.67	0.81	0.88
⅝	0.16	0.20	0.23	0.27	0.31	0.35	0.39	0.43	0.47	0.51	0.55	0.59	0.63	0.66	0.74	0.90	0.98
11/16	0.17	0.21	0.26	0.30	0.34	0.39	0.43	0.47	0.52	0.56	0.60	0.64	0.69	0.73	0.82	0.99	1.08
¾	0.19	0.23	0.28	0.33	0.38	0.42	0.47	0.52	0.56	0.61	0.66	0.70	0.75	0.80	0.89	1.08	1.17
13/16	0.20	0.25	0.30	0.36	0.41	0.46	0.51	0.56	0.61	0.66	0.71	0.76	0.81	0.86	0.97	1.17	1.27
⅞	0.22	0.27	0.33	0.38	0.44	0.49	0.55	0.60	0.66	0.71	0.77	0.82	0.88	0.93	1.04	1.26	1.37
15/16	0.23	0.29	0.35	0.41	0.47	0.53	0.59	0.64	0.70	0.76	0.82	0.88	0.94	1.00	1.11	1.35	1.47
1	0.25	0.31	0.38	0.44	0.50	0.56	0.63	0.69	0.75	0.81	0.88	0.94	1.00	1.06	1.19	1.44	1.56

* See also Table I, Chapter XX and paragraph, Punching Rivet-Holes, page 414.

7. Wire

Manufacture. Iron and steel wires are made from BILLETS about 4 in square. These are rolled into long rods which are dipped in acid to remove the scale and furnish lubrication for the drawing process. This consists in pulling the rods while cold through steel dies having a series of holes of gradually decreasing diameters. The cold working of the metal hardens it and makes it brittle so that it is necessary to anneal it at intervals during the process. The drawing increases the strength of the material, so that wires of different sizes, although made of the same material, differ greatly in ULTIMATE STRENGTH.

Finish. The common grades of iron and steel wire are furnished in several different finishes: plain black, bright tinned, copper-coated, japanned and with single and double coats of zinc galvanizing. The last is applied by passing the wire through the melted zinc which is deposited as a coating and forms one of the best-known protections against corrosion.

Wire-Gauges. Table XIII gives, according to several GAUGES, the diameters of the different numbers of wire that have come into use for different purposes and have been brought out by different manufacturers. In ordering wire by number it is best to specify which GAUGE is meant.

Strength. Table XIV gives the sizes according to the J. A. Roebling's Sons Company gauge, with the weight and length and the strength on an assumed basis of 100 000 lb per sq in. The different kinds of wire vary so widely in ULTIMATE STRENGTH, on account of both the difference in quality of the material and the effect of the drawing, that in order to obtain the approximate strength of a wire, reference must be made to Table XII in connection with the foot-note to Table XIV. The following table is arranged from values given in the Catalogue of the J. A. Roebling's Sons Company:

Table XII. Approximate Ultimate Strength of Different Sizes of Iron and Steel Wire

Kind of wire	Ultimate strength	
	Large size lb per sq in	Small size lb per sq in
Soft iron	45 000	60 000
Telegraph and telephone (steel)	60 000	80 000
Special aviator	247 000	285 000
Piano wire	307 000	340 000
Plough steel wire	200 000	345 000
Hard-drawn copper trolley wire	50 000	not used
Hard-drawn telegraph and telephone copper	56 000	66 000

Table XIII. Comparison of Standard Gauges for Wire and Sheet Metal

Number of gauge	Diameter or thickness in decimals of an inch						
	Birmingham or Stubs iron-wire-gauge	American or Brown & Sharpe wire-gauge	United States standard gauge for sheet and plate iron and steel	Washburn & Moen Manufacturing Co.* and John A. Roebling's Sons Co. wire-gauge	Trenton Iron Co. wire-gauge	American Screw Co. wire-gauge	British Imperial or English legal standard wire-gauge
0000000	......	....	0.5	0.4900	....	....	0.500
000000	......	0.580000	0.46875	0.4615	....	....	0.464
00000	0.500	0.516500	0.4375	0.4305	0.450	....	0.432
0000	0.454	0.460000	0.40625	0.3938	0.400	....	0.400
000	0.425	0.409642	0.375	0.3625	0.360	0.0315	0.372
00	0.380	0.364796	0.34375	0.3310	0.330	0.0447	0.348
0	0.340	0.324861	0.3125	0.3065	0.305	0.0578	0.324
1	0.300	0.289297	0.28125	0.2830	0.285	0.0710	0.300
2	0.284	0.257627	0.265625	0.2625	0.265	0.0842	0.276
3	0.259	0.229423	0.25	0.2437	0.245	0.0973	0.252
4	0.238	0.204307	0.234375	0.2253	0.225	0.1105	0.232
5	0.220	0.181940	0.21875	0.2070	0.205	0.1236	0.212
6	0.203	0.162023	0.203125	0.1920	0.190	0.1368	0.192
7	0.180	0.144285	0.1875	0.1770	0.175	0.1500	0.176
8	0.165	0.128490	0.171875	0.1620	0.160	0.1631	0.160
9	0.148	0.114423	0.15625	0.1483	0.145	0.1763	0.144
10	0.134	0.101897	0.140625	0.1350	0.130	0.1894	0.128
11	0.120	0.090742	0.125	0.1205	0.1175	0.2026	0.116
12	0.109	0.080808	0.109375	0.1055	0.105	0.2158	0.104
13	0.095	0.071962	0.09375	0.0915	0.0925	0.2289	0.092
14	0.083	0.064084	0.078125	0.0800	0.0806	0.2421	0.080
15	0.072	0.057068	0.0703125	0.0720	0.070	0.2552	0.072
16	0.065	0.050821	0.0625	0.0625	0.061	0.2684	0.064
17	0.058	0.045257	0.05625	0.0540	0.0525	0.2816	0.056
18	0.049	0.040303	0.05	0.0475	0.045	0.2947	0.048
19	0.042	0.035890	0.04375	0.0410	0.040	0.3079	0.040
20	0.035	0.031961	0.0375	0.0348	0.035	0.3210	0.036
21	0.032	0.028462	0.034375	0.03175	0.031	0.3342	0.032
22	0.028	0.025346	0.03125	0.0286	0.028	0.3474	0.028
23	0.025	0.022572	0.028125	0.0258	0.025	0.3605	0.024
24	0.022	0.020101	0.025	0.0230	0.0225	0.3737	0.022
25	0.020	0.017900	0.021875	0.0204	0.020	0.3868	0.020
26	0.018	0.015941	0.01875	0.0181	0.018	0.4000	0.018
27	0.016	0.014195	0.0171875	0.0173	0.017	0.4132	0.0164
28	0.014	0.012641	0.015625	0.0162	0.016	0.4263	0.0148
29	0.013	0.011257	0.0140625	0.0150	0.015	0.4395	0.0136
30	0.012	0.010025	0.0125	0.0140	0.014	0.4526	0.0124
31	0.010	0.008928	0.0109375	0.0132	0.013	0.4658	0.0116
32	0.009	0.007950	0.01015625	0.0128	0.012	0.4790	0.0108
33	0.008	0.007080	0.009375	0.0118	0.011	0.4921	0.0100
34	0.007	0.006305	0.00859375	0.0104	0.010	0.5053	0.0092
35	0.005	0.005615	0.0078125	0.0095	0.0095	0.5184	0.0084
36	0.004	0.005000	0.00703125	0.0090	0.009	0.5316	0.0076
37	......	0.004453	0.006640625	0.0085	0.0085	0.5448	0.0068
38	......	0.003965	0.00625	0.0080	0.008	0.5579	0.0060
39	......	0.003531	....	0.0075	0.0075	0.5711	0.0052
40	......	0.003144	....	0.0070	0.007	0.5842	0.0048

* Now the American Steel and Wire Company.

The United States Standard Gauge was legalized by Act of Congress, March 3, 1893, s a standard gauge for sheet and plate iron and steel, and is used by the Custom-House epartment and by sheet-plate and tin-plate manufacturers.

Table XIV. Weight, Length and Strength of Steel Wire

Gauge of J. A. Roebling's Sons Company

Number, Roebling gauge	Diameter in	Area sq in	Breaking-load in pounds at rate of 100 000 lb per sq in	Weight in pounds		Number of feet in 2 000 pounds
				Per 1 000 ft	Per mile	
000000	0.460	0.166191	16 619	558.4	2 948	3 582
00000	0.430	0.145221	14 522	487.9	2 576	4 099
0000	0.394	0.121304	12 130	407.6	2 152	4 907
000	0.362	0.102922	10 292	345.8	1 826	5 783
00	0.331	0.086049	8 605	289.1	1 527	6 917
0	0.307	0.074023	7 402	248.7	1 313	8 041
1	0.283	0.062902	6 290	211.4	1 116	9 463
2	0.263	0.054325	5 433	182.5	964	10 957
3	0.244	0.046760	4 676	157.1	830	12 730
4	0.225	0.039761	3 976	133.6	705	14 970
5	0.207	0.033654	3 365	113.1	597	17 687
6	0.192	0.028953	2 895	97.3	514	20 559
7	0.177	0.024606	2 461	82.7	437	24 191
8	0.162	0.020612	2 061	69.3	366	28 878
9	0.148	0.017203	1 720	57.8	305	34 600
10	0.135	0.014314	1 431	48.1	254	41 584
11	0.120	0.011310	1 131	38.0	201	52 631
12	0.105	0.008659	866	29.1	154	68 752
13	0.092	0.006648	665	22.3	118	89 525
14	0.080	0.005027	503	16.9	89.2	118 413
15	0.072	0.004071	407	13.7	72.2	146 198
16	0.063	0.003117	312	10.5	55.3	191 022
17	0.054	0.002290	229	7.70	40.6	259 909
18	0.047	0.001735	174	5.83	30.8	343 112
19	0.041	0.001320	132	4.44	23.4	450 856
20	0.035	0.000962	96	3.23	17.1	618 620

This table was calculated on a basis of 483.84 lb per cu ft for steel wire. Iron wire is little lighter.

The breaking strengths were calculated for 100 000 lb per sq in throughout, simply for convenience, so that the breaking strengths per square inch of wires of any strength may be quickly determined by multiplying the values given in the table by the ratio between the strength per square inch and 100 000. Thus, a No. 15 wire, with a strength per square inch of 150 000 pounds, has a breaking strength of

$$407 \times \frac{150\,000}{100\,000} = 610.5 \text{ lb.}$$

It must not be inferred from this table that steel wire invariably has a strength of 100 000 lb per sq in. As a matter of fact its strength ranges from 45 000 lb per sq in for soft, annealed wire to over 400 000 lb per sq in for hard wire.

8. Wire Rope

Kinds of Wire Rope. There are several kinds of WIRE ROPE in common use. In each there are three or more qualities depending on the kind of wire used and the kind of core about which the strands are laid. The Trenton Iron Company lists the following:

(1) **Haulage or Transmission-Rope,** composed of six strands of seven wires each, laid about a hemp core. It is used for haulage, transmission of power, in places where surface-wear is of chief consideration and where sheaves of sufficient diameter may be used.

(2) **Hoisting-Rope,** composed of six strands of nineteen wires each. It is used for elevator service, shafts and derricks, and in places where it is not subject to abrasion and where flexibility is of chief consideration.

(3) **Seale Rópe,** composed of six strands of nineteen wires each, the inner coils of the strands being of finer wire. It is intermediate in flexibility between the first and second kinds of rope.

(4) **Non-Spinning Hoisting-Rope,** having eighteen strands of seven wires each. Twelve of the strands are laid in reverse direction to the inner six, making it well adapted for hoisting in free suspension without untwisting and turning the load.

(5) **Extra-Flexible Hoisting-Rope,** having eight strands of nineteen wires each.

(6) **Special Flexible Hoisting-Rope,** having six strands of thirty-seven wires each.

(7) **Hawser-Rope and Flexible Running-Rope,** having six strands of twelve galvanized wires each, laid about a hemp core.

(8) **Tiller-Rope,** composed of six small seven-strand ropes laid about a hemp core. It is the most flexible of wire ropes and is used to operate tillers and for hand-ropes in elevators.

The Lay of Wire Rope is the twist of the wires in the strands relatively to the strands in the rope. In the ORDINARY LAY the twist of the strands is the reverse of that of the wires, while in the LANG LAY the strands are laid in the same direction as the twist of the wires. This latter gives a greater distribution of the wearing-surface and a somewhat greater flexibility; but it has the disadvantage of a tendency to untwist and for this reason should not be used for hoisting weights in free suspension. Wire rope is also made up in FLAT OR RIBBON FORM. For large sizes it is more flexible than standard rope and may be run over smaller drums.

Materials for Rope. Nearly all of the above kinds of rope are made up in the following materials:

(1) **Best Grade of Wrought Iron.** This is used in high-speed PASSENGER-ELEVATOR SERVICE as it seems to suffer less from the effects of the stresses due to the starting and stopping of the cars.

(2) **Cast-Steel Wire,** with an ultimate strength of from 160 000 to 210 000 lb per sq in, according to the size used.

(3) **Extra-Strong Cast-Steel Wire,** with an ultimate strength of from 190 000 to 230 000 lb per sq in.

(4) **Blow-Steel Wire** with an ultimate strength of from 200 000 to 230 000 lb per sq in.

Ordinary GALVANIZED-WIRE ROPE should not be used for other than standing rope. A short service running through sheaves will break the coating and permit

Table XV. Strength of Wire Rope

Arranged from the 1912 list of John A. Roebling's Sons Company

Trade number	Diameter inches	Weight per foot, hemp core	Approximate breaking-load in pounds		Minimum diameter of drum or sheave in feet	
			Iron	Cast steel	Iron	Cast steel
HOISTING-ROPE Six strands of nineteen wires each, about a hemp core						
1	2¼	8.00	144 000	266 000	14	9
2	2	6.30	110 000	212 000	12	8
2½	1⅞	5.55	100 000	192 000	12	8
3	1¾	4.85	88 000	170 000	11	7
4	1⅝	4.15	76 000	144 000	10	6.5
5	1½	3.55	66 000	128 000	9	6
5½	1⅜	3	56 000	112 000	8.5	5.5
6	1¼	2.45	45 600	94 000	7.5	5
7	1⅛	2	37 200	76 000	7	4.5
8	1	1.58	29 000	60 000	6	4
9	⅞	1.20	23 600	46 000	5.5	3.5
10	¾	0.89	17 000	35 000	4.5	3
10¼	⅝	0.62	12 000	25 000	4	2.5
10½	9/16	0.50	9 400	20 000	3.5	2.25
10¾	½	0.39	7 800	16 800	3	2
10a	7/16	0.30	5 800	13 000	2.75	1.75
10b	⅜	0.22	4 800	9 600	2.25	1.5
STANDING ROPE Six strands of seven wires each						
11	1½	3.55	64 000	126 000	16	11
12	1⅜	3	56 000	106 000	15	10
13	1¼	2.45	46 000	92 000	13	9
14	1⅛	2	38 000	74 000	12	8
15	1	1.58	30 000	62 000	10.5	7
16	⅞	1.20	24 000	48 000	9	6
17	¾	0.89	17 600	37 200	7.5	5
18	11/16	0.75	14 600	30 800	7.25	4.75
19	⅝	0.62	12 000	26 000	7	4.50
20	9/16	0.50	9 600	20 000	6	4
21	½	0.39	7 400	15 400	5.5	3.5
22	7/16	0.30	5 200	11 000	4.5	3
23	⅜	0.22	4 400	9 200	4	2.75
24	5/16	0.15	3 400	7 000	3.5	2.25
25	9/32	0.125	2 400	5 000	3	1.75

The working load is to be taken at one-fifth the breaking-load. This is assumed in calculating the diameter of the sheaves.

rapid corrosion of the rope. Because of the many kinds and qualities of rope it is well to consult the manufacturers as to which kind will best suit the conditions for any particular service. The John A. Roebling's Sons Company, Trenton, N. J., the Trenton Iron Company, Trenton, N. J., and A. Leschen & Sons Rope Company, St. Louis, Mo., are among the largest manufacturers of full lines of ropes.

Coils. Wire rope should not be coiled like hemp rope, and in order to avoid kinking, should be taken from the reels without twisting. If it is not shipped on a reel, to avoid injury it must be rolled over the ground like a wheel.

Lubrication. It is very important that running ropes be properly lubricated, since, if proper care is not taken, the wear on the interior parts, between the wires, may be almost as great as the outside abrasion. The oil should penetrate to the core of the rope and yet not drip off a few days after application. Information as to the care of rope may be obtained of the Wire Rope Lubricating Company, Newark, N. J.

Sheaves. The size of sheaves recommended in the tables are calculated for a working-load of one-fifth the given breaking-load. If smaller sheaves are used the life of the rope will be greatly shortened, because of the excessive bending of the outer wires.

Table XVI. Galvanized, Steel-Wire Strands

For guys, signal-cords, trolley-line span wire, etc. Taken from the Trenton Iron Company's full list

Diameter in inches	List-price per 100 feet	Weight per 100 feet	Approximate breaking-load in pounds
5/8	\$7.25	80	14 000
9/16	5.75	65	11 000
1/2	4.50	52	8 500
7/16	3.75	41	6 500
3/8	2.75	30	5 000
5/16	2.25	22	3 800
1/4	1.75	13	2 300
7/32	1.50	9½	1 800
3/16	1.25	7½	1 400
5/32	1.15	5½	900
1/8	1.00	3¼	600
3/32	.80	2	400

9. Cotton, Hemp and Manila Rope

Rope is made of cotton, hemp, and Manila fiber. Cotton is used for small sizes, only, and for such purposes as sash-cord, etc.

Manufacture. In the manufacture of rope the fiber is first spun into YARN. From twenty to eighty threads are twisted together into STRANDS and the strands, three or four, are laid together, opposite in direction to the TWIST in the strands, but in the same direction as the THREADS. This causes the fibers to be twisted as the rope untwists and produces a balancing of forces that tends to keep the rope in shape.

Cables and Hawsers are made up of strands of rope.

Rope used for Hoisting wears rapidly from the action of the pulleys and also from the bending which causes a slight internal motion between the fibers and a chafing and grinding away of the interior.

Stevedore-Rope, of the C. W. Hunt Company, is filled with a tallow and plumbago lubricant which decreases the internal friction, lubricates the outside of the rope and thus greatly prolongs its life.

Strength. The values of the strength of new rope, given in Table XVII, are taken from the Specifications of the United States Navy Department, issued in June, 1910, at the Boston Navy-Yard. Manufacturers generally adopt these sizes and weights and claim a strength equal to or a little greater than the values given. The UNIT STRENGTH for the different sizes varies, being about 14 000 lb per sq in for the smaller and about 10 000 for the largest size. The approximate formula, offered by C. W. Hunt, of 720 times the square of the circumference in inches, is equivalent to about 9 000 lb per sq in. American hemp, tarred, has about 5% greater strength than Manila rope of the same size. The navy specifications give for two-strand American-hemp rope, 85% of the strength of the three-strand rope of the same material.

Table XVII. Strength and Weight of Rope

Specifications of the United States Navy, June, 1910

Circumferences in	Diameters in	Manila hemp, plain-laid		American hemp, tarred, plain-laid, three strands	
		Weights lb per ft	Breaking-loads lb	Weights lb per ft	Breaking-loads lb
¾	0.24	0.02	700	0.051	750
1	0.32	0.033	1 000	0.06	1 060
1¼	0.40	0.05	1 800	0.067	1 670
1½	0.48	0.083	2 500	0.083	2 340
1¾	0.56	0.10	3 000	0.105	3 325
2	0.64	0.14	4 000	0.16	3 955
2¼	0.72	0.17	5 000	0.21	4 720
2½	0.80	0.21	5 500	0.26	5 770
2¾	0.87	0.26	6 600	0.32	7 000
3	0.95	0.305	7 800	0.37	8 400
3¼	1.03	0.36	9 200	0.44	9 800
3½	1.16	0.42	10 500	0.51	11 200
3¾	1.19	0.47	12 200	0.59	13 000
4	1.27	0.54	13 700	0.67	14 550
4½	1.43	0.67	17 400	....	......
5	1.59	0.83	21 800	....	......
5½	1.75	1.00	27 700	....	......
6	1.90	1.21	31 000	....	......
7	2.22	1.63	36 200	....	......
8	2.54	2.17	47 300	....	......
9	2.87	2.70	60 000	....	......
10	3.14	3.33	74 200	....	......

Manila-hemp rope is made in three strands and in sizes up to 3 in in circumference; four strands are used for sizes larger than 3 in in circumference.

Working Load. The WORKING LOAD for slow-speed derrick and hoisting-service is usually taken at one-seventh the BREAKING-LOAD. This makes some allowance for the loss of strength at splices and connections. The deterioration of rope exposed to the weather is very rapid. For Manila rope from 1 to 1¾ in in diameter, running over sheaves of the diameters given, C. W. Hunt in Trans. Am. Soc. M. E., Vol. XXIII, gives a table embodying approximately the following results of experience:

Table XVIII. Working Loads for Manila Rope

Working load = $C \times$ breaking-load of new rope

D = minimum diameter of sheave in inches

Speed	Feet per minute	Kind of work	Value of C	D for rope of diameter of	
				1 in	1¾ in
Slow......	50 to 100	Derrick, crane, quarry, etc.	0.014	8	14
Medium...	150 to 300	Wharf, cargo, etc.	0.056	12	18
Rapid.....	400 to 800	....	0.028	40	70

The wear in such service is very rapid, a 1½-in rope wearing out in lifting from 7 000 to 10 000 tons of coal. On the other hand, a 1½-in transmission-rope running at 5 000 ft per min and carrying 1 000 horse-power over sheaves 5 ft and 17 ft in diameter, lasts for years, the difference being due to the smaller stress and larger sheaves.

10. Chains

Manufacture. Chains are made by hand-welding from best wrought-iron bar. The bending and welding reduce the strength so that the chain is not twice but only from 1.55 to 1.70 times as strong as the original bar from which it was made. STUD-CHAIN having a bar welded across each link to stiffen it and prevent fouling in handling, is not as strong as OPEN-LINK CHAIN. G. A. Goodenough, in a Bulletin from the Illinois Engineering Experiment-Station finds that the stud-chain will support a greater load at the ELASTIC LIMIT of the material. If P is the load, d the diameter of the bar and S the stress, the formulas are:

$$P = 0.5\, d^2 S \text{ for the stud-chain, and}$$

$$P = 0.4\, d^2 S \text{ for the open-link chain.}$$

Proof-Tests. A proof-test is applied to chains by the manufacturers. The load applied is one-half the average BREAKING-LOAD. It serves to detect bad welds and gives a chain a slight permanent set, so that for working loads thereafter there will be little stretching of the chain. The ordinary WORKING LOAD should not be greater than one-third the breaking-load.

Care of Chains. Chains in constant use require lubrication and frequent annealing. They harden in service and are liable to unexpected failure if not annealed. It is recommended that hoisting-chains and sling-chains be annealed at least once a year. It is also very important that the ordinary SAFE WORKING STRESS be not exceeded.

Table XIX. Sizes, Weights, Proof-Tests and Average Breaking-Loads for Chains

Bradlee and Company, Philadelphia

Size of chains in	Approximate weight per foot	D.B.G. special crane		Crane	
		Proof-test lb	Average breaking-load lb	Proof-test lb	Average breaking-load lb
¼	¾	1 932	3 864	1 680	3 360
⅜	1½	4 186	8 372	3 640	7 280
½	2.5	7 728	15 456	6 720	13 440
⅝	4.1	11 914	23 828	10 360	20 720
¾	6.2	17 388	34 776	15 120	30 240
⅞	8.4	22 484	44 968	20 440	40 880
1	10.5	29 568	59 136	26 880	53 760
1⅛	13.6	37 576	75 152	34 160	68 320
1¼	16	46 200	92 400	42 000	84 000
1⅜	19.2	55 748	111 496	50 680	101 360
1½	23	66 528	133 056	60 480	120 960
1⅝	28	74 382	148 764		
1¾	31	82 320	164 640		
1⅞	35	94 360	188 720		
2	40	107 520	215 040		
2⅛	46.5	121 240	242 480		

The specifications of the United States Navy Department require the same proof-test as is given above for crane-chain and a breaking-strength 10% greater than that given for special crane-chain.

Table XX. Proof-Tests and Average Breaking-Loads for Studded Chain-Cables

Specifications of the United States Navy Department

Size of cable in	Proof-test lb	Average breaking-load lb	Size of cable in	Proof-test lb	Average breaking-load lb
1	34 607	67 526	1 15/16	130 202	225 687
1⅛	43 812	82 686	2	138 739	239 732
1¼	54 194	100 630	2 1/16	147 544	254 223
1 5/16	59 784	109 771	2⅛	156 622	269 160
1⅜	65 574	119 355	2¼	175 591	300 373
1 7/16	71 672	129 385	2½	216 779	368 153
1½	78 041	139 861	2⅝	238 995	404 719
1 9/16	84 678	150 783	2¾	262 302	443 069
1⅝	91 588	162 152	2⅞	286 692	483 203
1¾	106 222	186 228	3	312 165	525 121
1⅞	121 937	212 188	3⅛	339 102	567 823

Strength of Old Iron. A square link 12 in broad, 1 in thick, and ab 12 ft long was taken from the Kieff Bridge, then forty years old, and testec comparison with a similar link which had been preserved in the stock-house si the bridge was built. The following is a record of a mean of four longitudi test-pieces, 1 by 1⅛ by 8 in, taken from each link.

Table XXI. Strength of Old Chain-Links*

	Old link from bridge	New link fro stock-house
Tensile strength per sq in, tons	21.8	22.2
Elastic limit per sq in, tons	11.1	11.9
Elongation, per cent	14.05	18.42
Contraction, per cent	17.35	18.75

* Taken from the Mechanical World, London.

CHAPTER XII

RESISTANCE TO SHEAR. RIVETED JOINTS. PINS AND BOLTS

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1. Shear

Shear is the internal stress in a body which resists the tendency of two adjacent parts to slide on each other, due to the action of two equal and parallel external forces, called SHEARING-FORCES, acting on opposite sides of the plane of shear.

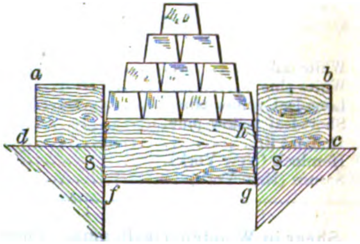


Fig. 1. Shearing-failure of Beam

If the piece *abcd* of Fig. 1 represents a short simple beam of brittle material on which a sufficient load is applied, it will fail in VERTICAL SHEAR at *f* and *g*, as shown, by a sliding on the sections of the beam at these points, because the upward force of the reaction at *S* and the downward force of the load adjacent to *S*, against which it acts across the section at *S*, is greater than the total SHEARING RESISTANCE of the section. Shear is present over the entire length of the beam, and at any section is equal to the reaction at *S* minus the weight of the load between the reaction and the section in question. In general, the VERTICAL SHEAR at any section of a beam subjected to vertical loads is equal to the algebraic sum of all the vertical forces acting on the beam on either side of the section.

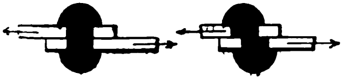


Fig. 2. Example of Single Shear

Single and Double Shear. A rivet connecting two bars under tension (Fig. 2) is subjected to a SHEARING-STRESS. If one section of the rivet transmits the force the rivet is said to be in SINGLE SHEAR; if two sections, it is in DOUBLE SHEAR.

Distribution of Shear. Shear is considered to be UNIFORMLY DISTRIBUTED over the section except in cases of torsion and of complex stresses.

For the ordinary cases of shear in rivets, etc., if

S_s = the allowable unit stress in shear,
A = the area under stress,
and P = the safe shearing-load;
then

$$P = AS_s \qquad (1)$$

The Ultimate Strength in Shear has been determined for building materials by testing suitably prepared specimens and dividing the maximum load observed by the area under stress. For material like wood, in which there are planes of weakness, tests must be made which take these into account. The direction of the force with respect to these planes must be considered in choosing the SAFE WORKING STRESS from the tables.

Safe Working Stresses in Shear. Table I gives SAFE WORKING STRESSES in SHEAR for those building materials usually subjected to such stresses.

Table I. Safe Working Stress in Shear for Building Materials

Material	Safe stress in lb per sq in	
Cast iron (New York)	3 000	
Wrought iron	7 500	
Steel, bolts, rivets	10 000 (average)	
	With the grain	Across the grain
White oak	200	1 000
White pine	100	500
Long-leaf yellow pine	150	1 250
Short-leaf yellow pine	130	1 000
Douglas fir	130	900
Hemlock (New York)	40	275
Spruce (New York)	50	320

Shear in Wooden Tie-Beams. There are a few cases in architectural construction in which the weakness of wood in shear must be provided for. The one most frequently arising is the framing of the end of the tie-beams in wooden trusses.

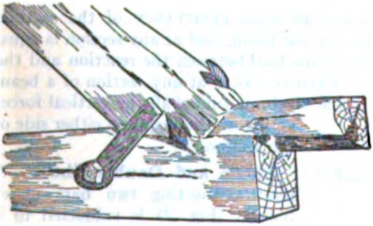


Fig. 3. Shearing-failure in Wood

Fig. 3 was made from a photograph of a SHEARING-FAILURE of a tie-beam from the thrust of the rafter.

Horizontal Shear in Wooden Beams. Failure like that shown in Fig. 1 rarely occurs in wood; but rectangular wooden beams, the length of which is less than about twenty times the depth, are liable to fail by HORIZONTAL SHEAR along the middle, under about the same loads that cause the allowable working stresses in bending.

Shear at the End of a Tie-Beam. In the case of the truss-joint (Fig. 4), the thrust S of the rafter tends to shear off the part $ABCD$ along the plane of which CD is the trace. This area under stress must offer a SHEARING RESISTANCE equal to the horizontal component H of the thrust S. The width of the beam b, being fixed, formula (1) gives

$$H = (CD \times b) Ss \quad \text{or} \quad CD = H/bSs$$

The shear being in the same direction as the grain of the wood, the lower value in Table I must be used.

Example 1 (Fig. 4). The horizontal component of the thrust of a rafter is 20 000 lb. The long-leaf yellow pine tie-beam is 10 in wide. How far should the beam extend beyond the point *D*?

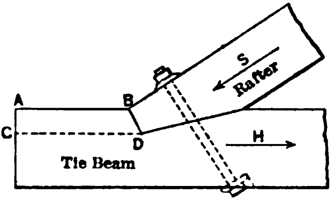


Fig. 4. Truss-joint

Solution. In this case $H = 20\,000$ lb. From Table I, $S_s = 150$ lb per sq in. Then $CD = \frac{20\,000}{10 \times 150} = 13.3$ in and should be made at least 13½ in.

As actually constructed a large part of the thrust is generally taken up by a bolt or strap at the foot of the rafter to hold it in place. As the bolt and shoulder seldom act together, either the length *CD* on the tie-beam should be made long enough to resist the entire thrust, or the bolt or strap designed to do so without relying on the shearing resistance in the plane of *CD*. The design of such joints is more fully considered under Subdivision 4, pages 429 to 439 of this chapter.

2. Riveted Joints

Use of Rivets. Rivets almost exclusively are used in connecting the plates and shapes which make up the members of framed steel construction.

Rivet-Definitions. A rivet is a piece of cylindrical rod with a HEAD forged on one end and usually with a slight taper at the other end of the SHANK. The grip (Table IV) of the rivet is the length betweeen the under sides of the heads after driving, or the thickness of the parts joined. The LENGTH (Table IV) of the rivet is equal to the grip plus enough of the stock to form a head, and is measured from the end of the shank to the under surface of the head. The DIAMETER OF THE SHANK of a rivet is made equal to its NOMINAL DIAMETER, but rivets are driven into holes ⅛ in larger in diameter and upset by the driving so as to completely fill the holes. The shearing values and bearing values are based upon the NOMINAL AREA and not upon the area of the hole.

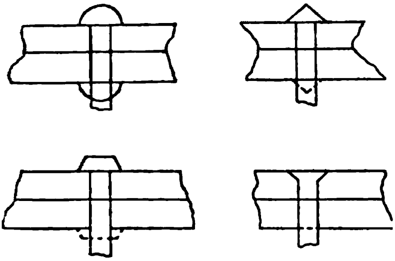


Fig. 5. Forms of Rivet-heads

Riveting consists in heating the rivet to a welding-heat, passing it through holes in the parts to be joined and forging another head out of the projecting shank. This may be done by hand-hammering; but shops use compressed-air-operated hand-hammers or large riveting-machines which form the head and cause the shank to completely fill the hole by heavy pressure on a die.

Material of Rivets. Rivets are made of soft steel and of wrought iron. Rivet-steel is generally used. The head may have any of the forms shown in Fig. 5, although the first, called the BUTTON-HEAD, is the standard for structural work. The fourth or COUNTERSUNK HEAD is used where it is necessary to have a flat surface, as over a bearing-plate.

The Sizes of Rivet-Heads differ slightly at different mills. The Standards of the American Bridge Company give for the DIAMETER OF THE HEAD, one and one-half times the diameter of the shank plus ⅛ in, and for the HEIGHT of the head, 0.425 times the diameter of the head. Countersunk heads have a SLOPE of 30° and a DEPTH equal to one-half the diameter of the shank.

The Pitch of Rivets. By this is meant the center-to-center distance between them in a line of riveting. The distance between lines of rivets, or from the back of an angle or channel to a rivet-line is called the GAUGE-DISTANCE. By STAGGERED PITCH is meant the arrangement of rivets midway between others on successive rivet-lines in order to decrease the section less than when they are arranged in rectangular rows, and at the same time to place a greater number of rivets in a definite area. The PITCH should not be made less than three diameters of the rivet and the DISTANCE FROM THE EDGE of the plate not less than one and one-half diameters, although it may be necessary to make the distance less when small angles are used. The pitch of countersunk rivets must be greater than that of button-head rivets because of the greater amount of material removed.

Punching Rivet-Holes. Rivet-holes are made with power-punches. The SPACING is marked on the different parts to be fastened together by means of wooden templates with holes drilled to locate the position of the rivets. When the different parts are assembled, the holes are laid out by the same TEMPLATE-REGISTER, so that the rivets may be inserted without difficulty. PUNCHING makes a ragged hole. The flow of the metal under the great pressure hardens it and causes a loss in strength of from 11 to 33% as reported by W. C. Unwin for soft steel. The injury may be removed by ANNEALING or by REAMING away the injured part of the metal. Enlarging a ⅞-in. hole by reaming to 1⅛ in has been found to remove all the injurious effects of punching. One method practiced in the best work is to punch the holes 1/16 in less in diameter than the diameter of the rivets, and to ream them to a diameter 1/16 in greater, after the parts are assembled and bolted together. This removes the greater part of the injury from punching and corrects the alinement of the holes. (See Table XI, page 400, and Table I, page 702.)

Drift-Pins. When the alinement of a hole is such as to prevent the insertion of the rivet, it is the practice in some shops to drive in a tapered DRIFT-PIN and distort the holes in some of the plates sufficiently to set the rivet. This causes LOCAL STRESSES and injury to the plates and should not be permitted.

Shop-Riveting is done with powerful air or hydraulic riveting-machines which may exert a pressure of from 30 to 50 tons, sufficient to upset a perfect head on the projecting end of the shank and to completely fill the hole even though the alinement is imperfect. Contraction on cooling causes great pressure between the parts, so that it is probable that in good work the rivet is under little or no shearing-stress, the force being transmitted through the frictional resistance of the plates.

Clearance. It is important that the designer place the rivets so they may be inserted from one side and pounded on the other for HAND-WORK, or so that the machine may reach them for MACHINE-RIVETED WORK. For example, the minimum distance from the inside face of the leg of one angle to a line of rivets in the other leg must not be less than 1⅛ in for ⅞-in rivets, 1 in for ¾-in rivets, etc. In general, a distance ⅝ in greater than the diameter of the head should be allowed for CLEARANCE.

Inspection. The common imperfections in riveting are LOOSE RIVETS and ECCENTRIC HEADS. Loose rivets may be detected by holding the hand against one side of the rivet-head and tapping the other side with a light hammer. If loose, a slight slip may be felt. The loose rivets should be marked to be cut out and replaced. The inspector should also carefully check open holes left for field-connections, and see that flattened and countersunk rivets are as called for, because such work may be done at less expense in the shop than in the field, where it may cause delay.

The Failure of Riveted Joints may occur

(1) In TENSION, by the tearing of the plate through the line of rivets (Fig. 8).

(2) In SHEAR, by the cutting of the rivets (Fig. 7).

(3) In BEARING, by the crushing of the plate in front of the rivets, the splitting of the plate, or, in some cases, by the shearing out of the sections in front of the rivets. In a careful design of a joint the strength against failure by each of these methods must be investigated (Fig. 6 and Fig. 9).

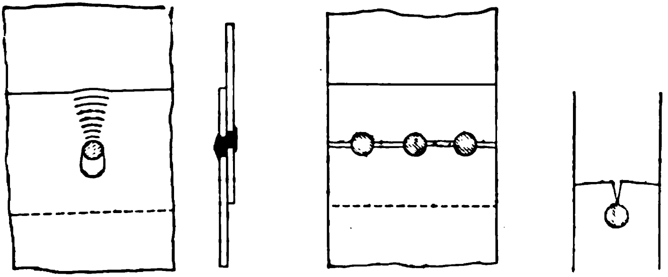


Fig. 6 Fig. 7 Fig. 8 Fig. 9

Figs. 6 to 9. Methods of Failure in Riveted Joints

The Steps in the Design of any type of riveted joint are, (1) the selection of the size of the rivet to be used, (2) the determination of its shearing and bearing strength and the use of the smaller value of the two to divide into the total load to be transmitted and thus determine the number of rivets, (3) the arrangement of the rivets in the plate and the investigation of its strength in tension at the dangerous section.

The Size of Rivets is determined in part by SHOP-PRACTICE. Holes cannot be punched in plates which are thicker than the diameter of the punch. The following table gives the size of rivets used with plates of different thickness. Some specifications for structural work require all rivets to be ¾ in, except where thick plates require larger ones.

Thickness of plates	Size of rivets
¼ to 7/16 in	⅝ in
½ to ⅝ in	¾ in
11/16 to 13/16 in	⅞ in
⅞ to 1 in	1 in

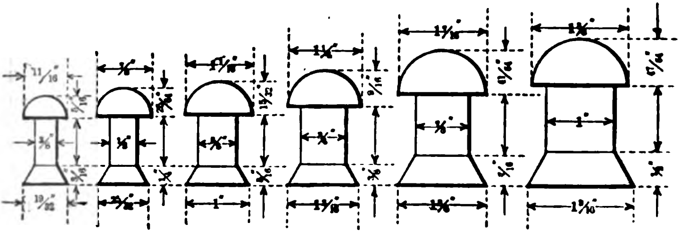
Tables II and III give the SHEARING and BEARING VALUES for different sizes of rivets in plates of different thickness for two values of working stresses each; shear at 7 500 and 10 000 lb per sq in and bearing at 15 000 and 18 000 lb per sq in. Values for higher stresses can be figured by proportion from these tables. The lower stresses should be used with wrought iron or in parts subjected to live loads; the higher stresses where only constant or dead loads are present.

The SHEARING VALUE is equal to the area of the rivet multiplied by the working stress; the BEARING VALUE is equal to the area of the projected surface under pressure multiplied by the working stress in bearing, or, if

t = the thickness of the plate;
d = the diameter of the rivet;
and S_b = the working stress in bearing;
then the bearing value $P = dtS_b$ (2)

The Shearing and Bearing Values may be taken directly from the tables, and if a rivet is in double shear, twice the quantity in the table is to be used for its SHEARING VALUE. Quantities above the heavy broken lines are BEARING VALUES greater than the values in single shear, so that for these conditions, the number of rivets necessary in a joint required to transmit a certain load is determined by dividing the load by the value in single shear. If rivets are in, double shear, the number of rivets required is found by dividing the load by the BEARING VALUE.

Rivet-Proportions.* The following diagrams show various rivet-proportions, including the dimensions of shanks and of finished and countersunk heads:



FINISHED HEADS

Diam head = 1½ diam of shank + ⅛" depth of head = 9/20 diam of head

COUNTERSUNK HEADS

Depth of head = ½ diam of shank. Bevel of head = 60°

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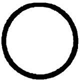
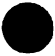
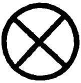
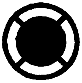
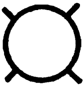
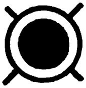
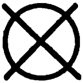
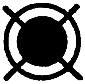
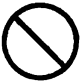
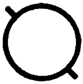
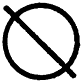
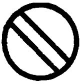
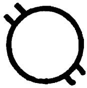
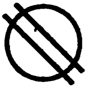
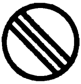
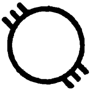
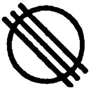
* These proportions vary slightly at different mills and in different handbooks.

Conventional Signs for Riveting. The following diagrams show some conventional signs for riveting:

	SHOP	FIELD
Two Full Heads		
Countersunk Inside (Farside) and Chipped		
Countersunk Outside (Nearside) and Chipped		
Countersunk both Sides and Chipped		

	INSIDE (FARSIDE)	OUTSIDE (NEARSIDE)	BOTH SIDES
Flattened to ⅛ in high or Countersunk and not Chipped			
Flattened to ¼ in high			
Flattened ⅜ in high			

This system, designed by F. C. Osborn, has for its foundation a diagonal cross to represent a countersink, a blackened circle for a field-rivet and a diagonal stroke for a flattened head. The position of the cross with respect to the circle, inside, outside, or on both sides, indicates the location of the countersink; and similarly, the number and position of the diagonal strokes indicate the height and position of the flattened heads. Any combination of field, countersunk and flattened-head rivets liable to be used may be readily indicated by the proper combination of the above signs.

Table II. Shearing and Bearing Values[*] of Rivets

For Riveted Girders and Wrought Iron

Diameter of rivet in inches		Area of rivet	Single shear at 7 500 lb per sq in	Bearing value for different thicknesses in inches of plate at 15 000 lb per sq in (=diameter of rivet × thickness of plate × 15 000 lb per sq in)										
Fractions	Decimals			1/4	5/16	3/8	7/16	1/2	9/16	5/8	11/16	3/4	13/16	7/8
3/8	0.375	0.1104	828	1 410	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
7/16	0.4375	0.1503	1 130	1 640	2 050	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
1/2	0.5	0.1963	1 470	1 880	2 340	2 810	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
9/16	0.5625	0.2485	1 860	2 110	2 640	3 160	3 690	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
5/8	0.625	0.3068	2 300	2 340	2 930	3 520	4 100	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
11/16	0.6876	0.3712	2 780	2 580	3 220	3 870	4 510	5 160	......	......	......	......	......	......
3/4	0.75	0.4418	3 310	2 810	3 520	4 220	4 920	5 630	6 330	......	......	......	......	......
13/16	0.8125	0.5185	3 890	3 050	3 810	4 570	5 330	6 090	6 860	7 620	......	......	......	......
7/8	0.875	0.6013	4 510	3 280	4 100	4 920	5 740	6 560	7 380	8 200	......	......	......	......
15/16	0.9375	0.6903	5 180	3 520	4 390	5 270	6 150	7 030	7 910	8 790	9 670	......	......	......
1	1.0	0.7854	5 890	3 750	4 690	5 620	6 560	7 500	8 440	9 380	10 310	11 250	......	......
1 1/16	1.0625	0.8866	6 650	3 980	4 980	5 980	6 970	7 970	8 960	9 960	10 960	11 950	12 950	......
1 1/8	1.125	0.9940	7 460	4 220	5 270	6 330	7 380	8 440	9 490	10 550	11 600	12 660	13 710	14 770
1 3/16	1.1875	1.1075	8 310	4 450	5 570	6 680	7 790	8 910	10 020	11 130	12 250	13 360	14 470	15 590

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[*] Values for higher or lower unit stresses for shear or bearing to satisfy particular building laws can be figured by proportion from the table. See, also, paragraph on Working Stresses for Rivets, page 423. The Cambria Handbook (1912) gives values of from 12 000 to 20 000 and Carnegie's Pocket Companion (1915) values of from 14 000 to 24 000 lb per sq in for bearing for various structures. In the Boston building law 18 000, and in the New York City building law 20 000 lb per sq in are used.

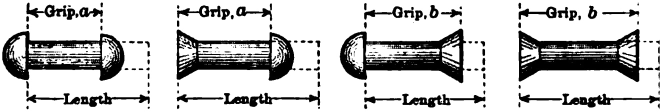
Table III. Shearing and Bearing Values* of Rivets
For Steel-Beam Connections and Joints in Steel Roof-Trusses

Diameter of rivet in inches		Area of rivet	Single shear, 10 000 lb per sq in	Bearing value for different thicknesses of plate at 18 000 lb per sq in (=diameter of rivet × thickness of plate × 18 000 lb per sq in)										
Fraction	Decimals			1/4	5/16	3/8	7/16	1/2	9/16	5/8	11/16	3/4	13/16	7/8
3/8	0.375	0.1104	1 100	1 680	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
7/16	0.4375	0.1503	1 500	1 960	2 450	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
1/2	0.5	0.1963	1 960	2 240	2 800	3 370	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
9/16	0.5625	0.2485	2 480	2 520	3 150	3 790	4 420	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
5/8	0.625	0.3068	3 060	2 800	3 500	4 210	4 910	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
11/16	0.6875	0.3712	3 710	3 090	3 860	4 640	5 400	6 180	......	......	......	......	......	......
3/4	0.75	0.4418	4 420	3 370	4 210	5 060	5 890	6 740	7 580	......	......	......	......	......
13/16	0.8125	0.5185	5 180	3 650	4 560	5 480	6 390	7 300	8 210	9 120	......	......	......	......
7/8	0.875	0.6013	6 010	3 930	4 910	5 900	6 880	7 860	8 840	9 820	......	......	......	......
15/16	0.9375	0.6903	6 900	4 210	5 260	6 330	7 370	8 420	9 470	10 520	11 590	......	......	......
1	1.000	0.7854	7 850	4 500	5 620	6 750	7 860	9 000	10 120	11 240	12 370	13 500	......	......
1 1/16	1.0625	0.8866	8 860	4 780	5 970	7 170	8 360	9 560	10 750	11 940	13 140	14 340	15 530	......
1 1/8	1.125	0.9940	9 940	5 060	6 320	7 590	8 850	10 120	11 380	12 640	13 910	15 180	16 440	17 700
1 3/16	1.1875	1.1075	11 070	5 340	6 670	8 010	9 350	10 680	12 010	13 340	14 680	16 020	17 360	18 700

* Values for higher or lower unit stresses for shear or bearing to satisfy particular building laws can be figured by proportion from the table. See, also, paragraph on Working Stresses for Rivets, page 423. The Cambria Handbook (1912) gives values of from 12 000 to 20 000 and Carnegie's Pocket Companion (1915) values of from 14 000 to 24 000 lb per sq in for bearing for various structures. In the Boston building law 18 000 and in the New York City building law 20 000 lb per sq in are used.

Table IV. Length of Field-Rivets for Various Grips. Length of Rivet-Shan to Form Head

American Bridge Company Standard. Dimensions in Inches



Grip *a*	Diameter					Grip *b*	Diameter				
	½	⅝	¾	⅞	1		½	⅝	¾	⅞	1
½	1½	1¾	1⅞	2	2⅛	½	1⅛	1¼	1¼	1⅜	1⅜
⅝	1⅝	1⅞	2	2⅛	2¼	⅝	1¼	1⅜	1⅜	1½	1½
¾	1¾	2	2⅛	2¼	2⅜	¾	1⅜	1½	1½	1⅝	1⅝
⅞	1⅞	2⅛	2¼	2⅜	2½	⅞	1½	1⅝	1⅝	1¾	1¾
1	2	2¼	2⅜	2½	2⅝	1	1⅝	1¾	1¾	1⅞	1⅞
⅛	2⅛	2⅜	2½	2⅝	2¾	⅛	1¾	1⅞	1⅞	2	2
¼	2¼	2½	2⅝	2¾	2⅞	¼	1⅞	2	2	2⅛	2⅛
⅜	2⅜	2⅝	2¾	2⅞	3	⅜	2	2⅛	2⅛	2¼	2¼
½	2⅝	2⅞	3	3⅛	3¼	½	2⅛	2¼	2⅜	2⅜	2½
⅝	2¾	3	3⅛	3¼	3⅜	⅝	2¼	2⅜	2½	2½	2⅝
¾	3	3¼	3⅜	3½	3⅝	¾	2½	2⅝	2¾	2¾	2⅞
⅞	3⅛	3⅜	3½	3⅝	3¾	⅞	2⅝	2¾	2⅞	2⅞	3
2	3¼	3½	3⅝	3¾	3⅞	2	2¾	2⅞	3	3	3⅛
⅛	3⅜	3⅝	3¾	3⅞	4	⅛	2⅞	3	3⅛	3⅛	3¼
¼	3½	3¾	3⅞	4	4⅛	¼	3	3⅛	3¼	3¼	3⅜
⅜	3⅝	3⅞	4	4⅛	4¼	⅜	3⅛	3¼	3⅜	3⅜	3½
½	3¾	4	4⅛	4¼	4⅜	½	3¼	3⅜	3½	3½	3⅝
⅝	3⅞	4⅛	4¼	4⅜	4½	⅝	3⅜	3½	3⅝	3⅝	3¾
¾	4	4¼	4⅜	4½	4⅝	¾	3½	3⅝	3¾	3¾	3⅞
⅞	4⅛	4⅜	4½	4⅝	4¾	⅞	3⅝	3¾	3⅞	3⅞	4
3	4⅜	4⅝	4¾	4⅞	5	3	3⅞	4	4	4⅛	4¼
⅛	4½	4¾	4⅞	5	5⅛	⅛	4	4⅛	4⅛	4¼	4⅜
¼	4⅝	4⅞	5	5⅛	5¼	¼	4⅛	4¼	4¼	4⅜	4½
⅜	4¾	5	5⅛	5¼	5⅜	⅜	4¼	4⅜	4⅜	4½	4⅝
½	4⅞	5⅛	5¼	5⅜	5½	½	4⅜	4½	4½	4⅝	4¾
⅝	5	5¼	5⅜	5½	5⅝	⅝	4½	4⅝	4⅝	4¾	4⅞
¾	5⅛	5⅜	5½	5⅝	5¾	¾	4⅝	4¾	4¾	4⅞	5
⅞	5¼	5½	5⅝	5¾	5⅞	⅞	4¾	4⅞	4⅞	5	5⅛
4	5⅜	5⅝	5¾	5⅞	6	4	4⅞	5	5	5⅛	5¼
⅛	5⅝	5⅞	6	6⅛	6¼	⅛	5⅛	5¼	5¼	5⅜	5½
¼	5¾	6	6⅛	6¼	6⅜	¼	5¼	5⅜	5⅜	5½	5⅝
⅜	6	6¼	6⅜	6½	6⅝	⅜	5½	5⅝	5⅝	5⅝	5¾
½	6⅛	6⅜	6½	6⅝	6¾	½	5⅝	5¾	5¾	5¾	5⅞
⅝	6¼	6½	6⅝	6¾	6⅞	⅝	5¾	5⅞	5⅞	5⅞	6
¾	6⅜	6⅝	6¾	6⅞	7	¾	5⅞	6	6	6	6⅛
⅞	6½	6¾	6⅞	7	7⅛	⅞	6	6⅛	6⅛	6⅛	6¼
5	6⅝	6⅞	7	7⅛	7¼	5	6⅛	6¼	6¼	6¼	6⅜
⅛	....	....	7⅛	7¼	7⅜	⅛	....	....	6⅜	6⅜	6½
¼	....	....	7¼	7⅜	7½	¼	....	....	6½	6½	6⅝
⅜	....	....	7⅜	7½	7⅝	⅜	....	....	6⅝	6⅝	6¾
½	....	....	7½	7¾	7⅞	½	....	....	6⅞	6⅞	7
⅝	....	....	7¾	7⅞	8	⅝	....	....	7	7	7⅛
¾	....	....	7⅞	8	8⅛	¾	....	....	7⅛	7⅛	7¼
⅞	....	....	8	8⅛	8¼	⅞	....	....	7¼	7¼	7⅜

For weight of rivets, see page 1442.

Use of Riveted Joints. Riveted joints are used in building-construction (1) in tie-bar splices, (2) in floor-beam connections, (3) in the joints of trusses, (4) in riveted girders, and (5) in column-connections.

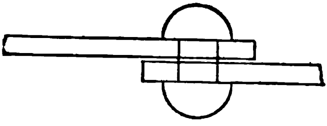


Fig. 10. Lap-joint

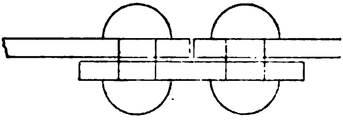


Fig. 11. Butt-joint with Single Cover-plate

Splicing of Tie-Bars. Tie-bars may be spliced by a LAP-JOINT (Fig. 10); by a BUTT-JOINT with a single cover-plate (Fig. 11); or by a BUTT-JOINT with two cover-plates (Fig. 12).

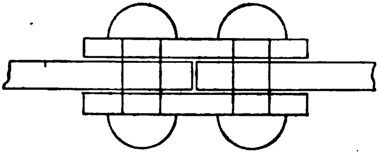


Fig. 12. Butt-joint with Two Cover-plates

The Butt-Joint is symmetrical and more efficient than the others because of the absence of any tendency to bend when under a load. The net area of the cover-plates at the section through the rivets at the end of the main plate must be equal to the net area of the main plate through the rivets at the end of the cover-plate. Fig. 14 shows a better arrangement of rivets than that in Fig. 13, because less area is removed at the critical section of the cover-plates. In some cases it may be necessary to make the aggregate thickness of the cover-plates greater than the thickness of the main plates.

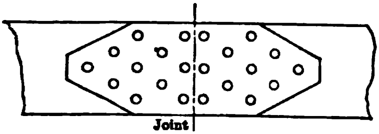


Fig. 13. Cover-plate. Six Rivets at Critical Section

A joint with one line of rivets is said to be SINGLE-RIVETED, one with two lines DOUBLE-RIVETED, and one with more than two lines, CHAIN-RIVETED.

Example 2. It is required to determine the number of rivets in the splice of a 12 by ½-in tie-bar which is subject to a tensile force of 65 000 lb.

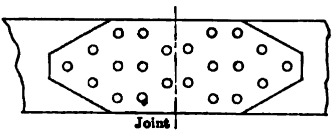


Fig. 14. Cover-plate. Four Rivets at Critical Section

Solution. Assuming that the load is constant, the stresses in Table III may be used. Assuming, also, a lap-joint like that in Fig. 15, and ¾-in rivets, the value in shear of one rivet is found to be 4 420 lb and the bearing value against a ½-in plate, 6 740 lb. The number of rivets is determined by the shear to be equal to 65 000 divided by 4 420, or fifteen. Since sixteen rivets are required to complete a figure smaller but similar in arrangement to that shown in Fig. 15, this number is used. There is some latitude possible in the spacing of the rivets, but with a width of 12 in, the horizontal gauge-lines are placed 1½ in apart for symmetry. If the pitch *P*, as shown in Fig. 15, is required to be three times the diameter of the rivet, this diagonal pitch across the rivet-spacing must be 2.25 in, or greater. The length of the horizontal or third side of the right-angled triangle, having an hypotenuse of 2.25 in and a vertical altitude of 1.5 in, is 1.68 in, which requires that this distance *ED*, etc., be 1.75 in, if measured in multiples of ¼ in.

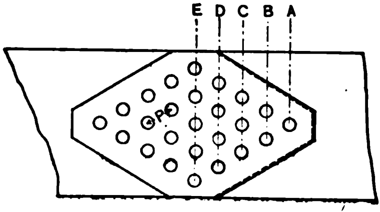


Fig. 15. Rivet-spacing in Cover-plate

Floor-Beam Connections. The two following examples illustrate common types of floor-beam connections.

Example 3. It is required to determine the number of ¾-in rivets to connect a 10-in 25-lb I beam supporting 24 000 lb to a 15-in 42-lb I beam, using a shearing-stress of 10 000 lb per sq in and a bearing-stress of 18 000 lb per sq in.

Solution. From the table of properties of standard I beams, pages 454–5, the thickness of the web of the 10-in 25-lb beam is found to be 0.31 in, say 5/16 in, and of the 15-in 42-lb beam, 0.41 in, say 7/16 in. Referring to Table III, page 419, the bearing values for a ¾-in rivet for these thicknesses of webs are respectively 4 210 lb and 5 890 lb. The shearing value of the rivet is 4 420 lb. The rivets in the 10-in beam are in double shear; hence the bearing value governs. The number of rivets, then, is 12 000, the end-reaction, divided by 4 210, or 3. For the 15-in beam the shearing value is less, and the number of rivets required is 12 000 divided by 4 420, or 3. Hence two standard connection-angles, 6 by 4 by ⅝ in and 5 in long, may be used. Each has three holes in one leg and two in the other. The leg with three holes is placed on the 10-in beam with the rivets in double shear, and the leg with two holes is connected to the 15-in beam; thus, in the latter case there are four rivets where only three are required for strength. They are driven in the field during the erection of the structure and the working stress is accordingly made less in most specifications because of the better work possible with the heavy machines used in shop-work, than with the tools available in the field.

Example 4. It is required to determine the number of ¾-in rivets in a 4 by 4 by ½-in angle-bracket attached to an 18-in 55-lb beam and supporting a 10 by 12-in wooden beam on which there is a load of 18 000 lb.

Solution. The rivets are in single shear with a shearing-resistance of 4 420 lb, taken from Table III. The thickness of the web of the I beam is 7/16 in, giving a bearing value of 5 890 lb. Dividing 9 000 lb, the end-reaction, by 4 420 lb, the controlling value, we find that two rivets are insufficient. The bracket may be fastened with three ¾-in rivets with a spacing of 4 in. Two ⅞-in rivets are sufficient to hold the bracket.

Rivets in Plate Girders. The methods of determining the rivets in plate and box girders are given in Chapter XX.

Bending Stress in Rivets. While the BENDING STRENGTH of PINS at the joints of articulated trusses is always investigated, this is never done in the case of RIVETS. A hot rivet properly driven is, when cold, under a tensile stress which is nearly equal to the elastic limit of the material. This causes great pressure between the plates and a consequent frictional resistance to movement, which, under the usual conditions, equals the allowed shearing-force on the rivet; and so, until an INITIAL SLIP occurs, there can be no BENDING STRESSES in the rivet. In the case of very long rivets driven in holes where there is an imperfect alinement of the plates and a consequent difficulty in making the rivets fill the holes completely, it is not probable that any large bending stresses can occur in the rivets of a structure. This has been avoided in a few structures for which long TAPER RIVETS were specified to be used in holes REAMED with TAPERED REAMERS, thus insuring a perfect filling of the holes.

Working Stresses. Tables II and III are based on stresses which approximate those used in the best practice. Table II is used for the few structures made of WROUGHT IRON and for those places in steel structures that are subject to severe conditions of service, as in the floor-systems of bridges. Table III is used for ordinary structural work made under the conditions governing in modern shop-practice. For comparison, the following stresses taken from the specifications of Theodore Cooper for Steel Railroad Bridges and Steel Highway Bridges are given:

Specification for	Allowable stresses on rivets, lb per sq in	
	Bearing	Shear
Steel railroad bridges	15 000 (12 000 on floors) 22 500 for laterals	9 000 (7 200 on floors) 13 500 for laterals
Steel highway bridges	18 000 (14 400 on floor-beams) 27 000 for laterals	10 000 (8 000 on floor-beams) 14 000 for laterals

Rivets driven in the field are allowed two-thirds the value of shop-driven rivets.

3. Strength of Pins in Trusses*

Truss-Pins. In the design of the PINS at the joints of trusses the stresses in SHEAR, BEARING FLEXURE or BENDING must be investigated.

The Shearing-Force at any section of the pin is the algebraic sum of all the forces acting on the pin on either side of the section. The stress is considered to be uniformly distributed over the cross-section of the pin. When the forces do not act in the same plane they must be resolved into vertical and horizontal components and the resultant of these components taken as the shear at any desired section. This may be done by the principles of GRAPHIC STATICS, or by TRIGONOMETRICAL and ALGEBRAICAL METHODS, the graphic method being, for some, the more rapid.

The Bearing Area on the pin is taken as the PROJECTION OF THE AREA OF CONTACT, the area of this projection being equal to the diameter of the pin multiplied by the thickness of the plate. The bearing is assumed to be uniformly distributed; hence for any load the intensity of the pressure may be decreased by increasing the thickness of the plate or the diameter of the pin.

The Bending Moments on the pin may be found by the PRINCIPLE OF MOMENTS or by methods involving the principles of GRAPHIC STATICS explained in Chapter IX in finding the bending moments of beams. The forces are considered to be concentrated at the middle of the bearing-plates. If they do not lie in a plane with the pin they must be resolved into their vertical and horizontal components and these component forces in the two planes treated separately. The resultants in both planes at any section may be combined and a single resultant force acting on the section obtained, and also the consequent stresses due to it.

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* Since the introduction of rolled-steel shapes and riveted joints, pin-joints for trusses in buildings have fallen into disuse. The general principles of their design, however, are given here.

Table V. Shearing and Bearing Values of Pins for One-Inch Thickness of Plate, in Pounds per Square Inch

Diameter of pin, in	Area of pin, sq in	Bearing value at 12 000 lb per sq in, lb	Single shear 7 500 lb per sq in, lb	Diameter of pin, in	Area of pin, sq in	Bearing value at 12 000 lb per sq in, lb	Single shear 7 500 lb per sq in, tons
1	0.785	12 000	5 890	4	12.57	48 000	47.0
1⅛	0.994	13 500	7 455	4⅛	13.36	49 500	50.1
1¼	1.227	15 000	9 202	4¼	14.19	51 000	53.2
1⅜	1.485	16 500	11 132	4⅜	15.03	52 500	56.3
1½	1.767	18 000	13 252	4½	15.90	54 000	59.6
1⅝	2.074	19 500	15 555	4⅝	16.80	55 500	63.0
1¾	2.405	21 000	18 037	4¾	17.72	57 000	66.3
1⅞	2.760	22 500	20 707	4⅞	18.67	58 500	70.0
2	3.142	24 000	23 565	5	19.64	60 000	73.6
2⅛	3.547	25 500	26 600	5⅛	20.63	61 500	77.3
2¼	3.976	27 000	29 820	5¼	21.65	63 000	81.2
2⅜	4.430	28 500	33 225	5⅜	22.69	64 500	85.1
2½	4.909	30 000	36 817	5½	23.76	66 000	89.1
2⅝	5.412	31 500	40 590	5⅝	24.85	67 500	93.2
2¾	5.940	33 000	44 550	5¾	25.97	69 000	97.3
2⅞	6.492	34 500	48 690	5⅞	27.11	70 500	101.1
			tons				
3	7.069	36 000	26.5	6	28.27	72 000	106
3⅛	7.670	37 500	28.7	6⅛	29.46	73 500	110
3¼	8.296	39 000	31.0	6¼	30.68	75 000	115
3⅜	8.946	40 500	33.5	6⅜	31.92	76 500	119
3½	9.621	42 000	36.0	6½	33.18	78 000	124
3⅝	10.32	43 500	38.7	6⅝	34.47	79 500	129
3¾	11.05	45 000	41.4	6¾	35.79	81 000	134
3⅞	11.79	46 500	44.2	6⅞	37.12	82 500	139

In the Method of Moments a section is taken at each force in succession and the moment of the forces about a point in the section found, due consideration being given to the direction of turning. This is done at each force on one side of the pin, if the bars are arranged symmetrically, and in both the vertical and horizontal planes. Inspection of the results will usually indicate which section has the GREATEST RESULTANT MOMENT when the horizontal and vertical components, H and V, are combined. This is done by using the formula $R^2 = H^2 + V^2$ since, graphically, the resultant R is the diagonal of the rectangle

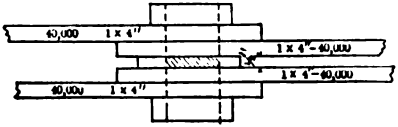

Fig. 16. Pin-joint

Table VI. Maximum Bending Moments in Inch-Pounds to be Allowed on Pins for Maximum Fiber-Stresses of 15 000, 20 000 and 22 500 Pounds per Square Inch

Diameter of pin, in	Moment for $S =$ 15 000 in-lb	Moment for $S =$ 20 000 in-lb	Moment for $S =$ 22 500 in-lb	Diameter of pin, in	Moment for $S =$ 15 000 in-lb	Moment for $S =$ 20 000 in-lb	Moment for $S =$ 22 500 in-lb
1	1 470	1 960	2 210	4	94 200	125 700	141 400
1⅛	2 100	2 800	3 140	4⅛	103 400	137 800	155 000
1¼	2 880	3 830	4 310	4¼	113 000	150 700	169 600
1⅜	3 830	5 100	5 740	4⅜	123 300	164 400	185 000
1½	4 970	6 630	7 460	4½	134 200	178 900	201 300
1⅝	6 320	8 430	9 480	4⅝	145 700	194 300	218 500
1¾	7 890	10 500	11 800	4¾	157 800	210 400	236 700
1⅞	9 710	12 900	14 600	4⅞	170 600	227 500	255 900
2	11 800	15 700	17 700	5	184 100	245 400	276 100
2⅛	14 100	18 800	21 200	5⅛	198 200	264 300	297 300
2¼	16 800	22 400	25 200	5¼	213 100	284 100	319 600
2⅜	19 700	26 300	29 600	5⅜	228 700	304 900	343 000
2½	23 000	30 700	34 500	5½	245 000	326 700	367 500
2⅝	26 600	35 500	40 000	5⅝	262 100	349 500	393 100
2¾	30 600	40 800	45 900	5¾	280 000	373 300	419 900
2⅞	35 000	46 700	52 500	5⅞	298 600	398 200	447 900
3	39 800	53 000	59 600	6	318 100	424 100	477 100
3⅛	44 900	59 900	67 400	6⅛	338 400	451 200	507 600
3¼	50 600	67 400	75 800	6¼	359 500	479 400	539 300
3⅜	56 600	75 500	84 900	6⅜	381 500	508 700	572 300
3½	63 100	84 200	94 700	6½	404 400	539 200	606 600
3⅝	70 100	93 500	105 200	6⅝	428 200	570 900	642 300
3¾	77 700	103 500	116 500	6¾	452 900	603 900	679 400
3⅞	85 700	114 200	128 500	6⅞	478 500	638 000	717 800

Remarks. The following is the formula for flexure, $M = SI/c$, with the reductions made to adapt it to a beam of circular section:

$$M = S\pi d^3/32 = SAd/8$$

M = the moment of forces for any section through the pin;
S = the stress per sq in in extreme fibers of pin at that section;
A = the area of the section;
d = the diameter;
π = 3.14159.

The forces are assumed to act in a plane passing through the axis of the pin.

The above table gives the values of M for different diameters of pin, and for three values of S.

If the maximum value of M is known, an inspection of the table will show what the diameter of the pin must be so that S will not exceed 15 000, 20 000, or 22 500 lb, as the requirements of the case may be.

on H and V. Example 6 illustrates the method for the condition of INCLINED FORCES acting on the pin. In Example 5 the same method is employed to determine the size of the pin in a simple joint.

Example 5. It is required to determine the size of the pin for the joint shown in Fig. 16 in the lower chord of a steel truss. The middle bar is a vertical suspension-rod to hold the chord in place.

Solution. Beginning at the section between the outer bars, the algebraic sum of the forces on either side of the section is 40 000 lb, hence this is the shear. At the section next to the suspender the sum is zero; therefore there is no shear at the middle of the pin. The bearing pressure is 40 000 lb. Its intensity depends on the diameter of the pin and the thickness of the bars. To find the bending moment on the pin the forces are considered concentrated at the middle of the bars and moments taken about sections through the forces. The moment at the section through the second bar is 40 000 lb × 1 in, equal to 40 000 in-lb. If moments are taken about a point between the inner forces the same result is obtained. From Table VI it is found that a 2¾-in pin at 20 000 lb per sq in is sufficient. From Table V the bearing value of a 2¾-in pin is found to be only 33 000 lb at a stress of 12 000 lb per sq in, which makes it necessary to increase the size of the pin to 3⅝ in. The shearing value of this pin is 67 000 lb. In this case the diameter of the pin is determined by the bearing-stress, but it is necessary to investigate the other stresses to be sure of the correct size, especially in case of heavy bearing-plates.

Bending Moments on Pins. The finding of the BENDING MOMENT due to the forces acting on a pin is usually the most difficult part of the work of determining its proper size. In the case of a simple pin, properly packed and lying in the plane of the forces acting on it, the GREATEST MOMENT is usually the product obtained by multiplying the outer force by the central distance between the outer bars; but when the forces act in several planes the work is more complicated. The GRAPHICAL METHOD illustrated in the solution of the two following examples has some advantages; but the METHOD OF MOMENTS applied at the end of the solution of the first example is equally rapid in practiced hands and capable of greater refinement in the results.

Example 6. It is required to find the bending moment on the pin of the joint, one-half of which is shown in Fig. 17. The bars are each 1 in thick, the channel of the vertical member ½ in thick and the center of the hanger is ¾ in from the center of the channel.

Solution. Since the joint is symmetrical it is necessary to construct but one-half of the force-diagram and equilibrium-polygon which really apply to the joint. From the conditions of equilibrium of forces, the vertical component of the inclined force is upward, and equal to the sum of the downward forces, 34 000 lb; and its horizontal component acts with the 60 000-lb force, to the amount of 17 000 lb, a sufficient amount to close the force-diagram. The following construction is special, in that but one-half of the entire graphical diagram is shown. This is made possible because of the symmetry of the joint, the bending moment being constant over the middle of the pin.

In the diagram (Fig. 18) AB is drawn at an angle of 45° with the horizontal, and commencing at c, the distances are laid off to scale between the bars, and the lines 1–2, 2–3, etc., drawn parallel to the forces they represent at the joint. The oblique force is resolved into its components 1–4 and 1–5.

The stress-diagram (Fig. 19) is drawn as follows: On a horizontal line the forces are laid off to scale in the order they occur on the pin, 1–2, 2–3, 3–4 and 4–1, the closing of the diagram being a check on the correctness of the value of the forces. Beginning at 1, 1–5, 5–6 and 6–1 are laid off to scale, parallel to the forces in the vertical plane. From 1 the line 1–0 is drawn at an angle of 45°, for convenience in making good intersections, and equal to a convenient number, say 20 000 lb, in the same scale to which the loads are drawn. The point *O* is the pole of the stress-diagram, the pole-distance being 20 000 lb. From the principles of graphics the bending moment at any point on the pin is equal to the intercept between the proper ray of the equilibrium-polygon and the closing line, multiplied by the pole-distance. To complete the figures, 0–2, 0–3 and 0–4 are drawn from *O*, and from *c cd* is drawn parallel to 0–2, *de* parallel to 0–3, *ef* parallel to 0–4 and *fk* parallel to 0–1. In the same way *rs* is drawn parallel to 0–5, *st* to 0–6 and *tv* to 0–1. Then according to the above principles, the moment at any section due to the forces in the horizontal plane is proportional to the ordinate at that section drawn from the line *AB* to the line *cdefk* bounding the equilibrium-polygon; and the moments due to the vertical forces are proportional to the ordinates drawn to the line *rstv*, the numerical value being the length of the ordinate times 20 000, the pole-distance.

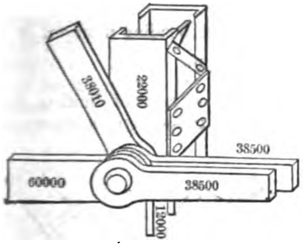

Fig. 17

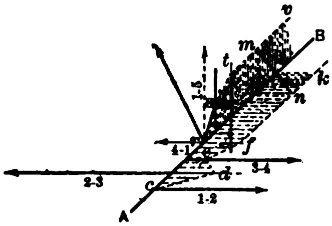

Fig. 18

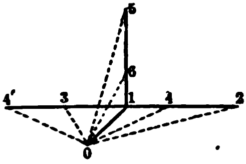

Fig. 19

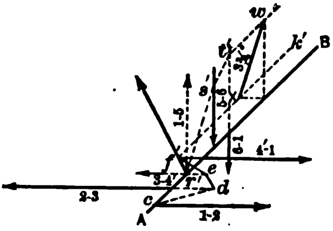

Fig. 20

Figs. 17 to 20. Pin-joint and Moment-diagrams

Where both moments are present, the resultant or true moment is proportional to the hypotenuse of the right-angled triangle having for its sides the ordinates in the two planes at the point in question. At *X* this is shown by the line *mn*. This measures 2.42 in, and being the longest diagonal or hypotenuse that can be drawn in the figure, it follows that the maximum bending moment on the pin is 2.42 × 20 000 = 48 400 in-lb.

To find the effect of changing the arrangement of the members on the pin, it may be assumed that the inclined bar is placed outside the inner chord-bar. The horizontal stress-diagram then becomes 1–2, 2–3, 3–4′, 4′–1. The equilibrium-polygons become *cdef′k′* and *r′s′t′w*, as shown in Fig. 20. In these polygons the longest diagonal measures 3¾ in, which gives a bending moment of 3¾ in × 20 000 lb = 75 000 in-lb, showing that the arrangement of the eye-bars in Fig. 17 is better. As a rule the bending moment is less when those forces that oppose each other are placed together. It may be further reduced by making the outside bar one-half the thickness of the main horizontal bars.

To check by the METHOD OF MOMENTS the value of the maximum bending moment obtained by the GRAPHIC METHOD for the first arrangement, the moments of the forces in the horizontal plane are taken about r. This gives

$$\begin{aligned} M_h &= 38\,500 \text{ lb} \times 3.0 \text{ in} + 38\,500 \text{ lb} \times 1.0 \text{ in} - 60\,000 \text{ lb} \times 2.0 \text{ in} \\ &= 34\,000 \text{ in-lb,} \end{aligned}$$

which is the value of the moment in the horizontal plane across the middle of the pin.

In the vertical plane moments are taken about a point t, giving

$$\begin{aligned} M_v &= 34\,000 \text{ lb} \times 1.5 \text{ in} - 22\,000 \text{ lb} \times 0.75 \text{ in} \\ &= 34\,500 \text{ in-lb} \end{aligned}$$

From these component moments the resultant maximum bending moment is

$$M = \sqrt{34\,000^2 + 34\,500^2} = 48\,400 \text{ in-lb}$$

Example 7. Another illustration of the GRAPHICAL METHOD of finding the bending moment on a pin is given for the joint A of the truss-diagram shown in Fig. 21. Fig. 22 shows the arrangement and size of the members. The stresses given in Fig. 21 are for one-half the number of members at the joint. As in Example 6, the symmetrical arrangement makes it unnecessary to draw more

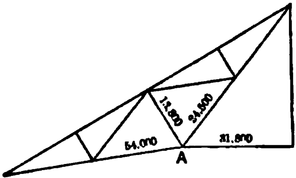

Fig. 21

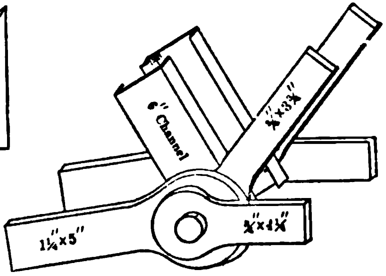

Fig. 22

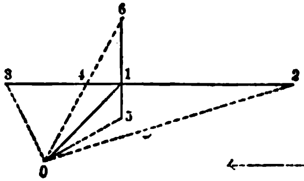

Fig. 23

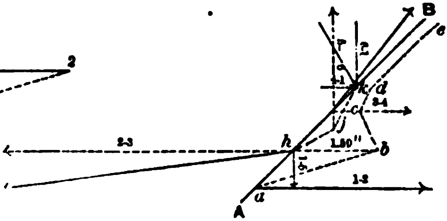

Fig. 24

Figs. 21 to 24. Force-polygons and Equilibrium-polygons for Bending Moments on a Pin than one-half of the force-polygon and equilibrium-polygon. The web of the channel is reinforced to make it ⅝ in thick.

Solution. The line *AB* (Fig. 24) is drawn at an angle of 45° and *ah*, etc., are laid off to scale, equal to the distances between the members. At each point of application of a force a line is drawn parallel and to scale, to represent that force. The inclined forces are then resolved into their horizontal and vertical components. The force-diagram (Fig. 23) is then drawn, the horizontal forces being laid off to scale in the order in which they occur, 1–2, 2–3, 3–4 and 4–1. The pole-distance is then laid off at an angle of 45° and equal to 20 000 lb to the same scale of forces. The pole o is then joined with 2, 3, 4 and 1. Then in Fig. 24, *ab* is drawn parallel to o–2, *bc* to o–3, *cd* to o–4 and *de* to o–1. In the same way the line *hjkB* is drawn. From inspection it is seen that *hb* is the longest intercept, even longer than any diagonal that may be drawn from the extremities of the horizontal and vertical intercepts at any point along *AB*. To the same scale that makes o–1 represent 20 000 lb, *hb* represents 31 800 in-lb; therefore the bending moment on the pin is 31 800 in-lb. In Table VI a pin 2⅝ in in diameter, at a fiber-stress of 20 000 lb per sq in, has an allowable moment of 35 500 in-lb, and in Table V a bearing value on 1 in of 31 500 lb. A force of 31 800 lb on ¾ in is equal to 42 400 for a 1-in bar; so it is necessary to use a larger pin to accommodate the bearing requirement. From Table V a pin 3½ in in diameter is found to be necessary. The shearing value of this pin is 72 000 lb more than twice the load, so, again, it is the bearing that controls the size of the pin. If the thickness of the bars is increased the diameter of the pin may be reduced to 3 in.

4. Strength of Bolts in Wooden Trusses and Girders

The Working Stresses for Bolts on which Table VII and Table VIII are computed are based on a FACTOR OF SAFETY of five applied to the average of many tests on dry timber. In some specifications it is permitted to increase the BEARING PRESSURE between timber and bolts as much as 50% above that permitted for short struts. The values in the tables are somewhat less than the tests on large trusses made at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, in 1897, would indicate as safe values. These were reported in the Engineering Record, November 17, 1900. Table IX gives the allowable maximum tension, shear and bending moments for wrought-iron and steel bolts.

Kinds of Stress in Bolts. BOLTS in wooden trusses are subject to the same kinds of stress as the RIVETS and PINS in steel structures. When the pieces joined are less than 2 in thick and the bolts are tightly drawn up so as to develop considerable frictional resistance between the pieces, the bolts are proportioned to resist the total force in SHEAR and in BEARING. When the pieces are more than 2 in thick the BENDING is taken into account and the bolts must be investigated for stresses in SHEAR, in BEARING and in BENDING. The SHEAR is assumed to be uniformly distributed over the cross-section of the bolt, and the BEARING AREA is the area of the projection of the bolt on the timber, which area is equal to the diameter of the bolt multiplied by the length in contact. The BEARING STRENGTH is given as a property of the bolt although its value depends upon the crushing strength of the timber. The BENDING MOMENT on the bolt is found in the same manner as for pins in steel trusses, although the cases are usually less complicated.

Illustrations of the Use of Bolts. The principles involved in the use of bolts in wooden trusses and girders and in the use of the tables may be best illustrated by the solution of examples in each of the following cases:

(1) Bolts in tie-beams, thin pieces.
(2) Bolts in girders to support brackets.
(3) Bolts as pins in the joints of trusses.
(4) Bolt-and-strap joints in trusses.
(5) Bolts under tension to hold the foot of a rafter.

(See, also, "Joints in Wooden Trusses," Chapter XXVIII, pages 1149 to 1160.

Case 1. Bolts in Tie-Beams, Thin Pieces. Tie-beams of wooden trusses, when longer than 30 ft, are usually made up of a number of pieces. This construction is cheaper than the use of a single stick. Two-inch planks bolted together are generally used. The location of the joints in the courses of planks and the number and size of the bolts are the special considerations in the design of such a joint. In general, the joints in adjacent courses are placed as far apart as possible and not more than two joints are placed opposite each other in the same section. The simplest case is that of a plain FISH-PLATE JOINT like a common BUTT-JOINT with two cover-plates as shown in Fig. 12. The number of BOLTS for such a joint is found in the same way as the number of RIVETS in steel tie-bars. The bolts must be spaced as required in the second column under each timber in Table VII, to provide against shearing in front of the bolt.

Table VII.* Safe Bearing Value of Bolts per Inch of Length Parallel to the Grain in Timber and Distance from Center to Center of Bolts or to End of Timber

Diameter of bolt, in	Long-leaf yellow pine		White pine and short-leaf yellow pine		Douglas fir		White oak	
	Bearing at 1 400 lb per sq in, lb	Distance, in	Bearing at 1 100 lb per sq in, lb	Distance, in	Bearing at 1 200 lb per sq in, lb	Distance, in	Bearing at 1 400 lb per sq in, lb	Distance, in
¾	1 050	4½	825	5¼	900	4¼	1 050	3½
⅞	1 225	5	960	5¾	1 050	5	1 225	4
1	1 400	5¾	1 100	6½	1 200	5½	1 400	4½
1⅛	1 575	6½	1 237	7½	1 350	6¼	1 575	5
1¼	1 750	7	1 375	8	1 500	7	1 750	5½
1⅜	1 925	7¾	1 512	9	1 650	7¾	1 925	6¼
1½	2 100	8½	1 650	9¾	1 800	8½	2 100	6¾
1¾	2 450	10	1 925	11½	1 950	9¼	2 450	7¾
2	2 800	11½	2 200	13	2 400	11¼	2 800	9
2¼	3 150	12¾	2 475	14¾	2 700	12½	3 150	10
2½	3 500	14¼	2 750	16¼	3 000	14	3 500	11¼
2¾	3 850	15¼	3 025	18	3 300	15½	3 850	12¼
3	4 200	17	3 300	19	3 600	17	4 200	13½

The distance from the end is equal to the diameter of the bolt plus the length on which twice the SHEAR is equal to the BEARING VALUE of the bolt against the end-fibers.

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* When the effect of the inclined surfaces upon the unit stresses is taken into account, the formula for the normal intensity of stress for cylindrical pins or bolts, given in Chapter XXVIII, page 1138, may be used. This formula will give lower values than those of Table VII.

Table VIII.* Safe Bearing Value of Bolts per Inch of Length Across the Grain in Timber

Diameter of bolt, in	Long-leaf yellow pine, lb	Short-leaf yellow pine and Douglas fir, lb	White pine, lb	White oak, lb
¾	262	187	150	375
⅞	306	218	175	437
1	350	250	200	500
1⅛	394	281	225	562
1¼	437	312	250	625
1⅜	482	343	275	687
1½	525	375	300	750
1¾	612	437	350	875
2	700	500	400	1000

Table IX. Maximum Allowable Tension, Shear and Bending Moment for Wrought-Iron and Steel Bolts

Diameter of bolt, in	Net area, sq in	Wrought iron			Steel		
		Tension at 12 000 lb per sq in, lb	Shear at 7 500 lb per sq in, lb	Bending moment at 15 000 lb per sq in, in-lb	Tension at 16 000 lb per sq in, lb	Shear at 10 000 lb per sq in, lb	Bending moment at 20 000 lb per sq in, in-lb
¾	0.302	3 620	3 310	620	4 830	4 420	830
⅞	0 420	5 040	4 510	980	6 720	6 010	1 310
1	0.550	6 600	5 890	1 470	8 800	7 850	1 960
1⅛	0.694	8 328	7 460	2 100	11 100	9 940	2 800
1¼	0.893	10 716	9 200	2 880	14 290	12 270	3 830
1⅜	1.057	12 680	11 140	3 830	16 910	14 850	5 100
1½	1.295	15 540	13 250	4 970	20 720	17 670	6 630
1¾	1.746	20 930	18 040	7 890	27 910	24 050	10 500
2	2.302	27 620	23 560	11 800	36 830	31 420	15 700
2¼	3.023	36 280	29 820	16 800	48 370	39 760	22 400
2½	3.719	44 630	36 820	23 000	59 510	49 090	30 700
2¾	4.620	55 430	44 550	30 600	73 910	59 400	40 800
3	5.428	65 140	53 010	39 800	86 850	70 690	53 000
3¼	6.510	78 120	62 220	50 600	104 160	82 960	67 400

Example 8. A typical tie-beam used as a lower chord of a Howe truss is shown in Fig. 25. It is 50 ft long, of Douglas fir and subject to the tension in the different panels shown in the figure.

Solution. The thickness of the plank is drawn out of scale in the figure to show the joints more clearly. The black circles show the vertical tension-rods, which so nearly cut the middle plank in two that it is not considered a part of the tensile member. The arrangement of the planks and the lengths to be used must be determined for each case. In the one shown there is but one splice in the middle panels where there is the greatest tension. The distance

XY is 12 ft, which is about as small as will serve for the transfer of the tension from *A′* to *B*. In this beam the two outer planks, *A* and *A′*, must be large enough to resist the whole tensile stress in the middle panels because of the joints in *B* and *C*. At the inner end of the second panel there is 58 000 lb tension which must be carried to the end of the first panel. Because of the joints in *A* and *A′* this must be transmitted to *B* and *C* in order to pass the point *X*.

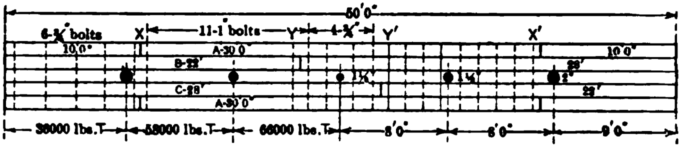

Fig. 25. Plan of Built-up Tie-beam

Assuming that 29 000 lb, one-half the tension, is carried on plank *A* to be transmitted to *C* by the shear and bearing on the bolts, and dividing this by 7 850 lb, the allowable shear on a 1-in bolt, four bolts are found to be necessary. But the bearing value of a 1-in bolt in Douglas fir 2 in thick, is only 2 400 lb, which makes twelve bolts necessary. These are required in the distance *XY*, 12 ft.

From the distances in Table VII, it is found that the end-bolts must be 5½ in from the ends of the planks, say 6 in; this leaves 11 ft, in which distance eight bolts are to be arranged. If four bolts are placed in pairs, two at each end, as shown in Fig. 26, the intermediate spaces are 14⅔ in. The bolts bind the beam together better if they are staggered, as indicated in Fig. 26, and not placed on the middle line.

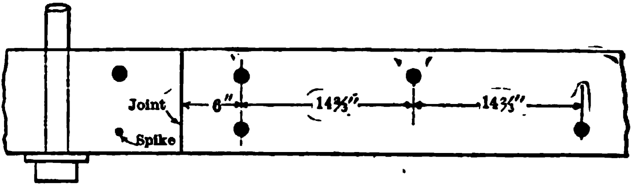

Fig. 26. Elevation of Beam Opposite *X* of Fig. 25

The number of bolts mentioned is sufficient to make the splice, but there should be bolts in the distance *YY′*, and between the ends and *X* and *X′*, to bind the planks together. These need not be as large or as close together as the others; ¾-in bolts spaced 2 ft are sufficient. There should be two bolts at the end of the beam. Each bolt should be driven through a hole of the same size as the bolt and the nuts should be screwed up tight.

Case II. Bolts in Girders to Support Brackets. The construction shown in Figs. 27 and 28 is commonly used in cases in which the requirements do not allow the girder to project its full depth below the joists. The BOLTS shown in Fig. 27 must be investigated for BEARING and SHEAR, and those shown in Fig. 28 for BEARING, SHEAR and BENDING. In either case the SHEARING VALUE of the bolt in single shear must equal or be greater than the greater of the forces *S* or *S′*.

The BEARING per inch on the wood of the girder, when *B* is in inches, is

$$(S + S')/B$$

This must be kept within the values given in Table VII for the timber used. For the case shown in Fig. 28 the BENDING MOMENT in pound-inches is

$$M = SL/2 \quad \text{or} \quad M = S'L/2$$

whichever is the larger. B and L are measured in inches and S in pounds.

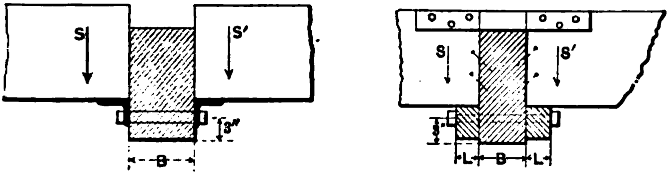

Fig. 27

Fig. 28

Figs. 27 and 28. Bolts Supporting Brackets on Girders

Example 9. For the construction shown in Fig. 27 it is required to determine the number and size of bolts, the Douglas fir girder being 8 by 14 in, with a span of 14 ft, and the Douglas fir joists 3 by 12 in, with a span of 20 ft, center to center of girders. The floor-load, including the floor, is 60 lb per sq ft. The angles are 4 by 3½ by ⅜ in.

Solution. The floor-area supported by the girder is 14 by 20 ft. At 60 lb per sq ft, the load is $14 \times 20 \times 60 = 16\ 800$ lb. The load S, on one side, is 8 400 lb.

A ¾-in bolt has a shearing-value of 4 420 lb. Hence two bolts are necessary to satisfy the shearing condition. The bearing value of the bolt in the wood, across the grain, is, from Table VIII, 187 lb per inch of length, or 1 496 lb for the width of the girder. The number of bolts required, then, is 16 800 divided by 1 496 or approximately 11, which gives a spacing of about 15 in.

Example 10. In the construction shown in Fig. 28, the girder is 6 by 14 in, of Douglas fir and has a span of 12 ft. The joists are 2 by 12 in and have an 18-ft span, center to center of girders. The floor-load is 65 lb per sq ft. There are 3 by 4-in strips on the sides of the girder. The distance L is 3 in. It is required to find the number and size of bolts to be used.

Solution. The total load on the girder is

$$12 \times 18 \times 65 = 14\ 040 \text{ lb}$$
$$S = 7\ 020 \text{ lb}$$

The bearing load per inch of thickness of the girder is

$$\frac{14\ 040}{6} = 2\ 340 \text{ lb}$$

The bending moment on one side of the girder is

$$\frac{7\ 020 \times 3}{2} = 10\ 530 \text{ in-lb}$$

since the force S acts at the center of pressure on the bracket-strip, 1½ in from the edge of the girder.

The shear is 7 020 lb, which requires two ¾-in steel bolts at 4 420 lb for one as given in Table IX.

The bearing (Table VIII) on a ¾-in bolt is 187 lb per inch of length; therefore it requires thirteen bolts for bearing.

The allowable bending moment on a ¾-in steel bolt is 830 in-lb, from Table IX. To take care of the 10 530 in-lb requires thirteen bolts. A ⅞-in steel bolt has an allowable bending moment of 1 310 lb-in, making eight of them sufficient. The 3 by 4-in pieces may be held in place by thirteen ¾-in bolts spaced 11 in on centers, if two of them are placed 6 in from the ends.

Case III. Bolts as Pins in the Joints of Trusses. For TIES or STRUTS joined by BOLTS in the manner indicated in Figs. 29, 30 and 31 and having the thickness B exceeding 2 in, the diameter of the bolt or the number of bolts must be computed for SHEARING, BEARING and FLEXURE.

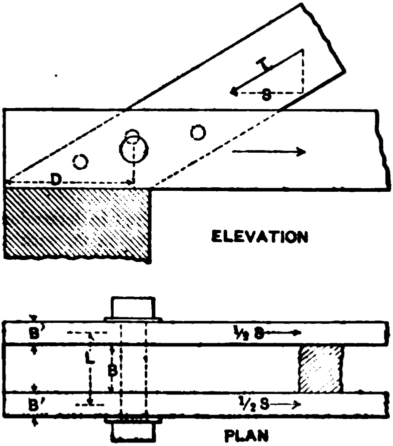

Fig. 29. Bolt through Rafter and Tie-beam

For any of these joints the forces are as follows:

The single shear $= S/2$

On the sections between B and B' (Fig. 30)

The bearing on the pin per inch of length $= S/B$ or S'/B'

The greater is to be used.

The bending moment $= SL/12$

on the assumption of a CONTINUOUS BEAM, uniformly loaded.

If there are more bolts than one, the quantities obtained by the above formulas are to be divided by the number of bolts to find the part to be taken care of by one bolt.

In Fig. 29, S is the horizontal component of the thrust T.

Example 11. It is required to determine the diameter of a bolt for a joint like that shown in Fig. 29. The rafter is 6 by 10 in, of Douglas fir, the tie-beams 3 by 10 in, of the same material, the thrust in the rafter 30 000 lb, and its inclination 30°.

Solution. The horizontal component of 30 000 lb at 30° is practically 26 000 lb. Then $S = 26\,000$ lb and the shear $= 13\,000$ lb. $B = 6$ in and $L = 9$ in.

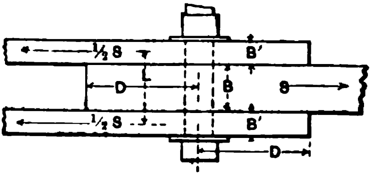

Fig. 30. Bolt in Wooden Tie-beam

Bearing per inch of length on the bolt $= 26\,000/6 = 4\,333$ lb
Bending moment $= 26\,000 \times 9/12 = 19\,500$ in-lb

In Table IX, a 1⅜-in steel bolt is found to be necessary to resist a shear of 13 000 lb, and a 2¼-in bolt for a bending moment of 19 500 in-lb. To resist 4 333 lb end-bearing pressure on 1 in a larger bolt is required than is given in Table VII. Dividing 4 333 by 1 200, the allowable bearing on Douglas fir, a 3⅝-in bolt is found to be necessary. This is larger than it is desirable to use, so the joint must be redesigned with a view to reduce the bearing pressure on the bolt. If an 8 by 8-in strut and 4 by 8-in tie-beams are used, B becomes 8 in and L 12 in. This gives

Bearing pressure = 26 000/8 = 3 250 lb per inch of length of the bolt
Bending moment = 26 000 × 12/12 = 26 000 in-lb

The total shear at the section on one side of the strut is the same as before.

From Table VII it is found that a 2¾-in bolt is large enough to provide for the bearing and that a 2½-in bolt is sufficient for the bending as given in Table IX. Hence if an 8 by 8-in strut is used, there must be a 2¾-in bolt and the distance D must be 15½ in (Table VII).

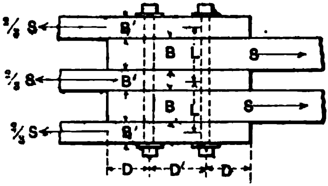

Fig. 31. Bolts in Wooden Tie-beam

Example 12. For the same construction as in Fig. 29 and the same conditions as in the first part of Example 11, it is required to determine the size of the bolts when it is necessary to use three.

Solution. The shear, bearing, and bending moment are the same as in Example 11, but because there are three bolts each quantity is divided by 3 to determine the force resisted by each.

Shear = 13 000/3 = 4 333 lb and requires a ¾-in steel bolt (Table IX)
Bearing = 4 333/3 = 1 444 lb and requires a 1¼-in bolt (Table VII)
Bending moment = 19 500/3 = 6 500 in-lb, and requires a 1½-in steel bolt (Table IX).

In this case the bending moment determines the size of the bolts, which may be arranged as shown by the dotted circles in Fig. 29.

Example 13. It is required to determine the diameter of the bolt for the construction shown in Fig. 30, in which the inner beam is of Douglas fir and 6 by 8 in in section, and the outer beams 3 by 8 in, the tension being 24 000 lb.

Solution. $S = 24\,000$; $B = 6$ in; $L = 9$ in.

Single shear on the bolt = 24 000/2 = 12 000 lb
Bearing-pressure per inch of length of bolt = 24 000/6 = 4 000 lb
Bending moment = 24 000 × 9/12 = 18 000 in-lb

From Table IX a 1¼-in steel bolt is found sufficient to resist the shear, and a 2¼-in bolt large enough to resist the bending. In Table VII the largest bolt considered, 3 in, is too small in bearing value. Dividing the load to be resisted by 1 200 gives 3⅓ in, as the diameter necessary to resist the bearing. The distance D must be 4 000/(2 × 130) + 3⅓ in or 18¾ in.

Example 14. If two bolts are used, one behind the other, it is required to determine the diameter of the bolt that should be used, the conditions and loading being the same as in Example 13.

Solution. Dividing the quantities obtained in Example 13 by 2,

Single shear = 6 000 lb and requires a ⅞-in steel bolt
Bearing = 2 000 lb and requires a 2-in bolt
Bending moment = 9 000 in-lb and requires a 1¾-in steel bolt

The allowable bearing on a 1¾-in bolt is (2½ %) less than the required amount, so that in general, since the other requirements are more than satisfied, the smaller bolt would be used. For the 1¾-in bolt, the distance D is 9¼ in. The space between the bolts may be increased somewhat beyond the value given in

Table VII, and they may be located out of the same line as a further precaution against splitting.

Case IV. Bolt-and-Strap Joints in Trusses. The construction shown in Fig. 32 is sometimes used to connect the foot of the rafter of a wooden truss to the tie-beam. When the distance D is sufficient to resist the shear due to the thrust of the rafter, the strap is of value only in holding the rafter in place, and there are no greater pressures brought upon the BOLT. When it is impossible to make D the necessary length, the BOLT and STRAP must be designed to resist the full force in the direction of the STRAP.

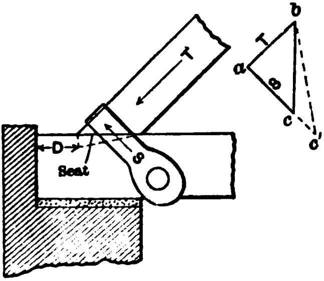

Fig. 32. Strap and Bolt at Foot of Rafter

As the STRAP is usually not more than from ½ to ¾ in thick, its width is such that the bearing between it and the rafter is small compared with that between the BOLT and rafter. The forces acting on the BOLT are the only ones that need consideration. These are:

SINGLE SHEAR = $S/2$ = the tension in the strap on one side

BEARING PRESSURE per inch of length = S/B, where B is the width of the tie-beam in inches

BEARING PRESSURE per inch of length between strap and bolt = $S/2t$

To find the value of S, the force-polygon is drawn as shown at the right in Fig. 32. T is drawn parallel to the rafter and with a length, to a convenient scale, equal to the thrust. From the end a an indefinite line is drawn parallel to the axis of the strap, and from b another line perpendicular to the SEAT of the rafter. These intersect at c, so that ac, measured by the same scale used in laying off T, is the magnitude of the force S in the strap. If the rafter rests on top of the beam, bc is vertical, but if the tie-beam is dapped, as shown by the dotted line, the line from b is drawn perpendicular to the bottom of the notch, making the intersection at c'. It is seen that notching the tie-beam in this way increases the stress in the strap.

Example 15. It is required to determine the size of a strap and pin-bolt to hold the rafter without notching into the tie-beam of a long-leaf yellow-pine king-post truss. The rafter is 6 by 6 in, is inclined at an angle of 45° and is under a compressive stress of 18 000 lb. The tie-beam is 6 by 8 in in section.

Solution. Since the inclination is 45°, a consideration of the force-polygon in Fig. 32 shows ab equal to ac, so that

The force S = the thrust T = 18 000 lb
Single shear on bolt = 18 000/2 = 9 000 lb
Tension in strap on one side = 9 000 lb
Bearing pressure per inch of bolt against wood = 18 000/6 = 3 000 lb
Bearing pressure in pounds per inch between strap and bolt = 9 000/t

in which t equals the thickness of the strap.

The allowable pressure between the strap and the top of the rafter is 350 lb per sq in (Table VII), which, on the 6-in rafter, gives

Allowable load per inch of width of strap = 6 × 350 = 2 100 lb

The strap then must be 18 000/2 100 or 8.6 in wide. At 10 000 per sq in in tension the necessary section of the strap is 0.9 sq in, requiring a thickness of about 0.1 in, a sufficient thickness if the strap were strong enough to develop a uniform pressure over the rafter. It is not good practice, however, to use such thin material, because of the danger of loss of strength due to corrosion. No metal less than ⅜ in thick should be used in such places.

The bearing-pressure per inch, between the strap and the bolt, for a ⅜-in strap = 9 000/⅜ = 24 000 lb

The bolt, then, must take a single shear of 9 000 lb, a bearing pressure of 3 000 lb against the wood for each inch of length, and a bearing of 24 000 lb per inch of length against the strap. From Table IX a 1⅛-in steel bolt is sufficient to resist the shear, from Table V a 2-in bolt is large enough to resist the bearing from the strap, and from Table VII a 2¼-in bolt is found necessary to resist the 3 000-lb bearing from the wood per inch of length of bolt. This makes the 2¼-in bolt satisfactory for the joint.

The pressure from the bolt to the wood, however, is not parallel with the grain but inclined at 45°. The allowable pressure against wood across the grain is about one-fourth of that with the grain. According to the formula given in Chapter XXVIII, page 1138, the allowable pressure per square inch for this case is 612 lb instead of the 1 400 per sq in allowed for direct compression with the grain. The reduced allowable pressure makes it necessary to use a 4.9-in bolt, say a 5-in bolt, which would be impracticable, for it would almost cut the tie-beam in two. It thus appears that this form of joint is not good design for a truss of this span. For shorter spans the joint may be made in accordance with the requirements given. It has the advantage of not presenting any projections below the tie-beam.

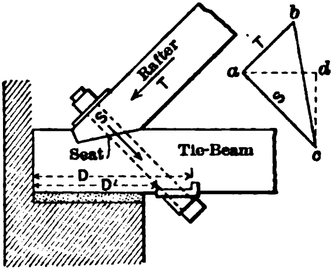

Fig. 33. Bolt in Tension at Foot of Rafter

Case V. Bolts in Tension to Hold the Foot of a Rafter. In the joint shown in Fig. 33 the bolt is subject to DIRECT TENSION only. The amount of the tension *S* is found by the construction explained in Case IV. The rafter may be let into the tie-beam or rest on top of it, the tension in the bolt being less in the latter case; but it is easier to erect the truss if the rafter is NOTCHED INTO THE BEAM from 1¼ to 1½ in for ordinary spans and loads, to hold it while the pieces are fitted. After this is done, the holes may be bored exactly where required.

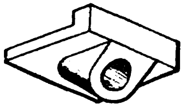

Fig. 34. Special Washer

Whenever *S* exceeds about 10 000 lb for trusses made of timber for which the highest bearing stresses are allowed, a CAST PLATE, as shown in Fig. 34 and made to fit the inclination of the bolt, should be let into the tie-beam at the head of the bolt to distribute the pressure. The diameter of the hole for the bolt should be ⅛ in larger than the diameter of the bolt. The distance *D* must be made sufficient to provide for the horizontal component of *S*, at the allowed working stress of the material for shear with the grain.

The horizontal component is found by drawing a vertical line from *c* and a horizontal line from *a* and measuring *ad* to the scale of the diagram. For safety, this force must be less than the product of the distance *D*, the width of the beam and the allowed shearing-stress given in Table I, page 412.

Example 16. For the same conditions as in Example 15, for the size of the members and the thrust in the rafter, it is required to determine the diameter of the bolt and the distance *D* for a joint of the type shown in Fig. 33.

Solution. To find *S*, draw *T* equal to 18 000 lb, at a convenient scale, and parallel to the rafter. At *a*, draw an indefinite line perpendicular to the rafters and at *b* a line perpendicular to THE SEAT of the rafter. This makes *S* greater than in Example 15, as *ac* now scales 27 000 lb. From Table IX, a 1¾-in steel bolt is sufficient to take this in direct tension. The horizontal component found as directed above, scales 19 000 lb. The width of the tie-beam is 6 in, which at the allowed shearing-stress, 150 lb per sq in, gives 900 lb as the stress that must be cared for by each inch of *D*. 19 000 lb divided by 900 gives 21 in, the required distance *D*. (See, also, Chapter XXVIII, Joints in Wooden Trusses.)

The compression against the grain on the end of the cast-iron washer must also be investigated. 19 000 lb divided by the width, 6 in, gives 3 166 lb that must be resisted per inch of width of beam. At 1 400 lb per sq in, as an allowable working stress, this makes it necessary to set the casting 2¼ in into the lower side of the beam, which exceeds the depth usual in ordinary practice. Some tests made at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology on large trusses, and reported in 1897, indicated that for a TEST CARRIED TO RUPTURE the stresses prescribed for usual designs might safely be more than doubled. Tests on timber under LONG-CONTINUED LOADING indicate that rupture finally occurs for stresses approximating one-half of those developed in TESTS CARRIED TO IMMEDIATE FAILURE. This, and the fact that decay may affect the strength of the members, emphasizes the wisdom of using CONSERVATIVE WORKING-STRESSES in this material.

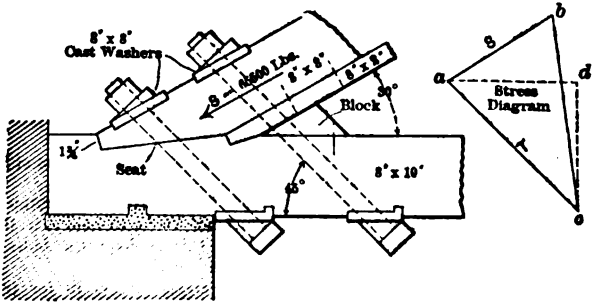

Fig. 35. Joint with Two Bolts in Direct Tension

Example 17. It is required to determine the size of bolts for the joint shown in Fig. 35, the thrust being 65 500 lb and the truss-members being made of long-leaf yellow pine.

Solution. The tension in the bolts is found first by drawing the force-polygon as shown at the right in the figure. To the same scale that *ab* represents 65 500, *ac* represents 96 500 lb. If the load is equally divided between the bolts, each has a tension of 48 250 lb. From Table IX this force requires a 2¼-in steel bolt.

The horizontal component *ad* is 68 350 lb, which must be resisted by the shearing strength of the wood between the end of the cast-iron washer on the under side of the tie-beam and the end of the beam resting on the wall. At 150 lb per sq in, this requires 68 350/150, or 455 sq in. If the beam is 8 in wide, this requires a length of 57 in along the beam from the washer to the end.

The bearing of the cast-iron washer against the end-fibers of the tie-beam is also 68 250 lb. At an allowable pressure of 1 400 lb per sq in the depth of the washer should be 68 350/(8 × 1 400) = 6.1 in. This would almost cut the beam in two. The ultimate strength of the wood in compression is about five times the working stress, and since a considerable part of the horizontal force may be resisted by the body of the bolt as well as by the friction of the washer, it is probable that with washers ¾ in thick there would be little sign of weakness at the joint even when the truss is fully loaded.

Theoretically the washers on the top surface of the rafter should be determined by the allowable working stress in compression across the fibers. This for long-leaf pine is taken at 350 lb per sq in (Table VI, page 454). The area, then, is 48 250/350, or 138 sq in. This requires a washer 11¾ in square. The 8 by 8-in washer used, assumes a pressure of 755 lb per sq in, but as the tests of the Forest Service of the United States Department of Agriculture give 3 480 lb per sq in as the elastic limit for long-leaf yellow pine, it is very likely that there would be no signs of injury at this point, other than a SLIGHT INDENTATION, when the truss is fully loaded.

CHAPTER XIII

BEARING-PLATES AND BASES FOR COLUMNS, BEA AND GIRDERS. BRACKETS ON CAST-IRON COLUMNS*

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1. Bearing-Plates and Bases

The Purpose of Bearing-Plates or Bases. When a heavily loaded umn, beam or girder is supported on a masonry wall or pier, a BEARING-PLAT BASE of suitable dimensions must be used to distribute the load so that pressure will not exceed the safe BEARING STRENGTH of the masonry (Tabl

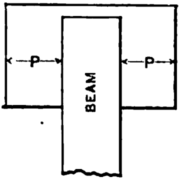

Fig. 1. Simple Bearing-plate

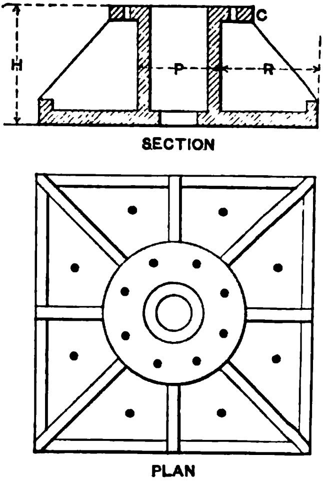

Fig. 3. Ribbed Cast-iron Plate

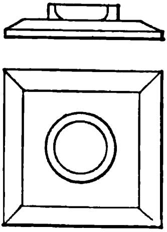

Fig. 2. Beveled Cast-iron Plate with Pin

The BEARING-PLATE is designed to be stiff enough to distribute the pressu under it uniformly, and its area is determined by dividing the load on it b the allowable pressure per unit of area (Table II).

Simple Bearing-Plates. Fig. 1 shows a SIMPLE BEARING-PLATE under beam. It may be a steel or cast-iron rectangular plate of sufficient thickne to prevent its bending at the edge of the beam from the pressure of th masonry below. For anchors for steel beams on bearing-plates, see Chapter XV, page 619.

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* See, also, Chapter XIV, Subdivisions 8 to 11.

Cast-Iron Plates with Pin. Fig. 2 is a cast-iron PLATE WITH A DOWEL-PIN to fit inside the shell of a cast-iron column, or into a recess cut in the bottom of a wooden one. The pin holds the base-plate in position.

Cast-Iron Ribbed Bases. Fig. 3 is a cast-iron RIBBED BASE for a large cylindrical cast-iron column, capable of supporting a load heavy enough to break a plate similar to the one shown in Fig. 2, at the edges of the column, unless the plate were made unduly thick.

Table I. Allowable Bearing Pressure on Different Kinds of Masonry

Kind of masonry	Allowable pressures	
	Lb per sq in	Tons per sq ft
From the building laws of New York and Philadelphia		
Brick, in lime mortar	112	8
in lime-and-cement mortar	162	12
in cement mortar	208	15
Rubble masonry, in cement mortar	140	10
Concrete	208	15
Recommended by a committee of Chicago architects and engineers in 1907		
Rubble, in lime mortar	60	4.32
in Portland-cement mortar	100	7.2
Coursed rubble, in lime mortar	120	8.6
in cement mortar	200	14.4
Ashlar, limestone, in cement mortar	400	28.8
granite, in cement mortar	600	43.2
Concrete, 1 : 2 : 4, hand-mixed	350	25.2
machine-mixed	400	28.8

The Bases of the Steel Cores of Composite Columns used in reinforced-concrete construction have areas sufficient to distribute the loads of the columns over the concrete in the footings at the allowable working stress of the concrete, which is usually 500 lb per sq in. (See, also, page 474, Figs. 14 and 15.)

Example 1. The basement-columns of a warehouse are designed for a load of 212 000 lb each. It is required to determine the size of the base-plates to rest on the concrete foundations.

Solution. At an allowable pressure of 208 lb per sq in, the required area is 212 000/208 or 1 020 sq in, or about 32⅓ in square. The plan and section of the base-plate is shown in Fig. 3.

Forms of Base-Plates. For small columns and wooden posts with light loads, PLAIN FLAT PLATES of cast iron or steel are generally used. The cast-iron plates may have a raised ring or cross to fit inside a hollow metal column, or a dowel, from 1½ to 2 in in height for a wooden one. If the plate is very thick the outer edges may be beveled to save weight, as shown in Fig. 2, but no part of it should be less than about ¾ in thick.

Table II. Allowable Loads on Standard, Steel Bearing-Plates on Walls

Bearing on wall, in	Size of plate, in	Safe bearing value of plate in pounds		
		Bricks laid in mortar of		
		Lime, 112 lb per sq in	Lime and cement, 162 lb per sq in	Cement, 20 lb per sq i
6	6× 6	4 070	5 800	7 500
	6× 8	5 400	7 800	10 000
	6×10	6 700	9 700	12 500
8	8× 8	7 200	10 200	13 300
	8×10	9 000	12 100	16 600
	8×12	10 700	15 500	20 000
10	10×10	11 200	16 200	20 800
	10×12	13 450	19 500	25 200
	10×14	15 700	22 700	27 900
12	12×12	16 150	23 300	30 000
	12×14	18 800	27 400	35 000
	12×16	22 000	31 200	40 100
	12×18	24 200	34 500	45 000
14	14×14	22 100	31 800	40 800
	14×16	25 000	36 300	46 600
	14×18	28 200	40 800	52 400
	14×20	31 400	45 400	58 200
16	16×16	28 700	41 500	53 200
	16×18	32 300	46 600	59 800
	16×20	35 800	51 900	66 700
	16×22	39 500	57 000	73 200

The last column applies to concrete walls also.

Ribbed Bases. If the calculated size of a bearing-plate is so large that projection beyond the edge of the column would be more than about 6 in, RIBBED BASE similar to that shown (Fig. 3) for a cylindrical column is use For such bases it is unnecessary to consider the transverse stresses. Wh these bases are bolted to the columns they add greatly to the general stabili of the supporting members because of the greater width of such bases.

Proportions of Ribbed Bases. The HEIGHT *H* of this type of base shou be approximately equal to the PROJECTION *P*, and the DIAMETER *D* equal the diameter of the column. The projection *C* should be at least 3 in to perm the bolting of the column to the base. The THICKNESS of all parts of the casti should be the same and approximately equal to the thickness of the colum shell. There must be no thin webs as they result in breakage from shrinkag stresses.

Base-Plates for Steel Columns are usually made of STEEL PLATES and SHAP as shown on the channel-columns in Chapter XIV, Figs. 17, 18 and 19. Cas iron bases are sometimes used for very heavy columns. If conditions a favorable to the action of corrosion the cast iron is to be preferred.

The Area of Bearing-Plates under Beams and Girders is found in the same manner as the area of plates under columns. If the load on the beam is uniformly distributed over the beam or concentrated at its middle, the required area of the plate is one-half the total load on the beam divided by the allowable bearing per unit of area on the masonry; but if the load is a moving load, the greatest possible end-reaction must be divided by the allowable bearing. For example, a heavily loaded truck standing near the end of the beam causes a pressure on the bearing-plate much greater than one-half its weight. The true reaction for the actual conditions must be found by the methods explained in Chapter IX.

The Thickness of the Bearing-Plate is found by the formula used to determine the flexure of beams. It must be determined in each case. For a typical case the forces acting are shown in Fig. 5, which represents a transverse vertical section through one-half the plate. The vertical section at *C*, and through and parallel with the web of the I beam, is taken through the center of the plate, which is the dangerous section, or section of maximum bending moment.

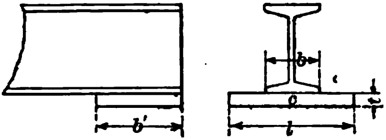

Fig. 4. Simple Bearing-plate under I Beam

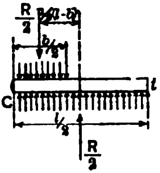

Fig. 5. Forces Acting on Half of Bearing-plate

In Figs. 4 and 5, b' is the bearing depth on the wall;
l is the length of the plate, parallel with the wall;
b is the width of the flange of the beam;
R is the load on the bearing-plate.

Replacing the uniform loads by the equivalent forces at the center of gravity of each, these forces are represented by the longer arrows. The bending moment at the section at *c* is the same as the moment of the concentrated forces, giving

$$M = (R/2 \times l/4) - (R/2 \times b/4)$$

or

$$M = R/2 \times (l - b)/4$$

This is equal to the resisting moment at the same section *c*, or, at stress *S*, SI/c, in which I/c is the section-factor. (See Chapter XV.) This reduces to $St^2b'/6$. Equating the bending moment and the resisting moment there results

$$St^2b'/6 = R(l - b)/8$$

and

$$t = 0.866\sqrt{R\,(l - b)/Sb'}$$

For $S = 3\,000$ for cast iron, this reduces to

$$t = 0.0158\sqrt{R\,(l - b)/b'} \qquad (1)$$

For $S = 16\,000$ for steel plates, it becomes

$$t = 0.00685\sqrt{R\,(l - b)/b'} \qquad (2)$$

Example 2. It is required to determine the length and thickness of a cast-iron bearing-plate under a wooden beam which is 10 in wide and supports a load of 24 000 lb. The plate is 8 in wide and bears that width on a brick wall laid up in lime mortar.

Solution. The load on the plate is 24 000/2 = 12 000 lb. From Table I, the area of the plate is 12 000/112 = 108 sq in. Hence, if the width of the plate is 8 in, its length must be 13½ in. Then, from Formula (1)

$$t = 0.0158\sqrt{12\,000\,(13\tfrac{1}{2} - 10)/8} = 1.15 \text{ in}$$

A plate 1¼ in thick would be used.

Example 3. It is required to determine the length and thickness of a steel bearing-plate under the end of a 24-in 80-lb I beam supported on a 12-in brick wall laid up in lime-and-cement mortar and carrying a load of 60 000 lb. The width of the flange of the beam is 7 in.

Solution. The load on the plate is 60 000/2 = 30 000 lb
The area of the plate = 30 000/162 = 185 sq in
The length of the plate is 185/12 = 15½ in

Then, from Formula (2)

$$t = 0.00685\sqrt{30\,000\,(15.5 - 7)/12} = 1 \text{ in}$$

Standard Sizes of Steel, Wall Bearing-Plates. These are given in Table II, and are based upon ALLOWABLE PRESSURES of 112, 162 and 208 lb per sq in. These UNIT PRESSURES are based upon the ALLOWABLE PRESSURES of the New York and Philadelphia building laws which are expressed in tons per square foot. Because of the complicated formula on which the thickness depends it is best to compute the thickness for each case.

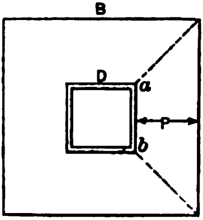

Fig. 6. Flat Bearing-plate for Column

Bearing-Plates under Columns. The general rules already given for the proportions of RIBBED BASES similar to that shown in Fig. 3 are a sufficient guide for detailing such bases; but in case simple FLAT PLATES are used under columns, their thickness must be computed according to the principles governing bending. The stress in a FLAT PLATE supported at the middle and subjected to a uniform load cannot be determined by the ordinary methods of mechanics. The approximate solution here given is generally used in the design of BASE-PLATES and COLUMN-FOOTINGS. It gives values found to be safe in practice.

In Fig. 6, let B = the length of the side of the plate as determined by the allowable pressure on the supporting masonry;
D = the side or diameter of the column;
$P = (B - D)/2$ = the projection of the plate;
t = the thickness of the plate;
A' = the area of the plate outside the column;
w = the allowable bearing pressure on the masonry due to the load on the column.

Then in Fig. 6, the pressure on one-fourth of A', shown enclosed by the dotted lines in the figure, causes shearing and bending stresses in the section of the plate along the line ab. Considering the part enclosed and taking moments about the section ab, the following equation is obtained from the usual bending-moment formula. (See Chapter XV, page 557.) That is, the resisting moment equals the bending moment, or

$$SI/c = \tfrac{1}{4}A'Pw$$

For the rectangular section at *ab*, this may be written

$$St^2D/6 = \tfrac{1}{4}A'Pw$$

whence $$t = \sqrt{3A'Pw/2SD}$$

which becomes for $S = 3\,000$

$$t = 0.0224\sqrt{A'Pw/D}$$

and for $$S = 16\,000$$

$$t = 0.0097\sqrt{A'Pw/D}$$

Example 4. It is required to determine the size and thickness of a cast-iron bearing-plate to be used under a wooden post 12 in square in cross-section and designed for a load of 115 200 lb. The plate is to be set on brickwork laid in cement mortar.

Solution. The required area of the base is 115 200/208 = 565 sq in. $\sqrt{565} = 23.76$ and a 24-in square plate would be used.

Then
$$A' = 576 - 144 = 432 \text{ sq in}$$
$$P = (24-12)/2 = 6 \text{ in}$$
$$D = 12 \text{ in}$$
$$w = 208 \text{ lb per sq in}$$

Hence $$t = 0.0224\sqrt{432 \times 6 \times 208/12} = 4.75 \text{ in}$$

This thickness may be beveled to 1½ in at the edge. The computed thickness is greater than is usual for such plates, some formulas having more practical constants which really assume a stress of about 10 000 lb per sq in in cast iron in bending.

If the plate is made of steel

$$t = 0.0097\sqrt{432 \times 6 \times 208/12} = 2 \text{ in}$$

2. Bearing-Brackets on Cast-Iron Columns

The Usual Column-Connections for fastening beams and girders to cast-iron columns are shown in Fig. 7.* The end of the beam or girder is set on a SHELF *P*, under which is a BRACKET-SUPPORT *C*, cast on the side of the column. For a single beam, one bracket is sufficient; for wide beams or girders there should be two ribs. The ends of the beams are fastened to the column by bolting to LUGS *L*, cast on the column above the bracket. Sometimes a column is fastened by bolts passing through the bottom flange of the beam and through the shelf-plate. This connection greatly decreases the lateral stability of a building and should not be used.

The Shelf and Brackets, when loaded, are subject to SHEARING and BENDING-STRESSES. The SHEAR at the outer surface of the column-shell is equal to the end-reaction of the beam it supports. The BENDING-STRESS is due to the application of the load on the shelf-plate at some distance from the surface of the column. It causes a tension at the top of the bracket which tends to tear out the shell of the column, and causes, also, a compression at the foot of the rib. The THICKNESS OF THE RIB must be great enough to withstand the compression from the load above; and since the stress is variable along a section, as along the line *X*, a rough approximation may be made by assuming the stress at the extreme edge to be twice the average stress, and by further assuming that the section in the rib takes care of all the compression. This makes it unnecessary to find the CENTER OF GRAVITY and the MOMENT OF INERTIA of the section at *X*, both of which must be known if the FLEXURE-FORMULA is used. This procedure, also, makes unnecessary any assumption as to the true position of the CENTER OF PRESSURE on the top surface of the bracket. With the thickness of rib given in the tables there is an ample FACTOR OF SAFETY for any load that may be applied through a beam. The double ribs are required when wide beams are used, not for strength, but to prevent the failure of the shelf from ECCENTRIC LOADING.

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* See also, Figs. 5 and 7, pages 457 and 458.

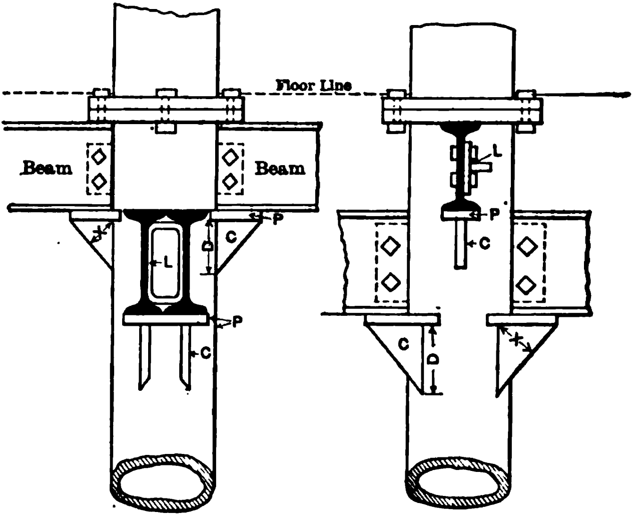


Fig. 7. Cast-iron Columns with Bearing-brackets

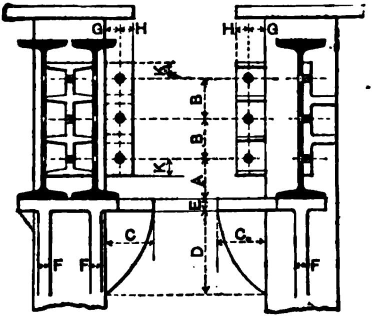
Tests of Cast-Iron Brackets. Brackets of cast-iron columns tested by the New York Building Department gave a SHEARING STRENGTH of 4 200 lb per sq in on the section at the column when the load was applied at the end of the bracket, and an average of 8 000 lb per sq in when the load was distributed over the bracket-shelf. The RANGE OF STRESS in the first case was from 2 450 to 5 600 and in the second from 4 100 to 10 900 lb per sq in. In seventeen out of twenty-two tests the MANNER OF FAILURE was the tearing out of a hole in the body of the column. It appears that when the thickness of the rib and shelf is the same as that of the shell of the column, there is generally ample strength for the support of beams and girders; but that in the case of very heavily loaded beams, the SHEARING and CRUSHING STRENGTH should be investigated. From the results of the tests mentioned, a low WORKING STRESS FOR SHEAR must be assumed.

The Bevel of Brackets. If the shelf *P* (Fig. 7), on which the beam rests, is cast SQUARE with the column, when the beam deflects, the load is brought on the extreme end of the bracket, causing an increased bending-stress in the bracket and connections and tending to tear a hole in the column-shell. To avoid this the bracket-shelf should be sloped downward, away from the column, and should have a BEVEL of ⅛ in to the foot.

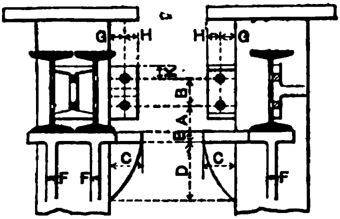
Standard Connections for Cast-Iron Columns. Table III, published originally in the Passiac Rolling Mill Handbook, and widely used by other manufacturers, will be found useful when detailing cast-iron columns.

Table III. Standard Connections for Cast-Iron Columns

All dimensions are in inches



Depth of beam	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	K	Thickness of lugs	Holes cored for ¾-in bolts
20	5	5	6	10½	1½	1½	2	1½	2	1	
18	4	5	6	10½	1½	1½	2	1½	2	1	
15	4	3½	5½	9½	1½	1¼	2	1½	1¾	1	
12	3	3	4½	7¾	1¼	1¼	2	1½	1½	1	



Depth of beam	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	K	Thickness of lugs	Holes cored for ¾-in bolts
10	3¼	3½	4	7	1¼	1	2	1½	1½	1	
9	3	3	4	7	1	1	2	1½	1½	1	
8	2½	3	4	7	1	1	2	1½	1½	¾	
7	2¼	2½	4	7	1	1	2	1½	1¼	¾	

CHAPTER XIV

STRENGTH OF COLUMNS, POSTS AND STRUTS

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1. General Principles and Definitions

Slenderness-Ratio. The manner in which a material fails under compression or pressure depends not only upon its nature, but also upon its dimensions and form, that is, upon the ratio of its length to its cross-section or diameter. This ratio is denoted by l/r and is known as the SLENDERNESS-RATIO.

Three Classes of Columns. The actual compressive strength of a material must be determined on very short specimens in which there is no tendency to bend or to buckle. The load required to break the specimen does not change much until the length is increased to about TEN TIMES THE DIAMETER OR LEAST LATERAL DIMENSION. When that ratio is exceeded, the specimen tends to fail by BENDING or by BUCKLING instead of by direct compression. According to their manner of failure, therefore, columns in general may be divided into three classes:

(1) SHORT COLUMNS, in which the slenderness-ratio does not exceed 10 and which fail by direct compression.

(2) COLUMNS in which the slenderness-ratio varies from 10 to 30 for timber and cast iron and from 10 to 90 for steel. The failure of columns of this class is due partly to direct compression and partly to bending.

(3) LONG COLUMNS, in which the slenderness-ratio exceeds 30 for timber and cast iron and 90 for steel. These columns fail wholly by bending or buckling, which causes flexural stresses of compression and tension on the concave and convex sides respectively.

2. Strength of Short Wooden Columns

The Safe Load for a Short Wooden Column, the length of which is not more than 10 times the least dimension, may be computed by the formula

$$\text{Safe load} = \frac{\text{area of cross-section} \times S}{\text{factor of safety}} \tag{1}$$

in which S denotes the crushing strength of the given material as stated in Table I.

The Factor of Safety to be selected depends upon the place where the column is used, the load which comes upon it, the quality of the material and, in a large measure, upon the value given to S. For lumber of ordinary quality, containing no very bad knots, a FACTOR OF SAFETY of five may be used; or, in other words, the safe stress per square inch of section-area may be taken as one-fifth of the values given in Table I. If the column is badly season-checked, cross-grained, or contains bad knots, a larger factor, say six or seven, should be used. The character of the load, also, should be taken into consideration in determining the factor of safety. Thus for a wooden post supporting a brick wall a larger factor should be used than for one supporting a floor, as in the former case the full load is at all times on the post, and the least reduction of its section-area in case of fire might cause it to give way. Wooden posts supporting machinery, or wooden struts in railway bridges, should have a factor of safety of from six to eight, if the values of *S* given in Table I are used.

Table I.* Average Crushing-Loads in Pounds per Square Inch, for Building Materials

Materials	Crushing-loads, lb per sq in	Materials	Crushing-loads, lb per sq in
	S		*S*
For stone, brick, concrete and masonry, see Chapter V		Woods (continued)	
		Cypress	3 500
		Hemlock	4 000
Metals		Oak, white	5 000
		Pine, long-leaf yellow	5 000
Cast iron	80 000	Pine, short-leaf yellow	4 000
Wrought iron	55 000	Douglas fir	4 500
Steel, rolled shapes	60 000	Pine, Norway	3 500
		Pine, white	4 000
Woods, with the grain†		Redwood, California	4 000
Cedar	3 500	Spruce	4 500
Chestnut	4 000	Whitewood	3 000

* See, also, Table XVI, page 647, and Table I, page 1138.

† These are values for wooden columns under 15 diameters in height and are, of course, average values. For crushing resistance of timbers perpendicular to the grain, see Table VI.

Example 1. What is the safe load for a long-leaf yellow-pine column, 10 by 10 in in cross-section and 12 ft long, using a factor of safety of 5?

Solution. Area of cross-section = 100 sq in; safe load per sq in = 5 000/5 = 1000; 1 000 × 100 = 100 000 lb.

Example 2. It is required to support a brick wall weighing 80 000 lb by a Douglas-fir column 11 ft long. What should be the cross-section of the column?

Solution. As previously stated, for these conditions it would be wise to use a factor of safety of 6. Then the safe resistance per square inch of section-area = 4 500/6 = 750; 80 000/750 = 106 sq in required, about equivalent to a 10 by 10-in cross-section.

2. Strength of Wooden Columns or Struts Over Ten Diameters in Length. Formulas

Formulas for Wooden Columns. When the length of a column exceeds about ten times its least cross-dimension it is liable to bend under the load, and hence to break under a less load than would break it if it were shorter and of the same cross-section. To deduce a formula which will make the proper allowance for the length of a column has been the aim of many engineers, but their formulas have not always been exactly verified by actual results.

Until recently the formulas of Lewis Gordon and C. Shaler Smith have been used generally by engineers, but the extensive series of tests made by the Government testing-machine at Watertown, Mass., on full-sized columns, showed that these formulas did not agree with the results there obtained. James H. Stanwood in the year 1891 plotted the values of all the tests made at the Watertown Arsenal up to that time on full-size columns. From the results thus obtained be deduced the following STRAIGHT-LINE FORMULA for long-leaf yellow-pine and white-oak columns:

$$\text{Safe load per square inch} = 1\,000 - 10 \times \frac{\text{length in inches}}{\text{breadth in inches}} \qquad (2)$$

The author has carefully compared this formula with the results of actual tests, and with other formulas,* and believes that for timber without serious defects and with not more than 10 or 12% of moisture, it meets the actual conditions as nearly as any other formula. He has therefore prepared Tables II III, IV and V for the strength of round and square columns of the sizes generally used in practice. Of course other formulas must be used when required by certain city building laws. For other sizes the loads can easily be computed by the formulas. For columns having bad knots or other defects, or more than 10 or 12% of moisture, or which are to be exposed to the weather or known to be eccentrically loaded, a deduction of from 10 to 25% should be made from the values given in the tables.

The loads for columns of other species of wood were computed by the following formulas of the same form as that of Formula (2):

For Douglas fir and spruce,

$$\text{Safe load per square inch} = 850 - 8.5 \times \frac{\text{length in inches}}{\text{breadth in inches}} \qquad (3)$$

For chestnut, hemlock, short-leaf yellow pine and white pine,

$$\text{Safe load per square inch} = 750 - 7.5 \times \frac{\text{length in inches}}{\text{breadth in inches}} \qquad (4)$$

For cedar, cypress, redwood, Norway pine and whitewood,

$$\text{Safe load per square inch} = 625 - 6 \times \frac{\text{length in inches}}{\text{breadth in inches}} \qquad (5)$$

In these formulas the breadth is the least side of a rectangular column, or the diameter of a round column. The round columns were computed for the half-inch, to allow for being turned out of a square column, of the next size larger. The formulas were used only for columns exceeding 12 diameters for Douglas fir and spruce, and exceeding 10 diameters for other woods.

4. Tables of Safe Loads for Wooden Columns

Tables II, III, IV and V give the safe loads in pounds for round and square wooden columns of different cross-sections and lengths and of different kinds of wood. They were computed from formulas as explained above and are for favorable conditions of material, seasoning and position in buildings.

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* There are many formulas for the safe loads per square inch of cross-section of wooden columns. Among those frequently used are the following:

American Railway Engineering and Maintenance of Way Association,

$$P/A = S\,(1 - l/60\,d)$$

Department of Agriculture,

$$P/A = S\,(700 + 15\,l/d)/(700 + 15\,l/d + l^2/d^2)$$

Winslow Formula (Chicago Law),

$$P/A = S\,(1 - l/80\,d)$$

In these formulas, P is the safe load in pounds, A the area of the cross-section in square inches, P/A the safe load in pounds per square inch, S the safe end-bearing compression per square inch, l the length in inches and d the least side or diameter in inches. These formulas give smaller safe loads than those of Tables II, III, IV and V; but as the loads of these tables are to be DECREASED for unfavorable conditions and the loads determined from the three formulas mentioned INCREASED for favorable conditions, the results are about the same.

Table II. Safe Loads in Pounds for Long-Leaf Yellow-Pine and White-Oak Columns, Round and Square

Size of column in inches	Length of column in feet								
	8	10	12	14	15	16	18	20	24
4X6	18 200	16 800	15 360	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
5½ round	19 590	18 760	17 550	16 500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
6X6	30 200	28 800	27 400	25 900	25 200	24 500	.....	.....	.....
6X8	40 300	38 400	36.500	34 600	33 600	32 600	.....	.....	.....
6X10	50 400	48 000	45 600	43 200	42 000	40 800	.....	.....	.....
7½ round	38 540	37 130	35 710	34 300	33 590	32 890	.....	.....	.....
8X8	64 000	54 400	52 500	50 600	49 600	48 600	46 700	.....	.....
8X10	80 000	68 000	65 600	63 200	62 000	60 800	53 400	.....	.....
8X12	96 000	81 600	78 700	76 800	74 400	73 000	70 100	.....	.....
9½ round	70 900	61 970	60 190	58 350	57 429	56 580	54 800	.....	.....
10X10	100 000	100 000	85 600	83 200	82 000	80 800	78 400	76 000	.....
10X12	120 000	120 000	102 700	99 800	98 400	97 000	94 100	91 200	.....
10X14	140 000	140 000	119 800	116 500	114 800	113 100	109 800	106 400	.....
11½ round	103 900	103 900	90 912	88 730	87 690	86 550	84 160	82 290	.....
12X12	144 000	144 000	144 000	123 800	122 400	121 000	118 100	115 200	109 440
12X14	168 000	168 000	168 000	144 500	142 800	141 100	137 800	134 400	127 680
12X16	192 000	192 000	192 000	165 100	163 200	161 300	157 400	153 600	145 920
14X14	196 000	196 000	196 000	196 000	170 900	169 100	165 800	162 400	155 800
16X16	256 000	256 000	256 000	256 000	229 100	225 300	221 400	217 600	209 900
18X18	324 000	324 000	324 000	324 000	324 000	289 400	285 100	280 800	272 160
20X20	400 000	400 000	400 000	400 000	400 000	400 000	356 800	352 000	342 400

Table III. Safe Loads in Pounds for Douglas-Fir and Spruce Columns, Round and Square

Size of column in inches	Length of column in feet								
	8	10	12	14	15	16	18	20	24
4X6	15 500	14 280	13 050	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
5½ round	16 650	15 790	14 900	14 030	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
6X6	25 704	24 480	23 256	22 032	21 420	20 808	.....	.....	.....
6X8	34 272	32 640	31 008	29 376	28 560	27 744	.....	.....	.....
6X10	42 840	40 800	37 760	36 720	35 700	34 680	.....	.....	.....
7½ round	32 740	31 540	30 340	29 140	28 540	27 940	26 740	.....	.....
8X8	47 870	46 240	44 600	42 970	42 160	41 340	39 710	.....	.....
8X10	59 840	57 800	55 760	53 720	52 700	51 680	49 640	.....	.....
8X12	71 808	69 360	66 910	64 460	63 240	62 000	59 560	.....	.....
9½ round	54 150	52 650	51 150	49 580	48 820	48 070	46 570	.....	.....
10X10	85 000	78 800	72 760	70 720	69 700	68 680	66 640	64 600	.....
10X12	102 000	89 760	87 300	84 860	83 640	82 400	80 000	77 500	.....
10X14	119 000	104 700	101 860	99 000	97 580	96 150	93 300	90 400	.....
11½ round	88 290	79 100	77 250	75 400	74 470	73 550	71 700	69 850	66 160
12X12	122 400	110 160	107 700	105 260	104 040	102 800	100 360	97 920	93 000
12X14	142 800	128 520	125 660	122 800	121 380	119 950	117 100	114 240	108 520
12X16	163 200	146 880	143 600	140 350	138 720	137 080	133 800	130 560	124 030
14X14	166 600	166 600	149 450	146 600	145 180	143 760	140 900	138 080	132 400
14X16	190 400	190 400	170 800	167 500	165 900	164 300	161 000	157 800	151 300
16X16	217 600	217 600	217 600	194 700	193 000	191 400	188 200	184 900	178 400

Table IV. Safe Loads in Pounds for Chestnut, Hemlock, Short-Leaf Yellow-Pine and White-Pine Columns, Round and Square

Size of column in inches	Length of column in feet								
	8	10	12	14	15	16	18	20	24
4×6	13 680	12 600	11 520	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
5½ round	14 700	13 900	13 160	12 370	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
6×6	22 680	21 600	20 520	19 440	18 900	18 360	.....	.....	.....
6×8	30 240	28 800	27 360	25 920	25 200	24 480	.....	.....	.....
6×10	37 800	36 000	34 200	32 400	31 500	30 600	.....	.....	.....
7½ round	28 900	27 850	26 780	25 720	25 190	24 660	.....	.....	.....
8×8	42 240	40 768	39 360	37 880	37 120	36 480	35 000	.....	.....
8×10	52 800	50 960	49 200	47 360	46 400	44 600	43 760	.....	.....
8×12	63 360	61 152	59 040	56 830	55 680	54 720	52 500	.....	.....
9½ round	47 960	46 440	45 160	43 740	43 100	42 400	41 120	.....	.....
10×10	75 000	66 000	64 200	62 400	61 500	60 600	58 800	57 000	.....
10×12	90 000	79 200	77 040	74 880	73 800	72 720	70 560	68 400	.....
10×14	105 000	92 400	89 880	87 360	86 100	84 840	82 320	79 800	.....
11½ round	77 925	69 820	68 160	66 490	65 770	64 833	63 170	61 600	.....
12×12	108 000	108 000	95 040	92 880	91 700	90 700	88 560	86 400	82 080
12×14	126 000	126 000	110 800	108 300	107 000	105 840	103 300	100 802	95 760
12×16	144 000	144 000	126 700	123 800	122 300	120 900	118 000	115 200	109 400
14×14	147 000	147 000	147 000	129 300	128 100	127 000	124 400	121 900	116 800
16×16	192 000	192 000	192 000	192 000	170 500	168 900	166 100	163 000	157 400
18×18	243 000	243 000	243 000	243 000	243 000	217 000	213 800	210 600	204 100
20×20	300 000	300 000	300 000	300 000	300 000	300 000	267 600	264 000	256 000

Table V. Safe Loads in Pounds for Cedar, Cypress, Redwood, Norway-Pine and Whitewood Columns, Round and Square

Size of column in inches	Length of column in feet								
	8	10	12	14	15	16	18	20	24
4×6	11 520	10 550	9 800	8 700	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
5½ round	12 350	11 730	11 180	10 490	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
6×6	19 080	18 216	17 352	16 490	16 050	15 620	.....	.....	.....
6×8	25 440	24 290	23 140	21 980	21 400	20 830	.....	.....	.....
6×10	31 800	30 360	28 920	27 480	26 760	26 040	.....	.....	.....
7½ round	24 220	23 380	22 540	21 660	21 260	20 820	.....	.....	.....
8×8	35 450	34 300	33 150	32 000	31 420	30 850	29 700	.....	.....
8×10	44 320	42 480	41 440	40 000	39 280	38 560	37 120	.....	.....
8×12	53 180	51 450	49 730	48 000	47 110	46 270	44 544	.....	.....
9½ round	40 000	39 000	37 860	36 800	36 230	35 730	34 670	.....	.....
10×10	62 500	55 400	53 960	52 520	51 800	51 080	49 640	48 200	.....
10×12	75 000	66 480	64 800	63 000	62 160	61 300	59 570	57 840	.....
10×14	87 500	77 560	75 600	73 500	72 520	71 510	69 500	67 480	.....
11½ round	64 930	58 390	57 140	55 800	55 170	54 550	53 100	51 950	.....
12×12	90 000	90 000	79 780	78 000	77 180	76 320	74 590	72 860	69 400
12×14	105 000	105 000	93 170	91 050	90 050	89 000	87 020	85 000	80 900
12×16	120 000	120 000	106 300	104 000	102 900	101 700	99 400	97 150	92 500
14×14	122 500	122 500	110 350	108 350	107 400	106 400	104 460	102 300	98 400
16×16	160 000	160 000	160 000	143 870	142 590	141 570	139 260	136 960	132 300
18×18	202 500	202 500	202 500	202 500	183 060	181 760	179 170	176 580	171 400
20×20	250 000	250 000	250 000	250 000	250 000	250 000	224 500	221 200	215 200

6. Eccentric Loading of Wooden Columns

General Principles. When the load on a short column or post is not axial, that is, when the column supports a girder on one side only, or when the weight from one girder is much more than that from the others, the load is said to be ECCENTRIC, and the distance from the point of application of the load to the axis of the column, denoted by p, is called the ECCENTRICITY of the load. It is evident that the stress in the column will increase with p, and that the total unit stress S, on the side of the column in which the compression is the greatest will be greater than for an equal axial load.

Formula for Eccentric Load. Suppose the eccentric load to be applied as shown in Fig. 1, then the sectional area of the required square or rectangular column may be computed by the following formula:

The sectional area of the column in square inches is

$$A = P/S + 6P_1p/Sd \qquad (6)$$

in which A = sectional area in square inches
P = total load on column in pounds
P_1 = eccentric load in pounds
S = safe stress in pounds per square inch
p = distance from axis of column to center of bearing in inches
d = side of column parallel with girder, in inches

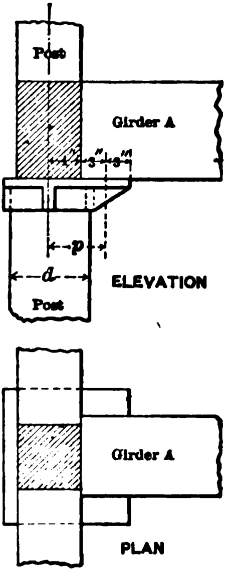

Fig. 1. Eccentric Load on Wooden Column

In assuming the value of S, the probable ratio of the side to the length of the column should be taken into account. Thus if it is probable that the length will not exceed 12 times the side, both being measured in inches, for oak, long-leaf yellow-pine or Douglas-fir columns, or 10 times the side for other woods, then the value of S for short columns may be taken. If the ratio will probably be greater than this, then the probable ratio should be roughly calculated and S computed for that ratio by the formula given for columns more than 10 or 12 diameters in length, as noted in preceding paragraphs.

Example 3. The lower post in Fig. 1 supports a total load on its cap-plate of 60 000 lb, including the reaction of 12 000 lb from girder A. What should be the size of the column if made of Douglas fir and if 12 ft in height?

Solution. As it is probable that the column will have to be 10 in square S may be taken from Table I. With a factor of safety of 5, this is equal to 4 500/5 = 900 lb per sq in. P_1 = 12 000 lb, d = 10 in and p, the distance from the axis of the column to the center of bearing of the girder = 7 in. Then from Formula (6), the sectional area of the column is

$$A = \frac{60\,000}{900} + \frac{6 \times 12\,000 \times 7}{900 \times 10} = 66.6 + 56 = 122.6 \text{ sq in,}$$

about equivalent to a 12 by 12-in square column. From Table III, it may be seen that an 8 by 10-in column concentrically loaded will carry almost 60 000 lb.

Hence, the eccentric load from the girder increases the dimensions of the cross-section of the column from 8 by 10 to 12 by 12 in.

For wooden columns having a length of over 12 diameters for Douglas fir and spruce and over 10 diameters for other woods the safe load per square inch should be found by using Formulas (3), (4) or (5).

Example 4. What size will be required for a white-oak column, 14 ft in length to carry a total load of 56 000 lb, 16 000 lb of which act as an eccentric load from a girder, the distance from the center of bearing of the girder to the column being 2 in.

Solution. From Table II, it is probable that at least a 10 by 10-in column will be required, so that S must be calculated by Formula (2).

$$S = 1\,000 - 10 \times \frac{\text{length in in}}{\text{breadth in in}}$$

Substituting, $$S = 1\,000 - 10 \times \frac{168}{10} = 832 \text{ lb per sq in}$$

Substituting in Formula (6),

$$A = \frac{56\,000}{832} + \frac{6 \times 16\,000 \times 7}{832 \times 10} = 68 + 80 = 148 \text{ sq in}$$

equivalent to a 12 by 12-in column.

6. Metal Caps and Bolsters for Wooden Columns

Use of Metal Post-Caps. Whenever wooden posts are used in tiers, one above another, each post except the top one should have an iron cap-plate, and the upper post should be set on the cap of the post below and not on the girder. Where a wooden post supports a girder, only, a wooden bolster may be used in place of the cap but modern approved metal post-caps are always preferable to wooden bolsters. Details of post-caps and bolsters are shown in Chapter XXII.

7. Crushing of Wood Perpendicular to the Grain

Safe Unit Stresses. The bearing of wooden girders, the ends of columns resting on girders, and washers on truss-rods, should be proportioned so that the quotient obtained by dividing the load by the bearing area will not exceed the safe unit stresses given in Table VI.

Table VI. Crushing Strength of Wood Perpendicular to the Grain

Kind of wood	Crushing strength, lb per sq in	Kind of wood	Crushing strength, lb per sq in
White oak	500	Cedar	200
Long-leaf yellow pine	350	Spruce	200
Douglas fir	200	Hemlock	150
Norway pine	200	Cypress	200
White pine	200	Redwood	150
Short-leaf yellow pine	250	Chestnut	250

8. Cast-Iron Columns*

Cast-Iron Versus Steel Columns. Although steel is being used more and more every year for columns in buildings, it will probably never entirely supplant cast iron for buildings of moderate height. For skeleton construction, however, when the height of the building exceeds twice its width, riveted steel columns, with riveted connections with the beams and girders, are unquestionably better; but for the larger proportion of buildings of moderate height, cast iron will probably have the preference for some time to come because it is more economical.

Advantages of Cast-Iron Columns. The commercial advantages which favor the use of cast-iron columns are these:

(1) **Cheapness.** As far as the cost of production is concerned, cast iron is cheaper than steel. This consideration alone often decides in favor of its employment. The raw material is easily transported as pig iron is sometimes brought over as ballast; so that competition with foreign countries keeps down the price.

(2) **Availability.** Cast iron is the most available form of iron. An iron-foundry requires no very elaborate plant, scarcely more than a few furnaces and sand molds, and moreover, no very extensive capital is required to operate it; consequently, the product may be obtained in almost any locality. In rolling-mills, on the contrary, the machinery must be very heavy in order that it may overcome the enormous pressure due to the resistance of the steel in rolling, and to operate it requires a great amount of power.

(3) **Readiness with Which it May be Obtained.** Columns and other structural members if made of cast iron may be obtained much more quickly than if made of steel. After the pattern has once been prepared, a dozen castings may be made almost as quickly as one, and with but very little extra cost, except that of the additional raw material and the expense of remelting it. On the other hand, columns and girders built up of rolled sections take considerably longer to make. Sections can be punched only one at a time, and if they do not happen to be of some standard length, they must be cut and fitted separately before all can be finally riveted together.

(4) **Physical Advantages.** Cast iron is one of the best materials to resist compression, its ultimate compressive strength being as high as 80 000 lb per sq in and even higher. Moreover, it can be molded into almost any desired form, and lugs, brackets and flanges may be cast upon a column all in one piece thus greatly simplifying the cost of erection. In fact, the ease with which the beam and girder-connections can be made is one of the chief reasons for the popularity of cast iron. Finally, it resists fire better than steel and it corrodes less easily. Because of this, its use is advocated by many for the wall columns of skeleton structures, as these columns are particularly liable to corrode. In the Mutual and Manhattan Life Insurance Company's Buildings in New York City, for example, the wall columns are of cast iron, whereas the interior ones are of steel.

Disadvantages of Cast-Iron Columns. The disadvantages of cast iron for columns are as follows:

(1) **Physical Disadvantages.** Cast iron is hard and brittle and cannot be punched or riveted, as the blows required in driving the rivets would very likely fracture the castings; consequently, all connections have to be made with bolts. A bolted connection even under the most favorable conditions is not very rigid,

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* See, also, Chapter XIII, pages 445 to 447.

as it allows more or less lateral movement, which, in the case of a tall, narrow building, is a serious matter. Owing to the low tensile and shearing strengths of cast iron, the brackets supporting beams and girders are unreliable and require great skill in designing. (See pages 445 to 447.)

(2) **Defects in the Castings and the Difficulties of Thorough Inspection.** The castings themselves are subject to a number of serious defects. In the first place, owing to the shifting or floating of the cores, variations in the thickness of hollow castings are not infrequent; in fact, it is very difficult to avoid them even with the best care and workmanship. Moreover, there are apt to be concealed cavities, blow-holes or honeycomb, and foreign substances, such as cinders and sand, any of which may be on the inside of a casting, where a careful examination often fails to reveal them. The most critical condition, however, is that due to the uneven contraction of the metal during the process of cooling, the thin parts of the casting cooling and contracting more quickly than the thick ones, thereby giving rise to INITIAL STRESSES, at times of sufficient intensity to fracture the casting before any external loads whatever have been placed upon it. In many cases this trouble is due to faulty designing or to carelessness in handling the molds; yet, even under the most favorable conditions, it is so difficult to secure equal radiation from the molds in all directions that castings entirely free from inherent shrinkage-stresses are probably seldom produced.

9. Design of Cast-Iron Columns

Common Forms of Cast-Iron Columns. Figs. 2, 3 and 4 show some common forms of cross-sections of cast-iron columns. Columns of circular or rectangular cross-sections are always made hollow and the diameter should be made as large as possible, within reason of course; because of two columns having the same area of cross-section, the one which, within certain limits, has the greater diameter, and consequently the thinner shell, is the stronger. The maximum thickness of shell is 1¾ or 2 in, because of the difficulty of keeping the core from shifting in columns of greater thickness; and the minimum thickness is ¾ in. The latter is a requirement of most municipal building codes. As the maximum limit of diameter, 16 in may be taken; beyond this, built-up steel columns can be used to better advantage and are less expensive. The minimum diameter permitted by most building codes is 5 in, and the unsupported length of the column is limited to 20 times the least diameter.

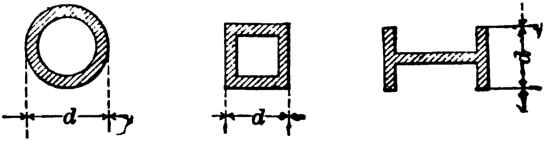
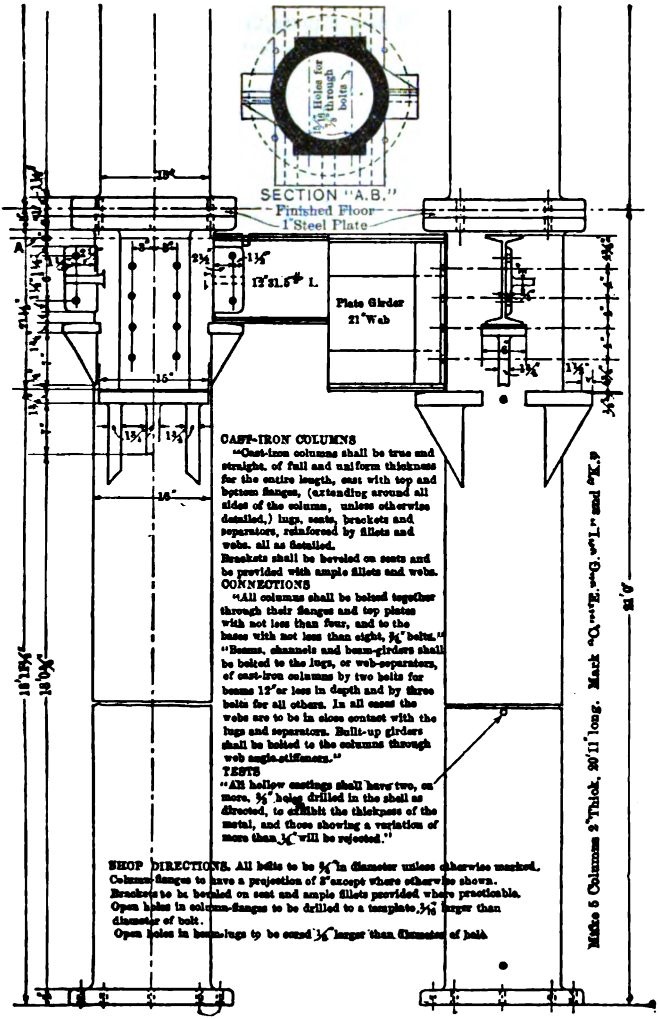


Fig. 2 Fig. 3 Fig. 4

Figs. 2, 3 and 4. Cross-sections of Cast-iron Columns

Hollow, Cylindrical Cast-Iron Columns. The most economical form of cross-section, as far as structural requirements are concerned, is the HOLLOW CIRCLE (Fig. 2). This form is generally used for interior columns; but for exterior columns it is not so desirable, because such columns cannot be bonded into walls so readily, and do not present the same facilities for the design of the beam and girder-connections as columns having the other forms of cross-sections.



CAST-IRON COLUMNS

"Cast-iron columns shall be true and straight, of full and uniform thickness for the entire length, cast with top and bottom flanges, (extending around all sides of the column, unless otherwise detailed,) lugs, seats, brackets and separators, reinforced by fillets and webs, all as detailed.

Brackets shall be beveled on seats and be provided with ample fillets and webs.

CONNECTIONS

"All columns shall be bolted together through their flanges and top plates with not less than four, and to the bases with not less than eight, ¾" bolts."

"Beams, channels and beam-girders shall be bolted to the lugs, or web-separators, of cast-iron columns by two bolts for beams 12" or less in depth and by three bolts for all others. In all cases the webs are to be in close contact with the lugs and separators. Built-up girders shall be bolted to the columns through web angle-stiffeners."

TESTS

"All hollow castings shall have two, or more, ⅜" holes drilled in the shell as directed, to exhibit the thickness of the metal, and those showing a variation of more than ¼" will be rejected."

SHOP DIRECTIONS. All bolts to be ¾" in diameter unless otherwise marked.
Column-flanges to have a projection of 3" except where otherwise shown.
Brackets to be beveled on seat and ample fillets provided where practicable.
Open holes in column-flanges to be drilled to a template, 1/16" larger than diameter of bolt.
Open holes in beam-lugs to be cored ⅛" larger than diameter of bolt.

Fig. 5. Connections for Cylindrical Cast-iron Columns

Typical Connections for a Cylindrical Cast-Iron Column. Fig. 5 shows the details of a cylindrical cast-iron column with typical beam and girder-connections, dimensions and specification-notes. (See, also, details of connections, brackets, base-plates, etc., for cylindrical columns in Chapter XIII, Figs. 2, 3 and 7 and Table III of same chapter.)

Cast-Iron Columns with Hollow-Square Cross-Section. The columns next in point of economy of cross-section are those with the HOLLOW-SQUARE cross-section (Fig. 3). They are generally used for wall columns because it is easier to bond them into the masonry than if they had a circular section. Columns of hollow rectangular cross-section of unequal sides are sometimes found to be more available than those of square section.

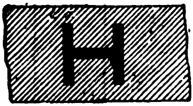
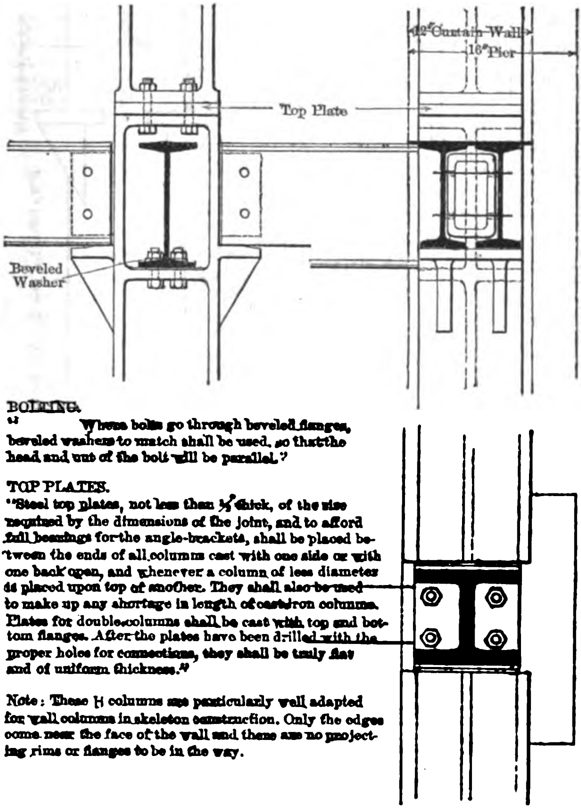


Fig. 6. H-shaped Cross-section of Cast-iron Column

The H-Shape Column (Fig. 4) ranks third in regard to economy of material. It is particularly well adapted for wall columns in skeleton construction for the following reasons:



BOLTING.

"Where bolts go through beveled flanges, beveled washers to match shall be used, so that the head and nut of the bolt will be parallel."

TOP PLATES.

"Steel top plates, not less than ½" thick, of the size required by the dimensions of the joint, and to afford full bearings for the angle-brackets, shall be placed between the ends of all columns cast with one side or with one back open, and whenever a column of less diameter is placed upon top of another. They shall also be used to make up any shortage in length of cast-iron columns. Plates for double-columns shall be cast with top and bottom flanges. After the plates have been drilled with the proper holes for connections, they shall be truly flat and of uniform thickness."

Note: These H columns are particularly well adapted for wall columns in skeleton construction. Only the edges come near the face of the wall and there are no projecting rims or flanges to be in the way.

Fig. 7. Connections for H-shaped Cast-iron Column

(1) Being entirely open, with both the interior and exterior surfaces exposed, any inequalities in thickness can be readily discovered and the thickness itself

easily measured, thus obviating any necessity for drilling, and rendering the inspection of the columns much easier.

(2) The entire surface of the column may be protected by paint.

(3) When built in brick walls the masonry fills all voids, so that no open space is left; and if the column is placed as shown in Fig. 6, only its edges come near the face of the wall.

(4) Lugs and brackets can be cast on such columns more readily and effectively than on cylindrical columns, especially for wide and heavy girders, and the connections do not require projecting flanges, which are often in the way on cylindrical columns.

(5) An eccentric load may be applied to the web where its effect is less and where it is more evenly distributed than when it is applied to the outer rim or shell.

Details of connections and brackets for H-shaped cast-iron columns are shown in Fig. 7.

Details of Connections of Cast-Iron Columns. The bearings of a cast-iron column should always be faced true to the axis of the column, and the columns should be bolted together by four ¾-in bolts for columns 10 in in diameter or less, and by six bolts for 12-in and larger columns. Faced plates, as shown in Fig. 5, are inserted between the flanges of columns to make up for any shortage in length and also when a column of smaller diameter is placed over one of greater diameter. For convenience in erecting columns, the joint is generally placed just above the beams or girders supported by the columns.

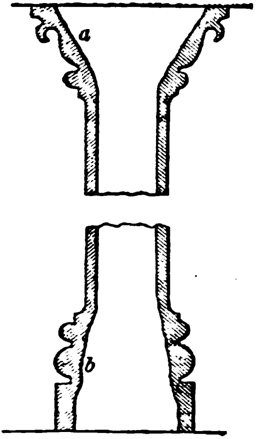


Fig. 8. Cast-iron Column with Cap and Base. Wrong Method

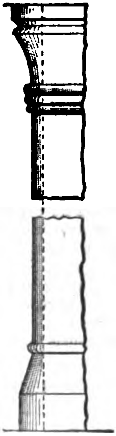


Fig. 9. Cast-iron Column with Cap and Base. Slight Projections

Projecting Caps and Bases. A column with ornamental cap and base should never be cast as shown in Fig. 8, that is, if it is to support a load. In every bearing column, the core should extend in a straight line from end to end. Plain molded caps and bases may be cast solid as in Fig. 9; but if more ornamental caps are desired, or heavy projecting bases, they should be cast separately and attached to the straight columns by screws.

10. Strength of Cast-Iron Columns. Formulas

Formulas for Cast-Iron Columns. The ULTIMATE RESISTANCE of cast iron to crushing is generally taken at 80 000 lb per sq in, and for posts, pintels, etc., where the length is not more than six times the diameter or breadth, it will usually be safe to assume a WORKING STRENGTH of six tons per square inch of metal. For longer posts or columns, the strength is affected by the ratio of length to diameter, but to just what extent is not known with absolute certainty; hence all formulas for columns must be more or less theoretical. The consequence is that while a great many formulas have been published, there is none that is universally accepted. The two following Formulas[*] (7) and (8), however, are perhaps now more commonly adopted than any others, as they appear to agree as well as any with actual tests.

Formula for Hollow, Cylindrical, Cast-Iron Columns with Square Ends

Ultimate strength, in pounds

$$= \text{metal-area} \times \left[80\,000 + \left(1 + \frac{\text{sq of length in in}}{800 \times \text{sq of diam in in}}\right)\right] \qquad (7)$$

or

$$\text{Ultimate strength, in pounds} = \frac{80\,000\,A}{1 + l^2/800\,d^2}$$

in which A is the area of the cross-section in square inches.

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[*] The tables in the handbook of the Cambria Steel Company are based on Formulas (7) and (8), and they have been adopted in the Boston building laws. They are based upon the form of Gordon's formula, which in turn is Rankine's formula with d, the diameter or least lateral dimension, substituted for r, the least radius of gyration of the cross-section. Rankine's formula is sometimes referred to as Gordon's formula. The values obtained by these formulas will be slightly in excess of those given in the Chicago building law (see tabulation in this footnote), and considerably less than those permitted by the building law of New York City, $S = 13\,000 - 30\,l/r$.

In 1898 Professor W. H. Burr made an analysis of the results of a number of experiments on full-size, hollow, cylindrical cast-iron columns made at the Watertown Arsenal, Mass., and at Phœnixville, Pa., and by plotting the results found that a straight-line formula having the equation $S = 30\,500 - 160\,l/d$, in which S is the ultimate strength of the metal per square inch of column-area, represented the average of the plotted results. With a factor of safety of 4 this would become $S = 7\,625 - 40\,l/d$ and with a factor of safety of 5, $S = 6\,100 - 32\,l/d$.

According to Professor Burr's analysis the values for S given in the fourth column of Table VII represent a factor of safety of a little over 4 for $l/d = 20$, and of nearly 7 for $l/d = 36$.

Formulas for finding the values of S according to the various building codes.

Cylindrical columns		Rectangular columns	
Chicago	Boston	Chicago	Boston
$\frac{10\,000}{1 + \frac{l^2}{600\,d^2}}$	$\frac{10\,000}{1 + \frac{l^2}{800\,d^2}}$	$\frac{10\,000}{1 + \frac{l^2}{800\,d^2}}$	$\frac{10\,000}{1 + \frac{l^2}{1\,066\,d^2}}$

The New York City Building Code Formula is

$$S = 13\,000 - 30\,l/r$$

Compared with the results of tests that have been made on full-size cast-iron columns it has been shown that while in Chicago a factor of safety of 8 is allowed, the actual factor of safety is a little over 4, that in Boston it is slightly under 4, while in New York it is a trifle over 6. Great care, therefore, should be taken in the calculations for cast-iron columns, as the above comparison shows.

A series of tests on full-size cast-iron columns and brackets was made under the direction of Stevenson Constable, in December, 1897, a report of which, with illustrations, may be found in the Engineering Record for January 8 and 22, 1898.

Formula for Hollow, Rectangular, Cast-Iron Columns with Square Ends

Ultimate strength, in pounds

$$= \text{metal-area} \times \left[80\,000 + \left(1 + \frac{\text{sq of length in in}}{1\,067 \times \text{sq of least side in in}} \right) \right] \qquad (8)$$

or

$$\text{Ultimate strength, in pounds} = \frac{80\,000\, A}{1 + l^2/1\,067\, d^2}$$

in which A is the area of the cross-section in square inches

Formula for Solid, Cylindrical, Cast-Iron Columns

Ultimate strength, in pounds

$$= \text{metal-area} \times \left[80\,000 + 1 + \frac{\text{sq of length in in}}{266 \times \text{sq of diam in in}} \right] \qquad (9)$$

or

$$\text{Ultimate strength, in pounds} = \frac{80\,000\, A}{1 + l^2/266\, d^2}$$

in which A is the area of the cross-section in square inches.

For H-shaped columns use formula (7), taking d as the least side.

THE SAFE LOAD is generally taken at one-eighth of the ultimate strength or breaking-load.

Eccentric Loading. Cast-iron columns should not be loaded with a heavy, ECCENTRIC LOAD, that is, a load applied on one side of the column without a corresponding load on the other side, as cast iron is unable to resist very great bending stresses. (See, also, eccentric loading of wooden and steel columns, pages 453 and 485.)

11. Tables of Safe Loads for Cast-Iron Columns. Examples

Explanation of Tables. As the allowable pressure PER SQUARE INCH OF METAL depends upon the ratio of length to diameter, without regard to actual dimensions (that is, it would be the same for a column 6 in in diameter and 12 ft long, as for one 8 in in diameter and 16 ft long), it is practicable to prepare a table which will give the value of the terms of Formulas (7) and (8) inclosed in brackets for all ratios of diameter to length, and thus simplify very much the computation for any particular column. Table VII has been computed by means of Formulas (7) and (8) for ratios of length to diameter varying from 8 to 36, and the same result will be obtained by using the values given in this table as by using the corresponding formula. To use this table it is only necessary to divide the length of the column by the least thickness or diameter, both in inches, and opposite the number in the first column of the table coming nearest to the quotient, find the SAFE STRENGTH PER SQUARE INCH for the column. This load is multiplied by the METAL-AREA in the cross-section of the column and the result is the SAFE LOAD for the column. Examples (5) and (6) will illustrate the use of Tables VII to X.

Example 5. What is the safe load for a 10-in hollow, cylindrical cast-iron column, 15 ft long, the shell being 1 in thick?

Solution. In this case the ratio l/d, which is the length of the column divided by the diameter, both in inches, is 18, and opposite 18 in Table VII the safe load per square inch for a cylindrical column is found to be 7 117 lb. The metal-area of the column, from the table of areas of circles, page 42, is equal to the area of a 10-in circle minus the area of an 8-in circle, or, $78.53 - 50.26 = 28.27$ sq in. Multiplying these two together, for the safe load of the column the result is 28.27 sq in × 7 117 lb per sq in = 201 197 lb, or about 100.5 tons.

Tables VIII, IX and X. To still further facilitate computations, Tab VIII, IX and X, have been prepared, which give at a glance the safe loa based on a factor of safety of 8, for columns of the more common sizes a lengths. For lengths between those given in the tables sufficiently accur results may be obtained by interpolation. For any other factor of safe multiply the safe load given in the table by 8, and divide by the new fact of safety.

Example 6. What is the safe load for a 9-in hollow, cast-iron column square cross-section 12 ft long, the shell being 1 in thick?

Solution. From Table IX, the safe load is 129 tons. The same result m be obtained by using Table VII. The ratio l/d in this case is $144/9 = 16$ a the corresponding safe load in pounds per square inch is 8 064. The area the column is 32 sq in. Hence, the safe load is 32 sq in × 8 064 lb per sq in 258 048 lb, or 129 tons, which agrees with the safe load given in Table IX f the same column.

Table VII. Breaking-Loads and Safe Loads in Pounds per Square Inch for Hollow, Cylindrical and Hollow, Rectangular, Cast-Iron Columns

Calculated by Formulas (7) and (8)

Length in inches divided by external breadth or diameter	Breaking-weight in pounds per square inch		Safe loads in pounds per square inch. Safety-factor 8	
	Cylindrical	Rectangular	Cylindrical	Rectangular
8	74 074	75 470	9 259	9 433
9	72 661	74 350	9 082	9 293
10	71 110	73 126	8 888	9 140
11	69 505	71 870	8 688	8 983
12	67 800	70 487	8 475	8 811
13	66 060	69 084	8 257	8 635
14	64 257	67 567	8 032	8 446
15	62 450	66 060	7 806	8 257
16	60 606	64 516	7 576	8 064
17	58 780	62 942	7 347	7 867
18	56 940	61 360	7 117	7 670
19	55 134	59 745	6 892	7 468
20	53 333	58 180	6 666	7 272
21	51 580	56 610	6 447	7 076
22	49 843	55 920	6 230	6 877
23	48 163	53 470	6 020	6 684
24	46 512	51 950	5 814	6 494
25	44 918	50 440	5 614	6 305
26	43 360	48 960	5 420	6 120
27	41 862	47 530	5 233	5 940
28	40 404	46 110	5 050	5 764
29	39 000	44 742	4 875	5 592
30	37 647	43 390	4 706	5 424
31	36 347	42 080	4 543	5 260
32	35 090	40 816	4 386	5 102
33	33 884	39 580	4 235	4 947
34	32 720	38 380	4 090	4 797
35	31 608	37 244	3 951	4 655
36	30 534	36 120	3 817	4 515

Table VIII. Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 pounds for Hollow, Cylindrical, Cast-Iron Columns with Square Ends

Based on Formula (7). Safety-factor 8

Diameter, in	Thickness, in	Length of column in feet										Area of metal, sq in	Weight, lin ft
		6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24		
5	3/4	39	34	29	24	....	....	....	....	....	....	10.0	31.3
	7/8	45	38	32	27	....	....	....	....	....	....	11.3	35.3
5½	3/4	46	40	35	30	26	....	....	....	....	....	11.2	35.0
	7/8	52	46	40	34	29	....	....	....	....	....	12.7	39.7
6	3/4	52	47	41	36	31	27	24	....	....	....	12.4	38.7
	7/8	60	53	47	41	36	31	27	....	....	....	14.1	44.0
	1	66	59	52	45	39	34	30	....	....	....	15.7	49.0
7	3/4	65	60	54	48	43	38	34	....	....	....	14.7	46.0
	7/8	74	68	62	55	49	43	38	....	....	....	16.8	52.6
	1	83	76	68	61	54	48	43	....	....	....	18.8	58.9
8	3/4	78	72	67	61	55	50	45	40	36	33	17.1	53.4
	7/8	89	83	76	70	63	57	51	46	41	37	19.6	61.2
	1	100	93	86	79	71	64	58	52	47	42	22.0	68.7
9	7/8	103	98	91	85	80	71	65	59	54	49	22.3	69.8
	1	117	110	103	95	90	80	73	67	61	55	25.1	78.5
	1⅛	129	122	114	105	99	89	81	74	67	61	27.8	87.0
10	7/8	118	112	106	100	93	86	79	73	67	62	25.1	78.4
	1	133	127	120	112	105	97	89	82	76	69	28.3	88.4
	1⅛	147	141	133	125	116	107	99	91	84	77	31.4	98.0
	1¼	161	154	146	136	127	118	109	100	92	84	34.4	107.4
11	1	149	143	137	129	122	114	106	98	91	85	31.4	98.2
	1⅛	165	159	152	144	135	126	118	109	101	94	34.9	109.1
	1¼	182	175	167	158	148	139	129	120	111	103	38.3	119.7
	1⅜	197	190	181	171	161	151	140	130	121	112	41.6	129.9
12	1⅛	184	178	171	163	154	146	137	128	120	112	38.4	120.1
	1¼	202	195	188	179	170	160	150	141	132	123	42.2	131.9
	1⅜	220	212	204	194	184	174	163	153	143	133	45.9	143.4
	1½	237	229	220	210	199	187	176	165	154	144	49.5	154.6
13	1⅛	202	196	190	182	174	165	156	147	138	130	42.0	131.2
	1¼	222	216	209	200	191	181	172	162	152	143	46.1	144.2
	1⅜	242	235	227	218	208	197	187	176	166	156	50.2	156.9
	1½	261	254	245	235	224	213	201	190	179	168	54.2	169.4
14	1¼	242	236	229	221	212	203	193	183	173	164	50.1	156.5
	1⅜	264	258	250	241	231	221	210	199	189	178	54.5	170.4
	1½	285	278	270	260	250	238	227	215	204	193	58.9	184.1
	1⅝	306	298	289	279	268	256	243	231	219	207	63.2	197.4
15	1⅜	268	280	272	264	254	244	234	223	212	203	58.9	183.9
	1½	309	303	295	285	275	264	252	241	229	219	63.6	203.4
	1⅝	332	325	316	306	295	283	271	259	246	235	68.3	213.4
	1¾	354	346	337	327	315	302	288	276	263	251	72.8	227.6
16	1½	333	327	319	310	300	290	278	267	255	243	68.3	213.5
	1⅝	358	351	343	333	322	311	299	286	273	261	73.4	229.3
	1¾	382	375	366	356	344	332	319	306	292	279	78.3	244.8
	1⅞	455	446	435	423	410	395	380	364	347	332	93.2	291.3

Table IX. Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Hollow, Square and Rectangular, Cast-Iron Columns, with Square Ends

Based on Formula (8). Safety-factor 8

Size, in	Thickness, in	Length of column in feet								Area of metal, sq in	Weight, lin ft
		8	10	12	14	16	18	20	24		
4× 6	¾	41	34	28	.....	.....	.....	.....	....	12.75	39.8
4× 8	¾	51	42	35	.....	.....	.....	.....	....	15.75	49.2
4× 9	¾	56	46	39	.....	.....	.....	.....	....	17.25	53.9
4×10	¾	60	50	42	.....	.....	.....	.....	....	18.75	58.6
4×12	¾	70	59	49	.....	.....	.....	.....	....	21.75	68.0
5× 8	¾	64	55	48	41	.....	.....	.....	....	17.25	53.9
	1	81	71	61	53	.....	.....	.....	....	22.00	68.8
5× 9	¾	69	60	52	45	.....	.....	.....	....	18.75	58.6
	1	89	78	67	58	.....	.....	.....	....	24.00	75.0
5×10	¾	75	65	57	49	.....	.....	.....	....	20.25	63.3
	1	96	84	73	63	.....	.....	.....	....	26.00	81.3
5×12	¾	86	74	65	56	.....	.....	.....	....	23.25	72.7
	1	111	97	84	72	.....	.....	.....	....	30.00	93.8
6× 6	¾	63	57	51	45	40	35	.....	....	15.75	49.2
	1	80	72	65	57	51	45	.....	....	20.00	62.5
6× 8	¾	75	68	60	54	47	42	.....	....	18.75	58.6
	1	96	87	78	69	61	54	.....	....	24.00	75.0
6× 9	¾	81	73	65	58	51	45	.....	....	20.25	63.3
	1	104	94	84	75	66	58	.....	....	26.00	81.3
6×10	¾	87	79	70	62	55	49	.....	....	21.75	68.0
	1	112	101	91	80	71	63	.....	....	28.00	87.5
6×12	¾	99	90	80	71	63	55	.....	....	24.75	77.3
	1	129	116	104	92	81	72	.....	....	32.00	100.0
6×15	¾	117	106	95	84	74	66	.....	....	29.25	91.4
	1	153	138	123	109	97	85	.....	....	38.00	118.8
7× 7	¾	80	73	67	61	55	49	44	....	18.75	58.6
	1	102	94	85	78	70	63	57	....	24.00	75.0
7× 9	¾	92	85	77	70	63	57	51	....	21.75	68.0
	1	119	109	100	91	82	74	66	....	28.00	87.5
7×12	¾	111	102	93	85	77	69	62	....	26.25	82.0
	1	144	133	121	110	99	89	80	....	34.00	106.3
8× 8	¾	95	90	83	77	70	64	59	49	21.75	68.0
	1	124	115	107	99	91	83	76	63	28.00	87.5
	1¼	148	140	129	119	109	100	91	76	33.75	105.5
8×10	¾	109	103	95	87	80	73	67	55	24.75	77.3
	1	141	132	122	113	104	95	86	72	32.00	100.0
	1¼	170	161	148	137	125	115	105	87	38.75	121.1
8×12	¾	122	115	106	98	90	82	75	62	27.75	86.7
	1	158	148	138	127	116	107	97	81	36.00	112.5
	1¼	192	181	167	154	142	130	118	98	43.75	136.7

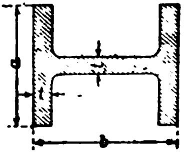
Table IX (Continued). Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Hollow, Square and Rectangular, Cast-Iron Columns, with Square Ends

Based on Formula (8). Safety-factor 8

Size, in	Thickness, in	Length of column in feet								Area of metal, sq in	Weight, lin ft
		8	10	12	14	16	18	20	24		
8×16	1	193	181	168	155	142	130	119	99	44.00	137.5
	1¼	236	221	206	190	174	159	145	121	53.75	168.0
9× 9	¾	111	106	99	93	86	80	74	63	24.75	77.3
	1	144	137	129	120	112	103	96	85	32.00	100.0
9×12	1	171	162	153	143	133	123	114	97	38.00	118.8
	1¼	209	198	186	174	162	149	138	118	46.25	144.5
9×16	1	207	196	185	173	161	149	138	117	46.00	143.8
	1¼	254	240	226	212	197	182	168	143	56.25	175.8
10×10	1	165	158	150	142	133	125	117	101	36.00	112.5
	1¼	201	193	183	172	162	152	142	123	43.75	136.7
10×12	1	184	176	167	158	148	139	129	112	40.00	125.0
	1¼	224	214	204	192	181	169	158	137	48.75	152.3
10×15	1	211	202	192	181	170	160	149	129	46.00	143.8
	1¼	258	247	235	222	209	195	182	158	56.25	175.8
10×16	1	220	211	200	189	178	167	155	135	48.00	150.0
	1¼	270	258	245	232	218	204	190	165	58.75	183.6
10×18	1	239	228	217	205	193	181	168	146	52.00	162.5
	1¼	293	280	266	251	236	221	207	179	63.75	199 2
10×20	1	257	246	234	221	208	194	181	157	56.00	175.0
	1¼	316	302	287	271	255	239	223	193	68 75	214.9
10×24	1	294	281	267	252	237	222	207	180	64.00	200.0
	1¼	362	346	329	311	292	274	255	221	78.75	246.1
12×12	⅞	183	177	171	164	156	149	141	126	38.90	121.7
	1	207	201	193	185	177	168	159	142	44.00	137.5
	1¼	253	245	236	223	216	206	195	174	53.75	168.0
	1½	296	288	277	265	253	241	228	204	63.00	196.9
12×15	1	235	228	220	211	201	191	181	162	50.00	156.3
	1¼	288	280	269	258	246	234	222	198	61.25	191.4
12×16	1	245	237	228	219	209	199	188	168	52.00	162.5
12×18	1	263	256	246	236	225	214	203	181	56.00	175.0
12×20	1	282	274	264	253	241	229	217	194	60.00	187.5
12×24	1	320	310	299	287	274	260	246	220	68.00	212.5
14×16	1	268	261	254	246	238	229	219	200	56.00	175.0
14×20	1	307	298	290	281	272	261	250	228	64.00	200.0
14×24	1	345	336	326	316	306	294	280	257	72.00	225.0
16×16	1	300	284	278	271	264	256	247	229	60.00	187.5
16×24	1	380	360	352	344	334	324	313	291	76.00	237.5
18×18	1	340	340	320	314	307	299	291	274	68.00	212.5
20×20	1	380	380	361	356	349	342	334	317	76.00	237.5
20×24	1	420	420	399	393	386	378	369	351	84.00	262.5

Table X. Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for H-Shaped, Cast-Iron Columns

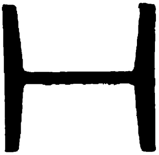
Based on Formula (7). Safety-factor 8

Size, in	Area of metal, in	Length of column in feet							
a *b* *t*		10	12	13	14	15	16	18	20
6× 6× ¾	12⅜	41	36	33	31				
1	16	53	46	43	40				
1¼	19⅜	64	56	52	48				
6× 8× ¾	13⅞	46	40	37	34				
1	18	60	52	48	45				
1¼	21⅞	73	63	59	54				
7× 7×1	19	69	62	58	55	52	49	43	38
1¼	23⅛	84	75	71	67	63	59	53	46
7× 9×1	21	76	68	64	61	57	54	48	42
1¼	25⅝	93	83	79	74	70	66	59	51
8× 8× ¾	16⅞	66	60	57	54	51	49	44	39
1	22	86	78	74	70	67	64	57	51
1¼	26⅞	105	95	91	86	82	78	70	63
8×10×1	24	93	85	81	77	73	69	62	56
1¼	29⅜	114	104	99	94	90	85	76	69
1½	34½	134	122	117	111	105	100	89	81
9× 9×1	25	102	94	91	87	83	79	72	66
1¼	30⅝	125	116	111	106	102	97	89	81
1½	36	147	136	130	125	120	114	104	95
9×10×1	26	106	98	94	90	86	83	75	69
1¼	31⅞	130	120	115	111	106	101	92	84
1½	37½	153	142	136	130	125	119	108	99
10×10×1	28	118	111	107	103	99	95	88	81
1¼	34⅜	145	136	131	127	122	127	108	100
1½	40½	171	160	155	149	144	138	128	117
1¾	46⅜	196	184	177	171	165	158	146	134
10×12×1	30	127	119	115	111	106	102	94	87
1¼	36⅞	156	146	141	136	131	126	116	107
1½	43½	184	172	166	160	154	148	137	126
1¾	49⅞	211	198	191	184	177	170	157	144
2	56	236	222	214	207	199	191	176	162
12×12×1	34	151	144	140	136	132	128	121	113
1¼	41⅞	185	177	172	167	163	158	149	139
1½	49½	220	209	203	198	193	187	177	165
1¾	56⅞	252	241	234	227	221	216	202	189
2	64	284	271	263	256	249	242	227	213
12×14×1¼	44⅜	197	188	183	177	173	168	158	148
1½	52½	233	222	216	210	204	199	186	174
1¾	60⅜	263	255	248	241	235	228	214	201
2	63	302	288	280	272	265	257	241	226
2¼	75⅜	335	319	310	301	292	285	268	251

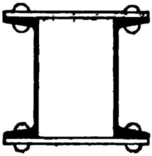
12. Types, Forms and Connections of Steel Columns

Use of Steel Columns, Struts, Trusses, etc. Owing to the many advantages of built-up steel columns over cast-iron columns, especially for all buildings, and to the great reduction that has taken place in the cost of steel construction, built-up columns are now very extensively used in buildings of even moderate height; and for skeleton construction, or for buildings exceeding six stories in height, they are certainly much to be preferred to cast-iron columns. Steel trusses, also, are now much more commonly used in buildings than in former years, so that the architect must have at hand data for designing them and for computing their strength. In the following pages the author has endeavored to cover the subject of columns and struts quite completely, to furnish such data as will enable the designer to decide upon the shape of column or strut it is best to use, and also to determine the sizes and sections of such columns with the least labor.

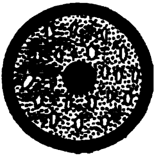
Types and Forms of Steel Columns. The following are cross-sections of the majority of steel columns in general use, arranged in the order of their simplicity of construction, that is, the number of rows of rivets they require:



Bethlehem H column
No rivets



Channel-column with plates or lattice-bars
Four rows of rivets



Lally steel-concrete column
No rivets

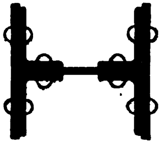


Plate-and-angle column with side plates
Six rows of rivets

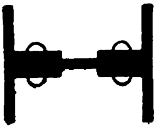
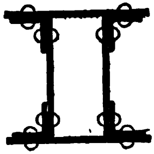


Plate-and-angle column
Two rows of rivets



Box column
Eight rows of rivets

Considerations Governing the Selection of Steel Columns. There are considerations other than simplicity of construction which sometimes govern the selection of a column. Some of the most important of these are explained in the following paragraphs:

(1) **Cost and Availability of Material.** I beams, channels, plates and angles are the most common commercial sections. They are easily rolled and are manufactured by all of the large mills. They are reasonable in price and may be obtained promptly in large numbers in any locality where a steel building is likely to be erected. Patented sections, or the product of one mill, do not, as a rule, fulfill these conditions.

(2) **Amount of Labor Required and Facility With Which it can be Performed in Shop and Field.** In the shop the complexity of the column-section and the number of pieces of which it is composed greatly affect the cost of labor. If there are numerous small pieces such as lattice-bars, splice-plates, etc., each of which requires cutting and fitting together, with frequent handling, the cost is proportionately great. The cost of a column depends, also, largely upon the number of rivets required and whether they can all be driven by machine so as to avoid the slower and more expensive hand-riveting. The same general remarks apply to labor in the field; the connections should be as simple as possible, the rivets easy of access and as few in number as is consistent with strength.

(3) **Simplicity of Connections Between Column and Supported Members.** This is quite an important consideration in the design of a large building and sometimes governs the choice of the section to be used. Where there are four beams to a column, on opposite sides, and all of the same height, a satisfactory connection can be made with almost any section; but where the beams are spaced irregularly, both in regard to position in plan and to height, and where eccentric loads must be provided for, it is very important that the section of the column itself affords as great an opportunity as possible for the connections of the beams. In this respect, possibly, closed sections are inferior to open sections having a central web.

(4) **Adaptability to Connections Which Transfer Compressive Stresses Directly to Axis of Column.** In this respect, also, sections of an open construction, in which the girders transmit their loads almost directly to the central axis of the column, thus avoiding the disadvantage of eccentric loading, are superior to those of a closed construction.

(5) **Adaptability to Changes in Thickness of Metal in Members of Columns, to Suit Different Loads in Different Stories.** It is not desirable to make the columns carrying the upper floors of a building very small, since the beams and girders supporting the upper floors are usually of the same dimensions as those of the lower floors and consequently require just as heavy and secure connections. It is almost impossible to make such connections with small columns, and consequently, in order to reduce the area of a column in proportion to a lighter load to be carried, it is better to reduce the thickness of the material used and to keep the general dimensions of the section the same.

(6) **Adaptability to Fire-Proof Covering.** Closed sections in general can be more compactly fireproofed than open sections.

General Considerations Affecting the Choice of Steel Columns. It is almost impossible to say that any one of the foregoing types of steel columns is superior to the others. Each has its own good points, and the column whose section has theoretically the best distribution of material may not always be the best one to use, because of the eccentric loads to be carried, or because of other conditions. The choice in most cases will depend upon the personal views of the designer, as well as upon the local conditions as to cost and manufacture, promptness of delivery and the details of the problem. Further descriptions of the different columns, and also the special advantages claimed for them, are given in the following pages.

Steel-Column Connections. When steel columns were first designed it was customary to use cap-plates to connect the story-lengths, and the beams or girders often rested upon these plates. In modern practice, however, the column-joint is generally placed just above the beams and girders for convenience in erection and the plates are often omitted The columns are closely fitted together with milled ends, and splice-plates are riveted to the sides or flanges as shown in the illustrations of typical steel-column details, Figs. 17 and 18. As it is impossible in these pages to include the subject of column-connections in anything but a general way, the only attempt that has been made in this direction is to illustrate common forms of connections that have been used with different kinds of columns. These will be found in the description of columns in the following pages.

Number of Rivets Required. No general rule can be given for the number of rivets and size of the brackets required for column-connections, as the loads to be supported vary in different buildings and in different parts of the same building. The number of rivets required in each connection must therefore be determined by the rules given in Chapter XII for designing riveted joints. Connections for single beams, however, will generally require the same number of rivets as are given for beam-connections (Chapter XV, page 617). The allowable stress for rivets in column-connections is generally taken at 10 000 lb per sq in for single shear and 18 000 or 20 000 lb per sq in for bearing. (See Tables II and III, pages 418 and 419, Chapter XII.)

Spacing of Rivets. Steel columns fail either by deflecting bodily out of a straight line or by the buckling of the metal between rivets or other points of support. Both actions may take place at the same time, but if the latter occurs alone, it may be an indication that the rivet-spacing or the thickness of the metal is insufficient. The rule has been deduced from actual experiments upon riveted columns that the distance between centers of rivets should not exceed, in the line of stress, sixteen times the thickness of metal of the parts joined, with a maximum spacing of 6 in, and that the distance between rivets or other points of support, at right-angles to the line of stress, should not exceed thirty-two times the thickness of the metal. The usual practice in designing columns is to space the rivets the minimum distance on centers at both ends, for a length equal to twice the least dimension of the column, with the maximum spacing of 6 in between.

Steel-Pipe Columns.* Steel-pipe columns are used for interior construction to carry beams and girders supporting floors, walls and chimneys in all classes of buildings, such as tenements and apartment-houses, factories, garages, churches, warehouses, etc. A particular demand for steel-pipe columns is at the angles of show-windows in mercantile buildings. In buildings of moderate height the floor-joists are usually supported by the side walls and the columns have to support only a relatively light wall above. For such places wrought-steel pipes may be advantageously used for the columns. They may be used, also, for the columns supporting the roof of one-story buildings. In the Borough of Brooklyn, New York City, pipe-columns are calculated according to the formula $S = 14\,000 - 80\,l/r$, in which S, l and r have values as explained below for the New York City formula. If the columns are filled with concrete, the area of the cross-section of the concrete is multiplied by 500 and the product added to the load supported by the pipe. (See, also, paragraph on Lally Columns, page 477.) This formula gives a factor of safety of four. The New York Bureau of Buildings uses the formula, $S = 15\,200 - 58\,l/r$, in which S is the permissible unit fiber-stress, l the length in inches and r the radius of gyration of the cross-section of the pipe. This gives a carrying capacity about 10% greater than that of the Brooklyn formula. In Philadelphia, pipe-columns are allowed to carry about 25% more than is allowed in Brooklyn. Where pipe-columns are filled with concrete the cast cap and base are secured to the pipe in each case by concrete which is reinforced internally by a pipe of smaller diameter. Where these steel-pipe columns filled with concrete are used, care should be taken

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* **Much valuable data relating to steel-pipe columns was furnished the Editor-in-chief by P. C. Patterson and J. A. McCullough of the National Tube Company, Pittsburgh, P**

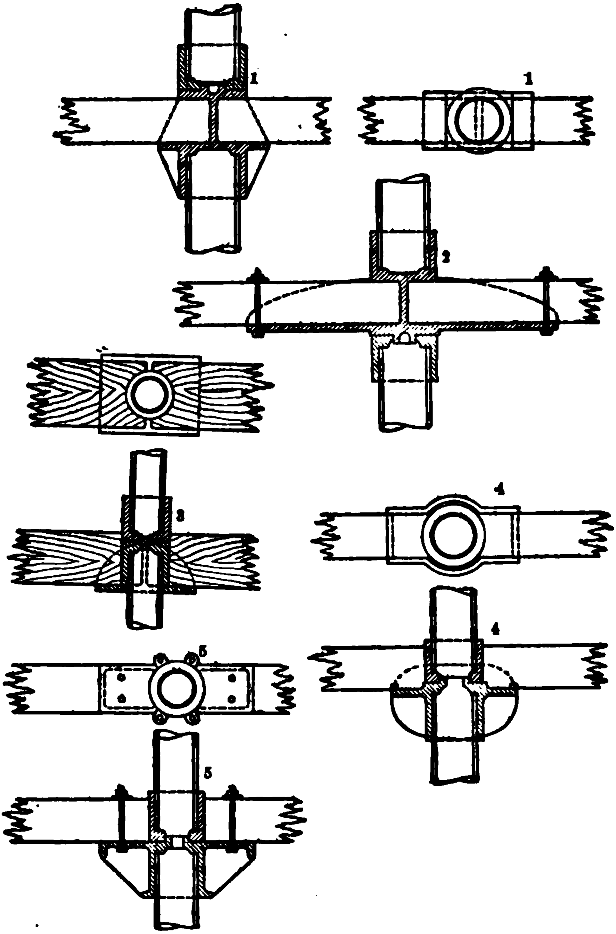

Fig. 10. Connections, Caps and Bases for Steel-pipe Columns

that the pipes are entirely filled, and that there are no air-spaces in the concrete. These concrete-filled columns, sometimes reinforced with smaller pipes, have large carrying capacity. Pipe-columns may have their supporting power about doubled in many cases by concrete filling. (See, also, paragraph on Lally Columns, page 477.) One type of steel post-cap used in connection with pipe-columns to carry wooden girders is shown in Figs. 62 and 63 of Chapter XXII. There are many other forms of cast and wrought caps for pipe-columns. The design of proper caps and bases is the most difficult part of adapting tubular columns to practical problems in building-construction. Figs. 10 and 11 show various forms of steel-pipe column-connections, caps and bases sufficiently suggestive to enable a designer to properly develop their details.

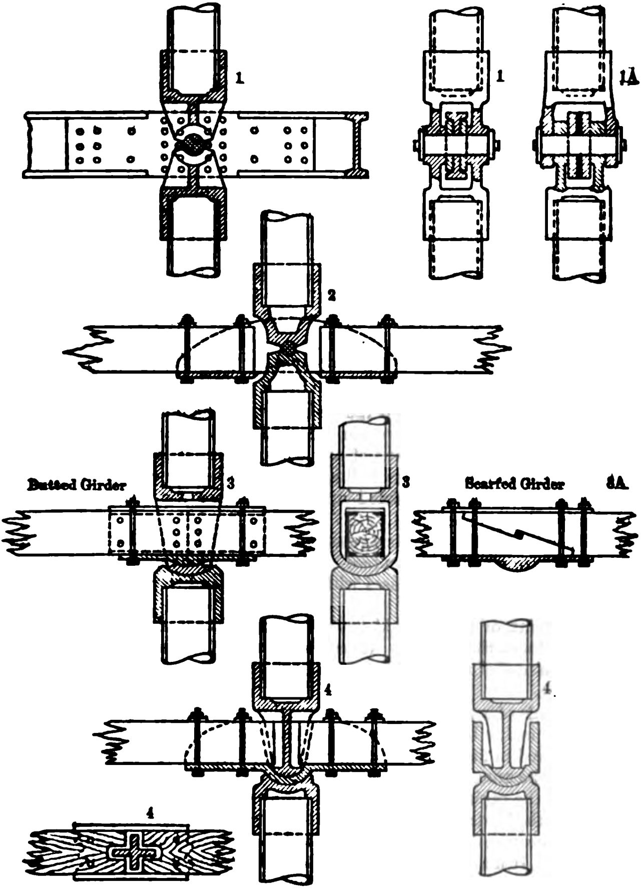

Fig. 11. Connections, Caps and Bases for Steel-pipe Columns

Advantages of Steel-Pipe Columns.* A wrought-steel pipe when used as a column generally has the following advantages:

(1) "It will support a greater load per square inch of cross-section than any other shapes and styles of mild-steel columns of the same SLENDERNESS-RATIO, l/r, for most of the columns of different slenderness-ratios recently tested (1908 and 1909) at the Watertown Arsenal.

(2) "Its section has the greatest possible LEAST RADIUS OF GYRATION, r, for the same outside diameter and section-area. This makes pipe-columns especially advisable when it is desired to obstruct the view as little as possible, as in the corners of show-windows, in balcony-supports, etc.

(3) "It may be used with greater slenderness-ratio, l/r, than any other section without reducing the load per square inch in order to conform to permissible loading-rules, such as those of the New York City building code and the Chicago building code.

(4) "Its curved walls permit the use of relatively thinner material than may be used with columns with flat surfaces; that is, its thickness, t, divided by the outside diameter, d, may be $t/d = 1/80$ with as great security from WRINKLING, called also BUCKLING, BULGING or LOCAL FAILURE, as the box column, which good practice of competent engineers limits to $1/50$ of the unsupported width of flat surfaces. The ratio $t/d = 1/80 = 1/4''/20''$ is about the limit of practicable working of the ordinary lap-weld process, and all commercial pipes have a smaller ratio.

(5) "Manufacturers are now regularly making pipes for sizes up to and including 16 in outside diameter, in lengths up to 40 ft."

Notes on the Use of Steel-Pipe Columns.* The following general notes and suggestions should be observed in the use of steel pipe for columns:

(1) "As in the case of columns of any construction, it is obvious that competent designing and detailing as well as proper fabrication of the END-CONNECTIONS for pipe-columns be insisted upon. Otherwise the advantages of the circular section may be nullified.

(2) "When the loading must be ECCENTRIC care must be exercised in the proper selection and size of pipe to be used. The relative economy in the use of the circular section, however, increases with the length and slenderness of the column.

(3) "A CAPITAL or BASE should never be screwed to a pipe, because cutting the thread reduces the section. Where screw-threads must be used, only the area below the root of the threads should be considered as available for the supporting power.

(4) "The ends of a pipe to be used for a column should always be FACED OFF in a lathe, the facing being normal to the general axis. A pipe should not be turned nor bored in fitting capitals or bases but, if possible, the capital or base should always be FORCED or SHRUNK to an even bearing on the faced end of the pipe. Where the capital or base must be inserted, it is liable to start a wrinkle or buckle and the load should be adjusted to the probable lessening of supporting power. The bearing surfaces in capitals and bases should be, of course, always LATHE-FACED. It may be found that with careful foundry-work it is not necessary to bore the castings; but it may, in some cases, be cheaper to use relatively poor foundry-work and bore the castings, as well as face the seats.

(5) "PIN-ENDS or BALL-AND-SOCKET ENDS are generally preferable to flat of fixed ends for a slenderness-ratio l/r, of 100 or less, because tests show that

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* From notes by Professor Thomas Nolan on the subject of Steel-Pipe Columns, in Kidders' Building-Construction and Superintendence, Part II, Carpenters' Work, Ninth Edition.

columns so fitted usually carry heavier loads before failure. This is increasingly evident as l/r decreases. Any form of end-connection of column that may cause a flexure from a failing floor may endanger the whole structure.

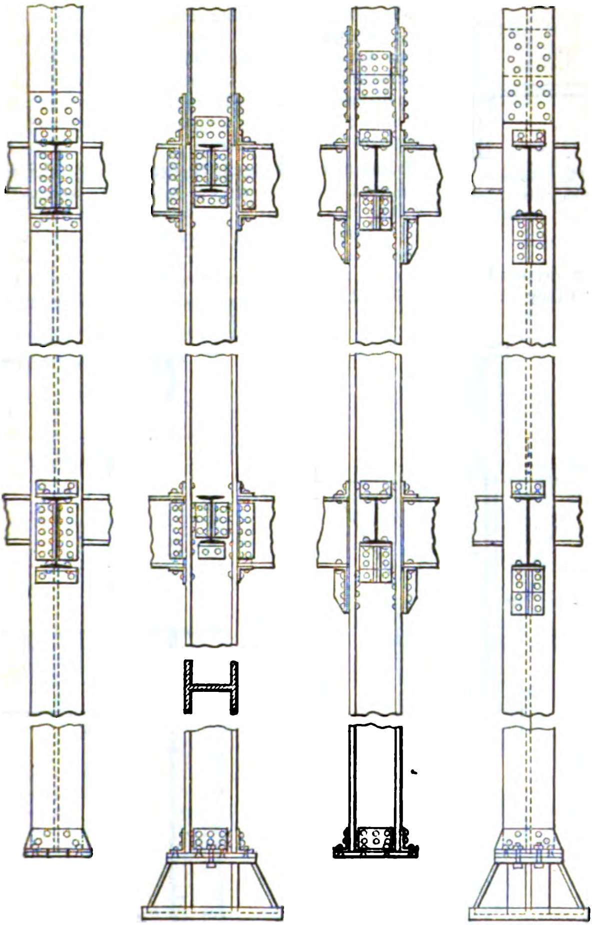


Fig. 12. Connections for Bethlehem H Columns

(6) "All columns should have sufficient STIFFNESS to safely withstand the chance deflecting forces to which they may be exposed. This usually involves considerations of eccentricity as well as of flexure due to transverse load.

(7) "It is desirable to adhere always to the trade sizes of pipe known as MERCHANT, STANDARD, EXTRA STRONG, DOUBLE-EXTRA STRONG, CASING, BOILER-

TUBES, etc., and avoid special production which usually entails delays and special prices."

(8) Tables XII and XIII give the safe loads which STANDARD and EXTRA-STRONG steel-pipe columns are permitted to carry under the New York City building code. The Chicago code permits slightly greater loads. Supplementary tables of safe loads for DOUBLE-EXTRA STRONG steel-pipe columns are furnished by the manufacturer and may be useful in cases where a minimum diameter is required; but it should be remembered that such pipe always costs more per pound, owing to its greater cost of manufacture.

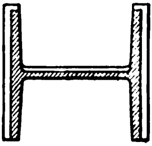


Fig. 13. Section of Bethlehem H Column Showing Variation in Area

H-Beam and I-Beam Struts and Columns. For struts and columns carrying light loads, H BEAMS and I BEAMS are probably the most economical, as they require very little riveting except for the splices and connections. Owing, however, to the narrow flanges of even the deepest I beams it is not practicable to rivet very heavy girders to them; nor can they ordinarily be riveted to the web, because the latter is generally so thin that too many rivets will be required for the connection. Tables XVII is a table of safe loads for the Carnegie steel H BEAMS or I BEAMS used as columns.

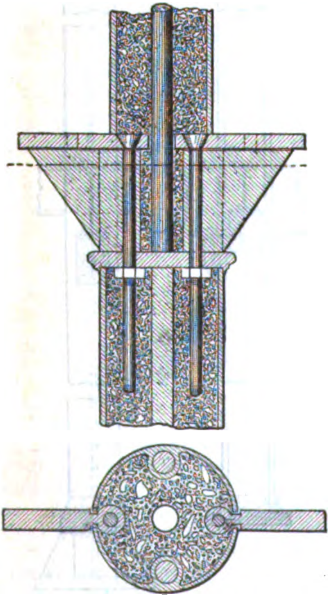


Fig. 14. Concrete-filled Lally Steel Column

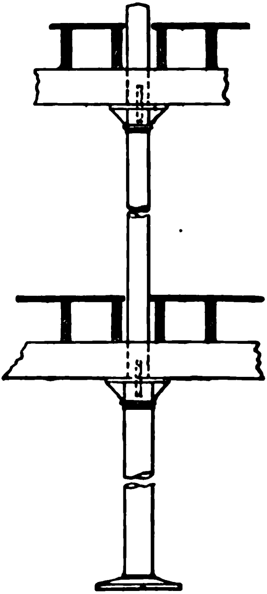


Fig. 15. Lally Column. Typical Connections

Bethlehem Columns. As far as shop-work is concerned the BETHLEHEM COLUMNS are just as economical as the ordinary H-beam or I-beam columns as they, also, are rolled and not built up or assembled. The only fabrication required is that for the splice-plates and connections. Typical connections are shown in Fig. 12 from which the simplicity of detail and small amount of fabrication required are apparent. They are, moreover, superior to the I-beam columns because they afford a wider flange for attaching the beams and girders, besides being

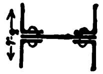
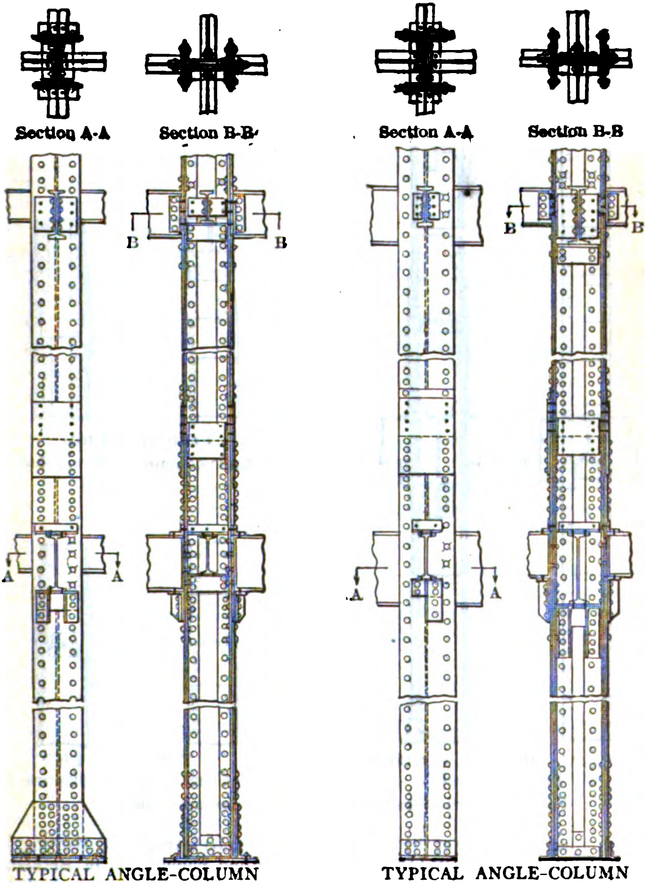


Fig. 16. Section of Steel Plate-and-angle Column



TYPICAL ANGLE-COLUMN
Bearing on masonry

TYPICAL ANGLE-COLUMN
Bearing on steel

Fig. 17.* Connections for Steel Plate-and-angle Columns

more economical of cross-section. Bethlehem columns are rolled in f sizes, 8, 10, 12 and 14 in in width, but by spreading the rolls, as sho in Fig. 13, the section-area of each width can be increased considerably. T

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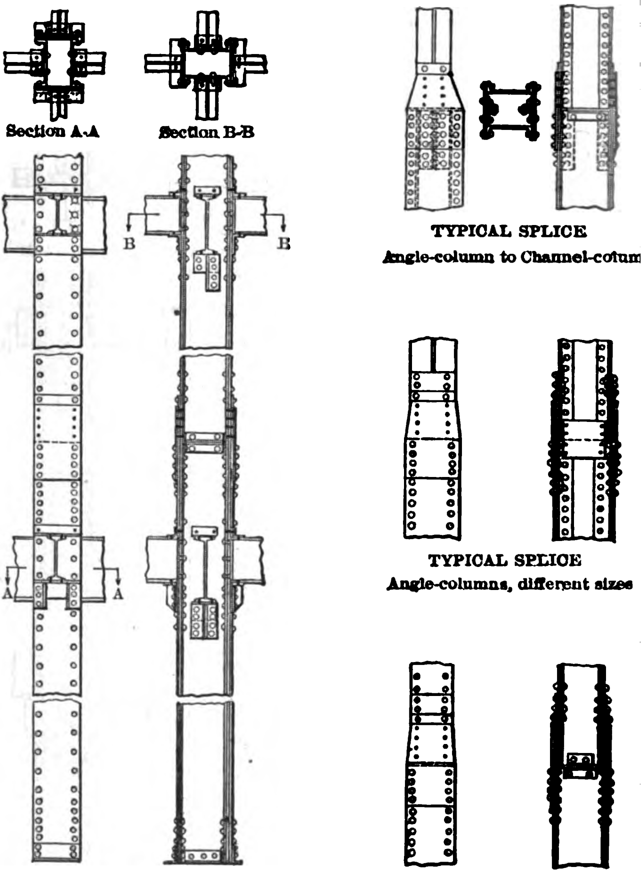
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.



TYPICAL SPLICE
Angle-column to Channel-colum

TYPICAL SPLICE
Angle-columns, different sizes

TYPICAL CHANNEL-COLUMN
Bearing on steel

TYPICAL SPLICE
Channel-columns, different si

Fig. 18.* Connections for Steel Plate-and-channel Columns

section-areas of columns of the largest size may also be increased by riveting si plates to the flanges. Tables of DIMENSIONS and PROPERTIES of Bethleh rolled steel columns and of the SAFE LOADS they will carry are given in Tab XVIII to XXI. Although these columns have been rolled in Germany sir

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* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa

1902, it was not until the establishment in 1908 of the larger improved mills at Bethlehem, Pa., that these sections became available for use in this country. They are gradually superseding plate-and-angle and box columns, particularly those of the smaller sizes.

Lally Columns. LALLY COLUMNS (see, also, paragraphs on Steel-Pipe Columns, page 469) are patented columns made with a circular steel shell, as shown in Fig. 14, and filled with a concrete composed of sand, cement and blue trap-rock, and thoroughly compressed. The larger columns have, in addition, a steel reinforcement, which makes a light, but strong support. They are in many buildings replacing masonry piers for supporting girders because of the saving in space, and are extensively used in mill-construction. Typical connections are shown in Fig. 15. The safe carrying capacities in tons are given in Tables XXII and XXIII, page 516.

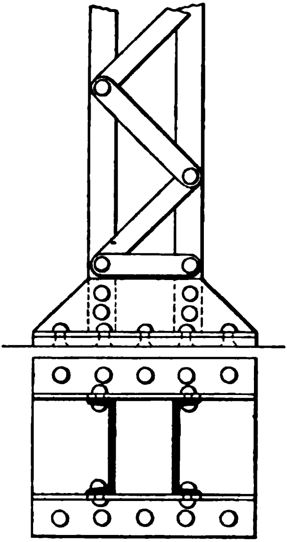


Fig. 19. Steel Channel-column with Lattice-bars

Plate-and-Angle Columns. Four angles and a plate riveted together as shown in Fig. 16 are now being extensively used in building-construction, particularly for columns having an unsupported length of less than 90 radii; also for the outer columns in steel mill-buildings, and for light columns supporting the roofs of railway stations, etc. Columns with this form of cross-section are especially convenient for making beam and girder-connections and for splicing, and are also well adapted to resist eccentric loads. The width of the plate is generally such that the LEAST RADIUS OF GYRATION is in the direction r_2, and this radius may be obtained directly from Tables XV and XVII, pages 370 and 372.

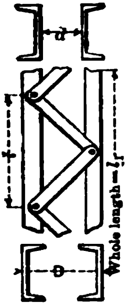


Fig. 20. Spacing of Lattice-bars in Channel-columns

Channel-Columns. Typical COLUMN-DETAILS for plate-and-angle and channel-columns, taken from the Carnegie Pocket Companion, 1915 edition, are shown in Figs. 17 and 18 and represent current practice in office-building construction.

Lattice-Columns. Two channels, set back to back, at such a distance that the radii of gyration will be equal about both axes, and connected by lattice-bars, as shown in Fig. 19, make a very desirable column for moderate loads, as in the upper stories, or in buildings of three or four stories in height. For greater loads, short cover-plates may be riveted to the flanges in place of the lattice-bars. Such columns are very satisfactory, especially for making connections.

Rule for Latticing of Channels and Angles. When channels are connected by lattice-work, as in Fig. 20, in order that there may not be a tendency in the channels to bend between the points of bracing, the distance l should be made equal to the total length of the strut multiplied by the least radius of gyration of a single channel, and the product divided by the least radius of gyration for the whole section; or,

$$l = rl_1/r_1$$

in which
l = length between points of bracing;
l_1 = total length of strut;
r = least radius of gyration for a single channel;
r_1 = least radius of gyration for the whole section.

This same rule will also apply to angles, although with them the lattice-work is generally doubled, as in Fig. 21.

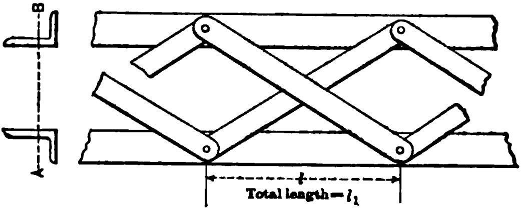


Fig. 21. Double Lattice-bars on Angle-columns

It is generally found desirable to make the distance l less than that obtained by the above formula, or such that the inclination of the lattice-bars will be about 45° with the axis of the column or strut.

The proper distance for d or D, Fig. 20, for a pair of channels, so that the radius of gyration will be the same in both directions, is given in Table VIII, page 359.

The following tabulations are taken from the Handbook of the Cambria Steel Company, 1915 edition.

Sizes of Lattice-Bars to be Used with Latticed Channel-Columns

Depth of channels	Dimensions of lattice-bars		Weight of lattice-bars per foot	Center of hole to end of bar, a	Distance center to center of rivets, d	
	w	Thickness			Maximum	Minimum
in	in	in	lb	in	ft in	in
6	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	1.28	$1\frac{1}{8}$	0 $11\frac{1}{2}$	$6\frac{5}{8}$
7	$1\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	1.49	$1\frac{1}{8}$	1 $1\frac{1}{2}$	$7\frac{5}{8}$
8	2	$\frac{5}{16}$	2.12	$1\frac{1}{4}$	1 3	$8\frac{11}{16}$
9	2	$\frac{5}{16}$	2.12	$1\frac{1}{4}$	1 $4\frac{1}{2}$	$9\frac{1}{2}$
10	2	$\frac{3}{8}$	2.55	$1\frac{1}{4}$	1 $6\frac{1}{2}$	$10\frac{11}{16}$
12	$2\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	2.87	$1\frac{3}{8}$	1 $10\frac{1}{2}$	13
15	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	3.19	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2 $2\frac{1}{2}$	$15\frac{5}{16}$

Sizes of Stay-Plates to be Used with Latticed Channel-Columns

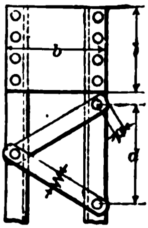
Minimum size of stay-plates at ends of columns			Weight of minimum stay-plates	Diameter of rivets	
b	Thickness	*l*			
in	in	in	lb	in	
8¼	¼	7½	4.38	⅝	
9¼	¼	10	6.55	⅝	
10½	5/16	9	8.37	¾	
11¼	5/16	12	11.95	¾	
12¼	⅜	12	15.62	¾	
14¼	⅜	15	22.73	¾	
16¼	⅜	15	25.90	¾	

Plate-and-Angle and Box Columns. Plate-and-angle columns, as shown in **Fig. 16**, requiring but two rows of rivets are very economical columns for buildings of moderate height, as they afford excellent opportunities for connecting the beams and girders. Tables of SAFE LOADS are given in Table XXIV of this chapter. When a more compact section is required than that afforded by the larger sizes, the section-area may be increased by riveting plates to the angles as shown in Fig. 22 which is a section of one of the columns in the Municipal Building, New York City. This, however, greatly increases the expense of the shop-work, and it is therefore usually more economical to substitute Bethlehem H columns, or channel or box columns. For high buildings or heavy loads, where the required sectional areas of columns are greater than can be obtained by using channel-columns or Bethlehem columns without flange-plates, BOX COLUMNS made of plates and angles, as shown in Fig. 23, which is one of the columns in the Bankers' Trust Company Building, New York City, will probably be found to be more satisfactory. The thickness and number of web-plates and flange-plates can be varied with the load to be supported. Ordinary connections for BOX COLUMNS are the same as those for CHANNEL-COLUMNS, shown in Fig. 18. For the tallest buildings and heaviest loads box columns with TRIPLE WEBS as shown in Fig. 24 are the best. They are used in the highest buildings erected, such as the Masonic Temple in Chicago, and the Bankers'

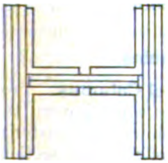


Fig. 22. Heavy Plate-and-angle One-web Column

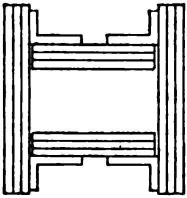


Fig. 23. Heavy Plate-and-angle Two-web Column

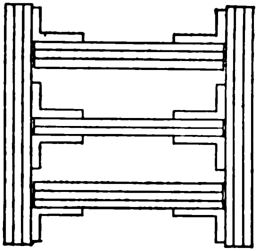


Fig. 24. Heavy Plate-and-angle Three-web Column

Trust Building, the Municipal Building, the Woolworth Building and the Metropolitan Tower in New York City. Fig. 24 is a cross-section of one of the columns in the last-mentioned building. Details of a similar column used in the Bankers' Trust Company Building are shown in Fig. 7 on page 342. It is of course impracticable to give tables of SAFE LOADS for PLATE-AND-ANGLE COLUMNS with flange-plates and for BOX COLUMNS, owing to the great variety of combinations that can be used, but Example 10 of this chapter shows how the columns are designed and their strength determined. (See page 485.)

Steel Struts in Trusses. These are generally made of a pair of latticed channels, or of channels and plates for heavy trusses with pin-connections, and of either a pair of light channels or a pair of angles with uneven legs for light trusses. For roof-trusses having a span not exceeding 80 ft, a pair of 4 by 6 by 5/16-in angles is generally sufficient for any of the compression-members unless they are subjected to TRANSVERSE STRESS; and the minor struts are very often made of a pair of 3½ by 2½ by ¼-in angles. The angles are placed from ½ to ¾ in apart to permit the filler-plates used at the joints to go between them. For compression-members subject to transverse stress a pair of channels generally offers the best section. If necessary the channels can be reinforced by plates at the top and bottom. A pair of angles, with a deep web-plate riveted between, is often used for the principles of Fink trusses where they are subject to a slight transverse stress. (See, also, Fig. 6, page 1146.) For very light compressive stresses and for short members a single angle is sometimes used; but this is not considered good practice, as it causes eccentric loading on the gusset-plates at the truss-joints. A pair of small angles, or some other combination with a symmetrical cross-section should always be used for truss-members.

Where angles are used in pairs they should be connected by a rivet and small filler-plate or separator every two feet in length, to prevent them from springing apart. In regard to the maximum length of steel struts in trusses it is not considered good practice to use a strut whose unsupported length exceeds 150 times its least radius of gyration, or 50 times its least width.

13. Strength of Steel Columns. Formulas

Principles Governing the Resistance of Built-up Steel Columns. Professor William H. Burr states * that "the general principles which govern the resistance of built-up columns may be summed up as follows: the material should be disposed as far as possible from the neutral axis of the cross-section, thereby increasing the radius of gyration, r; there should be no initial internal stress; the individual portions of the column should be so firmly secured to each other that no relative motion can take place, in order that the column may fail as a whole, thus maintaining the original value of r." The experiments made by Professor Burr indicate that a closed column is stronger than an open one. It should also be remembered that any column such as an I beam, channel, or angle, the cross-section of which has a maximum and a minimum radius of gyration, is not economical for use under a single concentric load, as the minimum radius of gyration must be used in the calculation, and part of the material is to a certain extent wasted when the ideal efficiency of the column is considered.

Formulas for Steel Columns. A great many FORMULAS are used for calculating the strength of steel columns and struts, of the lengths usually employed in practice, but scarcely any two authorities agree upon the same one. These formulas may all be grouped into two general classes, those founded on RANKINE'S FORMULA * (11) and those founded on the STRAIGHT-LINE FORMULA (12). (See the following paragraphs.) In the different formulas different values are assigned to the ARBITRARY CONSTANTS. Previous to 1888 RANKINE'S or GORDON'S FORMULAS were almost universally used for all columns, although with more or less variation in the constants employed. About 1885 Professor Burr, after having conducted a series of tests upon full-size column-sections deduced what is now known as the STRAIGHT-LINE FORMULA. As this is easier of application than RANKINE'S FORMULA, it has gradually found favor with engineers, especially as the results differ but little from those obtained by the older formula.

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* Elasticity and Resistance of the Materials of Engineering, by William H. Burr.

Formulas Compared. Which one, of all the formulas in use, should be employed in calculating the safe load for columns is an open question, but the author, after careful deliberation, has decided to recommend RANKINE'S FORMULA for the following reasons. In the first place it is safe and conservative and if it errs at all, it is on the side of safety; and in the second place it has a wider application, as the values assigned to the arbitrary constants have been more generally agreed upon, whereas there is a greater variety in the values of the constants employed in the STRAIGHT-LINE FORMULA. Of course one is not free to choose when city laws compel the use of certain formulas. No tables of SAFE LOADS for columns, satisfying the requirements of all cities, could be compiled. The author has accordingly thought it best to insert the various tables of SAFE LOADS for different forms of columns as computed in the very latest handbooks although not necessarily based upon RANKINE'S FORMULA, and to insert Table XI, specially computed and giving the comparative SAFE LOADS IN POUNDS PER SQUARE INCH OF METAL-AREA for columns, as determined by seven different formulas. (See pages 493 to 495.)

Formulas Used in Building Codes. RANKINE'S FORMULA (called GORDON'S FORMULA in many codes) is specified in the building codes of the following cities: Philadelphia, Baltimore, Boston and Milwaukee, and is used in the Cambria handbook. The STRAIGHT-LINE FORMULA is specified in the building codes of New York City, Chicago, Minneapolis and Washington, and is used in the Carnegie and Bethlehem handbooks.

Formulas Used in Practice. The following formulas, in the opinion of the author, represent the best current practice. They are FORMULAS FOR SAFE LOADS, S, in pounds per square inch of cross-section, on steel columns and struts. In these formulas l is the LENGTH of the column in inches and r the LEAST RADIUS OF GYRATION of the cross-section. (See, also, Chapter X, pages 333, 344, etc.)

The SAFE LOAD, P, for any column is equal to S, obtained by one of the following formulas, multiplied by the SECTION-AREA of the column in square inches; or

$$P = AS \tag{10}$$

Rankine's formula, used in the Cambria handbook, is

$$S = \frac{12\,500}{1 + l^2/36\,000\,r^2} \tag{11}$$

The formula recommended by Professor Burr is

$$S = 10\,000 - 40\,l/r \tag{12}$$

The formula used by the American Bridge Company and Carnegie's Pocket Companion is

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r \tag{13}$$

with a maximum of 13 000 lb per sq in.

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* Rankine's formula is sometimes referred to as Gordon's formula, but Gordon used the least lateral dimension or the diameter of the column instead of the least radius of gyration of the cross-section.

The formula used by the American Railway Engineering Association and the Chicago building code is

$$S = 16\,000 - 70\,l/r \qquad (14)$$

with a maximum of 14 000 lb per sq in.

The formula used in the New York City and Washington, D. C., building codes, is

$$S = 15\,200 - 58\,l/r \qquad (15)$$

The formulas used in the Catalogue of the Bethlehem Steel Company are

$$S = 16\,000 - 55\,l/r, \text{ for } l/r \text{ over } 55 \qquad (16)$$

and $S = 13\,000$ lb per sq in, for l/r under 55

Fowler's formula for steel struts in trusses is

$$S = 12\,500 - 50\,l/r \qquad (17)$$

For a comparison of most of these formulas, see Table XI, pages 493 to 495 and the COMPARATIVE DIAGRAM OF FORMULAS, page 496.

14. Design of Steel Columns. Examples

Practical Use of Column-Formulas. Unlike the beam-formula the column-formulas in general use do not give a direct method of calculating the dimensions of a column that will support a given load, owing to the presence in the column-formula of two unknown quantities, *A* and *r*, which are dependent upon one another. Hence in designing columns, the section must be first assumed and then tested for the safe load *P*, or for the maximum unit fiber-stress *S*. This is an apparently roundabout method of designing columns, but unfortunately there seems to be no more direct way. When a column is to be selected or designed, its axial load *P* is given and also its length and the condition of its ends. A proper allowable unit stress, *S*, is assumed, suitable for the given material and for the conditions under which it is to be used, or in accordance with the requirements of the local building code; or the value of *S* is given in the specification according to which the column is to be designed. A cross-section is then selected in accordance with the principles explained on pages 467 to 469. For this assumed cross-section *A* and *r* are determined and then substituted in the formula, which is solved for *P*. If the assumed dimensions give a value for *P* that agrees with the actual load, they are correct. If, however, the resulting value of *P* is smaller than the actual load, the assumed size is too small, and it will be necessary to choose a larger size and solve again. If on the contrary, the actual load is less than the safe calculated load, a column with a smaller element of cross-section is assumed and a new value of *P* obtained. After a few trials a size that gives a satisfactory result for the required conditions will be found.

Examples Illustrating the Use of Column-Formulas and Tables. Since the column-tables in the last half of this chapter give the safe loads of the majority of column-sections of current practice, having determined which section it is most advisable to use under any given conditions, it is merely necessary to consult the tables and select the column of the required size to support the actual load.

Example 7. The following is an example showing the method of selecting BETHLEHEM ROLLED H COLUMNS for buildings.

Example Showing the Method of Selecting Bethlehem Rolled H Columns for Buildings

For illustration, the interior columns of an actual sixteen-story building are taken as an example. The story-heights and the loads on the columns are given in the following tabulation:

Stories	Heights of stories, ft	Loads on columns, tons	Safe loads, tons	H column-section required				
				Dimensions			Weights of sections, lb per lin ft	Section-numbers
				D, in	T, in	B, in		
16th	12	27	55.0	7⅞	7/16	8.00	31.5	H8
15th	13	53	81.5	8⅜	11/16	8.12	48.0	H8
14th	14	79						
13th	13	104	132.2	10⅜	13/16	10.12	71.0	H10
12th	13	128						
11th	13	151	174.8	12¼	⅞	12.08	91.5	H12
10th	13	174						
9th	13	197	219.1	14¼	15/16	14.08	114.5	H14
8th	13	219						
7th	13	241	263.8	14⅝	1⅛	14.19	138.0	H14
6th	13	261						
5th	13	281	310.1	15	1 5/16	14.31	162.0	H14
4th	13	301						
3d	13	321	341.3	15¼	1 7/16	14.39	178.5	H14
2d	15	341						
1st	17	363	403.5	15¾	1 11/16	14.54	211.0	H14
Basement	12	395						

D is the depth of the column, *T* the thickness of the flanges and *B* the breadth of the flanges.

Columns for buildings are usually selected in lengths of two stories. By inspection of the tables of safe loads for H columns, it is found that no columns smaller than 14-in H sections have sufficient capacity for the lower stories. Where there is no limitation as to the size of the column, the column with the largest dimensions and having the required capacity will be the most economical. The unsupported length of a column should not exceed 150 radii of gyration, which is the limit of length for which safe loads are given in the tables. In the best practice the unsupported length of a column is frequently required not to exceed 120 or 125 times the least radius of gyration; various limits for l/r are indicated in the tables by zigzag lines. The safe loads given in the tables are for concentric or symmetric loading. When the loads are not centrally or symmetrically applied, the size of the column should be calculated by Formula (18), page 486.

Example 8. Suppose that in a 20-story office-building to be erected in Chicago, the load on each of the first-story columns, which are 16 feet in length, is 700 tons. What columns should be used?

Turning to Table XXI, page 515, giving the safe loads for Bethlehem 14-in H columns it is seen that a 14-in 287.5-lb column, the heaviest rolled, will support only 549.3 tons; this type of column, therefore, cannot be used. Moreover a casual inspection of the tables of safe loads for plate-and-angle and channel-columns shows that they are not suitable because of the thick flanges and web-plates required. Consequently the columns in the lower stories will probably have to be of the box type, with double or triple webs, as shown in Figs. 23 and 24. The upper columns, however, may be of the plate-and-angle or channel-type, whichever will be the more economical. The heaviest plate-and-angle column, without flange-plates (Table XXIV, page 522), composed of four 6 by 4 by ¾-in angles and one 12 by ½-in web, will support, for a length of 14 feet, the height of most of the upper stories, 469 000 lb; and a channel-column (Table XXVI, page 541) composed of two 12-in 30-lb channels and two 14 by ¾-in plates will support 502 000 lb. The former weighs 125 and the latter 131.4 lb per lin ft, so there is not much choice as far as economy of material is concerned. The channel-column, however, requires four rows of rivets while the plate-and-angle column requires only two rows, so this added expense of fabrication would have to be considered. Assuming, however, that the plate-and-angle type is more desirable, the next step is to design the individual columns.

The load upon each of the uppermost columns, which are 20 ft in length, is 70 000 lb. Turning to Table XXIV, page 518, it will be seen that a column composed of four 4 by 3 by ⅜-in angles and one 8 by ⅜-in web will support, for a length of 20 ft, 77 000 lb; but this load is below the lower zigzag line and hence the slenderness-ratio of the column exceeds 120. Assuming, for the purpose of illustration, that the limit of l/r is 120, a heavier section must be selected. On page 519 of Table XXIV, continued, it is seen that the lightest 20-ft column, for which l/r does not exceed the required ratio, is one composed of four 5 by 3½ by ⅜-in angles and one 10 by ⅜-in web, and that for a length of 20 ft it will support 121 000 lb, or 51 000 lb more than will come upon it.

Continuing the design of the columns, suppose that one in the 14th story, 14 ft in length, supports 175 tons, or 350 000 lb. From Table XXIV, page 522, it is found that a column composed of four 6 by 4 by ⅝-in angles and one 12 by ½-in web-plate, for a length of 14 ft, will carry 373 000 lb. In the table, the safe load is calculated by Formula (13), whereas the Chicago Building Code specifies Formula (14). Hence, as this building is to be erected in Chicago, the chosen column must be tested by the latter formula. Its A is 29.44 sq in and its least r, 2.65 in. To test it by the formula, $l = 14$ ft $\times$ 12 = 168 in, and l/r = 168 in/2.65 in = 63. Substituting in Formula (14), $S = 16\,000 - (70 \times 63) = 16\,000 - 4\,410 = 11\,590$ lb per sq in. From Formula (10), the safe load for the column, $P = AS = 29.44$ sq in $\times$ 11 590 lb per sq in = 341 209 lb, which is less than the actual load. Therefore, the next heavier column, with angles 11/16 in thick, should be selected.

Example 9. In an office-building to be erected in Philadelphia, the use of the Bethlehem rolled-steel H columns has been decided upon. One of these columns, 15 ft in length, supports 170 000 lb, or 85 tons. What should be the size of this column?

According to Table XIX, page 508, giving the safe loads for Bethlehem columns, a 10-in 49-lb column, 15 ft in length, will carry 86.3 tons, an apparently safe load. Bethlehem-column loads, however, are calculated by the straight-line formula, whereas in Philadelphia, Rankine's (called Gordon's) formula is the standard. This formula with the arbitrary constants inserted is

$$S = \frac{16\,250}{1 + \frac{1}{11\,000}(l/r)^2}. \quad \text{(See Table XI, page 493.)}$$

From Table XIX, $A = 14.37$ sq in and the least $r = 2.49$ in; l is 15 ft or 180 in. $l/r = 180 \text{ in}/2.49 \text{ in} = 72.3$.

Substituting in the formula,

$$S = \frac{16\,250}{1 + \frac{1}{11\,000}(72.3)^2} = \frac{16\,250}{1 + 5\,227/11\,000} = \frac{16\,250}{16\,227/11\,000}$$

$$= \frac{16\,250 \times 11\,000}{16\,227} = \frac{178\,750\,000}{16\,227} = 11\,015 \text{ lb per sq in}$$

and from Formula (10), page 481,

$$P = AS = 14.37 \text{ sq in} \times 11\,015 \text{ lb per sq in} = 158\,285 \text{ lb or } 79.1 \text{ tons,}$$

which is less than the tabular load. Hence the next heavier column, weighing 54 lb per sq ft, would have to be used.

Example 10. Figure 7, page 342, shows the cross-section of one of the basement-columns in the Bankers' Trust Company's Building, New York City. It is 20 ft in length and supports 2 230 tons. Is the column safe?

The first step is to find its least radius of gyration which is equal to $\sqrt{I/A}$. The least moment of inertia of this section was found to be 17 030. (See page 343.) The area is made up as follows:

FLANGES. The flanges are composed of six 27 by ¾-in plates and two 27 by 11/16-in plates. The area of the cross-section of each 27 by ¾-in plate is 20.25 sq in and of the six plates, 121.50 sq in. The area of the section of each 27 by 11/16-in plate is 18.56 sq in and of the two plates, 37.12 sq in. Hence the total sectional flange-area is 121.50 + 37.12 = 158.62 sq in

FLANGE-ANGLES. Each flange-angle is 6 by 6 by 15/16 in. Its section-area is 10.38 sq in. Hence for the four, $A = 10.38 \times 4 =$ 41.52 sq in

OUTER WEB. The outer web-plates are each 18 by 11/16 in. The area of each one is 12.375 sq in and of the eight 99.00 sq in

WEB. Each web-angle is 6 by 3½ by 15/16 in with a section-area of 8.03 sq in; and for four angles the section-area is 32.12 sq in

WEB. The web is composed of two 18 by 9/16-in plates, each with a section-area of 10.125 sq in. For two the area is 20.25 sq in

The area of the entire section, therefore, is 351.51 sq in

$$r^2 = I/A = 17\,030/351.5 = 48.5 \quad \text{and} \quad r = \sqrt{48.5} = 7 \text{ in}$$

$$l = 20 \text{ ft} = 240 \text{ in and } l/r = 240 \text{ in}/7 \text{ in} = 34.3$$

Substituting in the New York City building code Formula (15), page 482,

$$S = 15\,200 - 58 \times 34.3 = 15\,200 - 1\,989 = 13\,211 \text{ lb per sq in}$$

From Formula (10)

$$P = AS = 351.5 \text{ sq in} \times 13\,211 \text{ lb per sq in} = 4\,643\,666 \text{ lb, or } 2\,321 \text{ tons.}$$

Hence the column is perfectly safe.

15. Eccentric Loading of Steel Columns

General Principles. Where columns are used in tiers, one above another, the beams and girders which they support must necessarily rest upon brackets projecting or extending varying distances beyond the shell or section-areas or axes of the columns. Such connections cause BENDING MOMENTS in the columns. When equal loads are applied at equal distances on opposite sides of a column, the bending moments caused by them in the column balance each other, and the CENTER OF STRESS may be considered as coinciding with the axis of the column. When, however, a load is applied on one side (Fig. 25) without a corresponding load on the opposite side, it is called an ECCENTRIC LOAD and the area of the cross-section of the column should be increased correspondingly. There is unfortunately no direct method by which this additional area can be determined. The usual method of procedure is to assume a section in excess of that required to support the total load and then compute the fiber-stress due to the combined balanced and eccentric loads. If this works out too large or too small another trial is made.

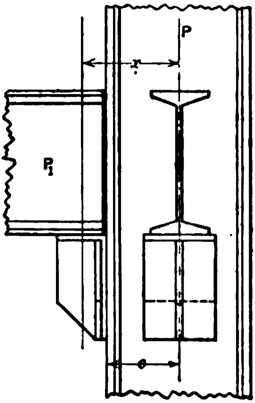

Fig. 25. Channel-column with Eccentric Load. Elevation

Formula for Eccentric Loads on Steel Columns. The following formula (compare with Fig. 25) is used to determine the combined fiber-stresses due to the concentric and eccentric loads:

Let P = the concentric or balanced load in pounds,

P_1 = the eccentric load in pounds,

M = the bending moment due to the eccentric load in inch-pounds = P_1x,

x = the eccentricity of the load P_1 in inches. (See note below.)

I = the moment of inertia of the area of the cross-section of the column about an axis at right-angles to the direction of the bending,

c = the distance of the outermost fiber in the cross-section from the same axis,

A = the area of column-section in square inches and

S = the safe unit fiber-stress in pounds per square inch.

Then

$$S = (P + P_1)/A + Mc/I \qquad (18)$$

Note. In measuring the ECCENTRICITY, the distance, x, is generally measured from the axis of the column to the center line or half-breadth line of the bracket or bearing.

Examples of Eccentric Loading of Steel Columns. The following examples illustrate the use of the formula and tables in determining the safe eccentric loads for steel columns.

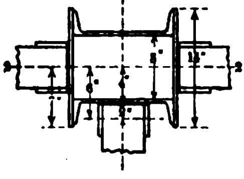

Fig. 26. Channel-column with Eccentric Load. Section

Example 11. The total load on the top of a column 32 ft in length is 194 000 lb, of which 30 000 lb come from the end of a girder. There is no corresponding load on the opposite side. (See Fig. 26.) It is proposed to use a channel-column. What is the size of the required column?

By referring to Table XXVI, page 539, it is seen that a column composed of two 12-in 20.5-lb channels and two 14 by ⅜-in plates will support, for a length of 32 ft, 227 000 lb, a somewhat greater load than will come on the column. For the section of this column, $I_{2-2} = 415$, $A = 22.56$ sq in, $r = 4.29$ in and $l/r =$

384/4.29 = 89. Substituting in Formula (11), page 481, to find the safe unit fiber-stress

$$S = \frac{12\,500}{1 + \frac{1}{36\,000}(l/r)^2} = \frac{12\,500}{1 + (89)^2/36\,000} = \frac{12\,500}{1 + 7\,921/36\,000} = \frac{12\,500}{43\,921/36\,000}$$

$$= \frac{12\,500 \times 36\,000}{43\,921} = \frac{450\,000\,000}{43\,921} = 10\,245 \text{ lb per sq in}$$

The actual stress in pounds per square inch of the column-section is found by Formula (18), $S = (P + P_1)/A + Mc/I$. $P = 164\,000$ lb, $P_1 = 30\,000$ lb, $A = 22.56$ sq in and $M = Px$ in-lb. x = the distance in inches from the axis 2–2 of the column to the outside of the web, plus the distance from the outside of the web to the center of the bracket. The former distance can be found from Table XXVI. It is 4 in. Let the distance from the outside of the web of the channel to the center of the bracket riveted to the web of the channel be 2 in, the projection of the bracket being 4 in; then x, the lever-arm of the moment of the load P_1, or the eccentricity, is 4 in + 2 in = 6 in. M, therefore, is P_1x or 30 000 lb × 6 in. c is 7 in, since the plates are 14 in wide. $I_{2-2} = 415$. Substituting in Formula (18)

$$S = \frac{164\,000 + 30\,000}{22.56} + \frac{30\,000 \times 6 \times 7}{415} = 8\,600 + 3\,036 = 11\,636 \text{ lb per sq in}$$

As this exceeds the safe unit fiber-stress of 10 245 lb per sq in, the column-section is too small.

For a second trial, consider a 12-in, 20.5-lb channel-column with 14 by ½-in plates. For this section, $I_{2-2} = 473$, $A = 26.06$ sq in, $r_{2-2} = 4.26$ in and $l/r = 384/4.26 = 90$.

$$S = \frac{12\,500}{1 + (90)^2/36\,000} = \frac{12\,500}{1 + 8\,100/36\,000} = \frac{12\,500}{44\,100/36\,000}$$

$$= \frac{12\,500 \times 36\,000}{44\,100} = 10\,204 \text{ lb per sq in.}$$

The actual stress from Formula (18), as before, is

$$S = \frac{164\,000 + 30\,000}{26.06} + \frac{30\,000 \times 6 \times 7}{473} = 7\,444 + 2\,664 = 10\,108 \text{ lb per sq in}$$

As this is less than the safe stress of 10 204 lb, the second selection is safe.

Example 12. A Bethlehem H column 14 ft long carries 90.56 tons, of which 15.52 tons are eccentric, being applied to the flange of the column as shown in Fig. 27, the distance from the outside of the flange to the center of the bearing being 2 in. What is the size of the column required?

Try a 12-in, 84.5-lb column, which, for a length of 14 ft, or 168 in, will carry 161.4 tons (Table XX). For this column, $A = 24.92$, $r_{2-2} = 3.03$, $I_{1-1} = 676.1$, $I_{2-2} = 228.5$ and l is 14 ft, or 168 in; hence $l/r = 168/3.03 = 55$. Substituting in Formula (15), assuming that that formula is specified, $S = 15\,200 - 58 \times 55 = 12\,010$ lb per sq in. Since the eccentric load causes bending in a direction at right-angles to the axis 1–1, Fig. 27, the bending moment due to the eccentric load is P_1, or 15.52 tons or 31 040 lb, multiplied by its lever arm x, which is the distance from the axis 1–1 to the outside of the flange plus the distance from this surface to the center of bearing. The former dimension, taken from the Bethlehem Catalogue, is 6¹⁄₁₆ in and the latter is 2 in; hence $x = 8\frac{1}{16}$ in or for convenience, 8 in. The distance, c, also, of the outermost fiber from the axis

1–1 is 6$\frac{1}{16}$ in, which for convenience will be considered 6 in. I_{1-1} about the axis 1–1 is 676.1. Substituting in Formula (18), $S = (150\,080 + 31\,040)/24.92 + (31\,040 \times 8 \times 6)/676.1 = 7\,268 + 2\,204 = 9\,472$ lb per sq in. As this is far below the safe stress of 12 010 lb, the column selected is too large, and a smaller one, probably a 12-in 64.5-lb column would prove sufficient.

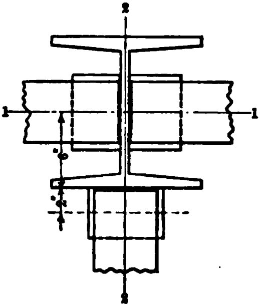

Fig. 27. Bethlehem H Column with Eccentric Load

Suppose, on the other hand, the eccentric load were applied to the web and the balanced loads to the flanges. The safe unit fiber-stress, as before, is 12 010 lb per sq in, for no matter how the loads are applied, the safe unit stress determined by reference to the least radius of gyration, r_{2-2}, should not be exceeded. Under the second condition of loading the eccentric load, also, will cause bending about this same axis 2–2; hence in Formula (18) the I for this axis, which is 228.5, must be used. $x = 2$ in $+ 0.25$ in $=$ 2.25 in, 0.25 in being one-half the thickness of the web. (See the Bethlehem Catalogue.) Hence, from Formula (18), the actual unit fiber-stress is $S = (150\,080 + 31\,040)/24.92 + (31\,040 \times 6 \times 2.25)/228.5 = 7\,268 + 1\,835 = 9\,103$ lb per sq in.

16. Tables of Safe Loads for Steel Columns

Safe Loads per Square Inch of Metal-Area for Steel Columns and Struts. To lessen the labor of calculating the strength of steel columns and struts, of whatever shape, the author has computed Table XI, which gives SAFE VALUES of S for ratios of l/r varying from 30 to 120. For ratios of l/r which are not whole numbers, the values can be readily interpolated. The values in this table should correspond exactly with the results obtained by using the corresponding formulas.

Safe Loads for Steel-Pipe Columns. Tables XII and XIII give the SAFE LOADS for STEEL-PIPE COLUMNS. These loads are based upon the formula recommended by the New York City Building Code, $S = 15\,200 - 58\,l/r$. (See Steel-Pipe Columns, pages 469 to 474.)

Safe Loads for Channel and Angle-Struts. Tables XIV, XV and XVI give the SAFE LOADS for standard CHANNELS and ANGLES used as STRUTS. Only those sizes that are most commonly used are given. In Table XIV the SAFE LOADS for both the minimum and the maximum RADIUS OF GYRATION are given. If the strut is used also as a beam, or is stayed so that it cannot bend sidewise, the larger value may be taken; but if free to bend in either direction, then the smaller value should be taken. If the struts are subjected to a TRANSVERSE STRESS they should be computed as explained under the heading Strut-Beams, pages 571 and 572.

Safe Loads for Steel-Beam Columns, Bethlehem Columns, Lally Columns, Plate-and-Angle and Channel Columns. Tables XVII to XXVII, giving the SAFE LOADS for these columns, were not computed by the author, but by the different manufacturers; they are, however, believed to be perfectly safe, provided that an increase in area is made for ECCENTRIC LOADS.

Use of Table XI for Determining Safe Loads for Steel Columns. This table will be found of great assistance in calculating the strength of columns and of struts and also in making calculations for eccentric loads. To use it to find the strength of a column, it is merely necessary to multiply the value corresponding to the SLENDERNESS-RATIO of the column, by the SECTION-AREA, the result being the SAFE LOAD the column can support. As an illustration of this, the column considered in Example 8 has a slenderness-ratio of 63 and a section-area of 29.44 sq in. Its strength is to be calculated by the Chicago Building Code formula, the results of which are tabulated in the sixth column of Table XI. From this the value of a slenderness-ratio of 63 is 11 590 lb per sq in. Therefore, by the rule stated above, the safe load is 11 590 lb per sq in × 29.44 sq in = 341 209 lb. In Example 10, the column in the Bankers' Trust Company Building has a slenderness-ratio of 34.3, and an area of 351.5 sq in. The value corresponding to 34, from column 5 of Table XI, is 13 228 and for 35 it is 13 170 lb per sq in; hence for 34.3 it would be about 13 211 lb per in. Accordingly, the safe load is 13 211 lb per sq in × 351.5 sq in = 4 643 666 lb. As an illustration of its application to determine eccentric loads, refer again to Example 11. The value of l/r for this column is 89. The safe unit fiber-stress was found to be, by Formula (11), 10 245 lb per sq in. The practically identical result can be obtained by looking for the value opposite 89 in column 2 of Table XI. It is found to be 10 250 lb.

Use of Table XI for Eccentric Loads for Steel Struts. To use Table XI to find the safe load for any steel strut take the following examples:

Example 13. What is the safe resistance of a strut composed of two 5-in 9-lb channels, separated ½ in and free to bend in either direction, the length of the strut being 7 ft 6 in?

Solution. From Table XVIII, page 374, the least radius of gyration for this section is 1, hence $l/r = 90/1 = 90$. From the eighth column of Table XI, the value of S opposite 90 is 8 000 lb per sq in; the safe load, then, is equal to 8 000 lb per sq in, multiplied by the area of the two channels, 5.3 sq in, or 42 400 lb.

Example 14. What is the safe stress for a 7-in 15-lb **I** beam when used as a strut? It is 90 in in length and free to bend in either direction.

Solution. From Table IV, page 355, the least radius of gyration of this section is 0.78, and the area is 4.42 sq in. $l/r = 90/0.78 = 115.4$. From the eighth column of Table XI, the value opposite 115 is 6 750 and opposite 116 it is 6 700 lb per sq in; so for 115.4 it would be about 6 730 lb per sq in. The safe load, therefore, is 6 730 lb per sq in × 4.42 sq in = 29 746 lb.

By means of the tables and rules given in Chapter X the SECTION-AREA and LEAST RADIUS OF GYRATION of any standard section or any combination of sections may be found; and once these are determined the strength of a strut or column may be readily computed, as in the above examples.

Proportion of Floor-Loads Borne by Columns. (See, also, pages 148 to 152.) In tall buildings it is customary to reduce the COLUMN-LOADS somewhat from the loads used in calculating the floor-beams. This is done on the theory that it is quite impossible for the entire floor-area of every story to be loaded to the maximum limit at the same time. For all buildings except warehouses it would seem, in general, to be good practice to design the columns to carry all the DEAD LOAD and 75% of the assumed LIVE LOAD. Of course city laws vary in these requirements. Thus, if in an office-building, the dead load, or weight of the floor-construction, is 80, and the live load 80 lb per sq ft, the load on the columns would be 80 + 60 = 140 lb per sq ft times the floor-area supported by the column. In some cases the reduction might be even greater, depending upon the live load assumed and the position of the column in the building, the reductions being greater in the lower than in the upper stories.

The Building Code of New York City specifies that for buildings exceeding five stories in height the COLUMN-LOADS shall be made up as follows: "For the roof and top floor the full live loads shall be used; for each succeeding lower floor it shall be permissible to reduce the live load by 5% until 50% of the live load is reached, when such reduced loads shall be used for all remaining floors." (For assumed loads for office-buildings, required by the building codes of several cities, see page 151.)

Column-Sheets. In a high building the COLUMN-LOADS vary to such an extent and are made up of so many elements, that to avoid omissions and errors it is necessary to make a TABULATED LIST of all the loads transferred through the columns to the footings. In a building of skeleton construction the COLUMN-LOADS include floor and roof-loads, wind-loads, spandrel and pier-loads, the weight of the columns themselves and their fire-proof covering, and in some cases special loads, such as tanks, vaults, safes and elevator-loads. In tabulating the FLOOR-LOADS it is advisable to separate the dead and live loads for convenience in proportioning the footings. (See, also, pages 148 to 160.) Formulas for computing the WIND-LOADS on columns are given in Chapter XXIX; these loads, also, are considered as live loads. ECCENTRIC LOADS should always be tabulated separately from the balanced column-loads. On page 491 is shown a form of COLUMN-SHEET which combines all ordinary requirements. The TOTAL LOAD for each story is the sum of all of the loads above. The SCHEDULE * on page 492 shows a very convenient form for column-lengths and column-parts.

* From Architectural Engineering, J. K. Freitag.

Form of Column-Sheet

Story	Character of loading	Column No. 1		Column 2
		Load on column, concentric	Load on column, eccentric	
18th top	Roof and ceiling, dead load			
	Roof and ceiling, live load			
	Masonry piers			
	Spandrels, cornice, etc.			
	Elevators			
	Tanks			
	Column and casing			
	Wind-load			
	Total			
	Sectional area required	sq in	sq in	
17th	From column above.*			
	Floor, dead load			
	Floor, live load			
	Masonry piers			
	Spandrels			
	Safes, vaults, etc.			
	Column and casing			
	Wind-load			
	Total			
	Sectional area required	sq in	sq in	
Basement	From column above.*			
	Floor, dead load			
	Floor, live load			
	Masonry piers			
	Spandrels			
	Sidewalk			
	Column and casing			
	Wind-load			
	Total			
	Sectional area required	sq in	sq in	
	Deduct (½) live load			
Footings	Total footing-load			
	Area of footing required	sq ft		

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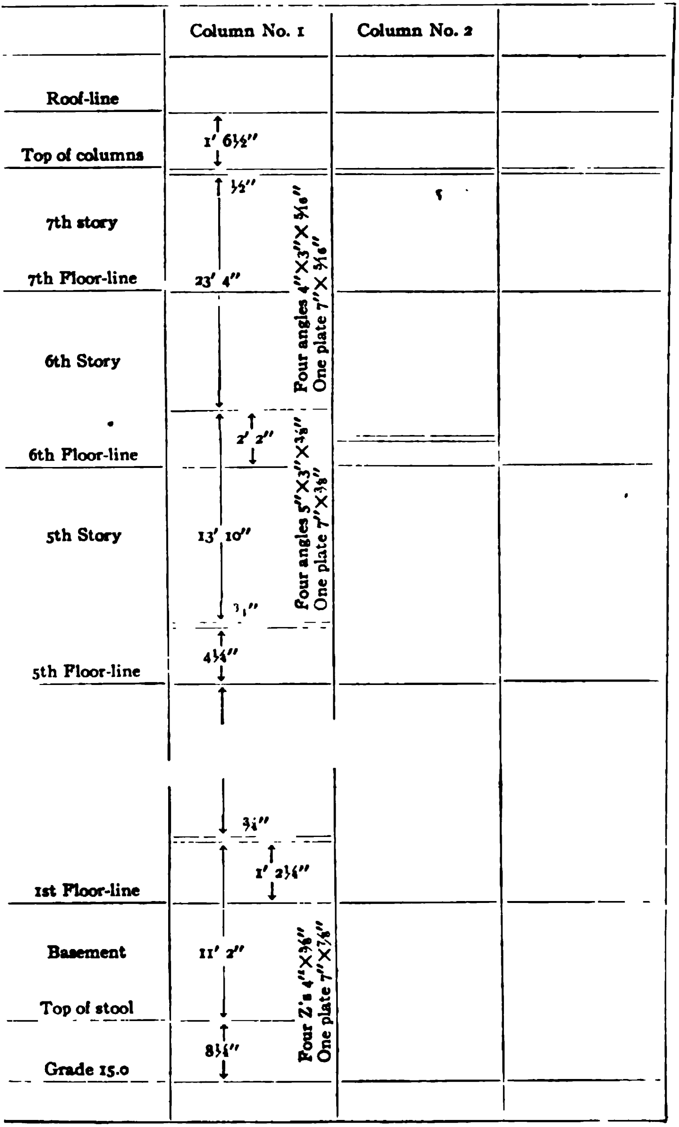
* In bringing down the load from the column above, the eccentric loads may be added to the concentric loads and their sum placed in the first column.

Schedule of Column-Lengths and Parts



ble XI. Safe Loads in Pounds per Square Inch of Metal-Area for Steel Columns and Struts

l = length in inches r = least radius of gyration in inches

r	Rankine's (Gordon's) and Cambria	Philadelphia	Boston	New York	Chicago	Am. Bridge Co. and Carnegie	Fowler's for struts	l/r
	$\dfrac{12\,500}{1+\dfrac{l^2}{36\,000\,r^2}}$	$\dfrac{16\,250}{1+\dfrac{l^2}{11\,000\,r^2}}$	$\dfrac{16\,000}{1+\dfrac{l^2}{20\,000\,r^2}}$	$15\,200-58\,l/r$	$16\,000-70\,l/r$ $14\,000$ max	$19\,000-100\,l/r$ $13\,000$ max	$12\,500-50\,l/r$	
I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX
30	12 195	15 020	15 310	13 460	13 900	13 000	11 000	30
31	12 170	14 945	15 265	13 402	13 830	13 000	10 950	31
32	12 155	14 865	15 220	13 344	13 760	13 000	10 900	32
33	12 135	14 785	15 175	13 286	13 690	13 000	10 850	33
34	12 110	14 705	15 125	13 228	13 620	13 000	10 800	34
35	12 090	14 620	15 075	13 170	13 550	13 000	10 750	35
36	12 065	14 535	15 025	13 112	13 480	13 000	10 700	36
37	12 045	14 450	14 975	13 054	13 410	13 000	10 650	37
38	12 020	14 365	14 925	12 996	13 340	13 000	10 600	38
39	11 995	14 275	14 870	12 938	13 270	13 000	10 550	39
40	11 970	14 185	14 815	12 880	13 200	13 000	10 500	40
41	11 945	14 095	14 760	12 822	13 130	13 000	10 450	41
42	11 920	14 005	14 705	12 764	13 060	13 000	10 400	42
43	11 890	13 915	14 650	12 706	12 990	13 000	10 350	43
44	11 860	13 820	14 590	12 648	12 920	13 000	10 300	44
45	11 835	13 725	14 530	12 590	12 850	13 000	10 250	45
46	11 805	13 630	14 470	12 532	12 780	13 000	10 200	46
47	11 780	13 535	14 410	12 474	12 710	13 000	10 150	47
48	11 750	13 440	14 350	12 416	12 640	13 000	10 100	48
49	11 720	13 340	14 285	12 358	12 570	13 000	10 050	49
50	11 690	13 240	14 220	12 300	12 500	13 000	10 000	50
51	11 660	13 145	14 160	12 242	12 430	13 000	9 950	51
52	11 620	13 045	14 095	12 184	12 360	13 000	9 900	52
53	11 595	12 945	14 030	12 126	12 290	13 000	9 850	53
54	11 565	12 845	13 965	12 068	12 220	13 000	9 800	54
55	11 530	12 745	13 900	12 010	12 150	13 000	9 750	55
56	11 500	12 645	13 835	11 952	12 080	13 000	9 700	56
57	11 465	12 545	13 770	11 894	12 010	13 000	9 650	57
58	11 430	12 445	13 700	11 836	11 940	13 000	9 600	58
59	11 400	12 345	13 630	11 778	11 870	13 000	9 550	59
60	11 365	12 240	13 560	11 720	11 800	13 000	9 500	60
61	11 330	12 140	13 490	11 662	11 730	12 900	9 450	61
62	11 295	12 040	13 420	11 604	11 660	12 800	9 400	62
63	11 260	11 940	13 350	11 546	11 590	12 700	9 350	63
64	11 225	11 840	13 280	11 488	11 520	12 600	9 300	64
65	11 185	11 740	13 210	11 430	11 450	12 500	9 250	65
66	11 150	11 640	13 140	11 372	11 380	12 400	9 200	66
67	11 115	11 540	13 070	11 314	11 310	12 300	9 150	67
68	11 080	11 440	13 000	11 256	11 240	12 200	9 100	68
69	11 040	11 340	12 925	11 198	11 170	12 100	9 050	69

Table XI (Continued). Safe Loads in Pounds per Square Inch of Metal-Area for Steel Columns and Struts .

l = length in inches *r* = least radius of gyration in inches

l/r	Rankine's (Gordon's) and Cambria	Philadelphia	Boston	New York	Chicago	Am. Bridge Co. and Carnegie	Fowler's for struts	*l/r*
	$\frac{12\,500}{1+\frac{l^2}{36\,000\,r^2}}$	$\frac{16\,250}{1+\frac{l^2}{11\,000\,r^2}}$	$\frac{16\,000}{1+\frac{l^2}{20\,000\,r^2}}$	$15\,200 - 58\,l/r$	$16\,000 - 70\,l/r$ $14\,000$ max	$19\,000 - 100\,l/r$ $13\,000$ max	$12\,500 - 50\,l/r$	
I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX
70	11 000	11 240	12 850	11 140	11 100	12 000	9 000	70
71	10 965	11 140	12 780	11 082	11 030	11 900	8 950	71
72	10 930	11 040	12 710	11 024	10 960	11 800	8 900	72
73	10 890	10 940	12 640	10 966	10 890	11 700	8 850	73
74	10 850	10 845	12 565	10 908	10 820	11 600	8 800	74
75	10 810	10 750	12 490	10 850	10 750	11 500	8 750	75
76	10 770	10 655	12 420	10 792	10 680	11 400	8 700	76
77	10 735	10 560	12 345	10 734	10 610	11 300	8 650	77
78	10 695	10 465	12 270	10 676	10 540	11 200	8 600	78
79	10 655	10 370	12 195	10 618	10 470	11 100	8 550	79
80	10 615	10 275	12 120	10 560	10 400	11 000	8 500	80
81	10 575	10 180	12 045	10 502	10 330	10 900	8 450	81
82	10 535	10 085	11 970	10 444	10 260	10 800	8 400	82
83	10 495	9 990	11 895	10 386	10 190	10 700	8 350	83
84	10 450	9 800	11 825	10 328	10 120	10 600	8 300	84
85	10 410	9 810	11 755	10 270	10 050	10 500	8 250	85
86	10 370	9 720	11 680	10 212	9 980	10 400	8 200	86
87	10 330	9 630	11 605	10 154	9 910	10 300	8 150	87
88	10 290	9 540	11 530	10 096	9 840	10 200	8 100	88
89	10 250	9 450	11 460	10 038	9 770	10 100	8 050	89
90	10 205	9 360	11 390	9 980	9 700	10 000	8 000	90
91	10 165	9 370	11 315	9 922	9 630	9 900	8 950	91
92	10 125	9 285	11 240	9 864	9 560	9 800	8 900	92
93	10 085	9 200	11 165	9 806	9 490	9 700	8 850	93
94	10 040	9 115	11 095	9 748	9 420	9 600	8 800	94
95	9 995	8 930	11 025	9 690	9 350	9 500	7 750	95
96	9 955	8 845	10 950	9 632	9 280	9 400	7 700	96
97	9 915	8 760	10 880	9 574	9 210	9 300	7 650	97
98	9 875	8 675	10 810	9 516	9 140	9 200	7 600	98
99	9 830	8 590	10 740	9 458	9 070	9 100	7 550	99
100	9 785	8 510	10 670	9 400	9 000	9 000	7 500	100
101	9 740	8 430	10 595	9 342	8 930	8 900	7 450	101
102	9 695	8 350	10 525	9 284	8 860	8 800	7 400	102
103	9 650	8 270	10 455	9 226	8 790	8 700	7 350	103
104	9 610	8 190	10 385	9 168	8 720	8 600	7 300	104
105	9 570	8 115	10 315	9 110	8 650	8 500	7 250	105
106	9 525	8 040	10 245	9 052	8 580	8 400	7 200	106
107	9 480	7 965	10 175	8 994	8 510	8 300	7 150	107
108	9 435	7 890	10 105	8 936	8 440	8 200	7 100	108
109	9 395	7 815	10 035	8 878	8 370	8 100	7 050	109

Table XI (Continued). Safe Loads in Pounds per Square Inch of Metal-Area for Steel Columns and Struts

l = length in inches r = least radius of gyration in inches

l/r	Rankine's (Gordon's) and Cambria	Philadelphia	Boston	New York	Chicago	Am. Bridge Co. and Carnegie	Fowler's for struts	l/r
	$\dfrac{12\,500}{1+\dfrac{l^2}{36\,000\,r^2}}$	$\dfrac{16\,250}{1+\dfrac{l^2}{11\,000\,r^2}}$	$\dfrac{16\,000}{1+\dfrac{l^2}{20\,000\,r^2}}$	$15\,200-58\,l/r$	$16\,000-70\,l/r$ 14 000 max	$19\,000-100\,l/r$ 13 000 max	$12\,500-50\,l/r$	
I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX
110	9 355	7 740	9 970	8 820	8 300	8 000	7 000	110
111	9 310	7 665	9 900	8 762	8 230	7 900	6 950	111
112	9 265	7 590	9 830	8 704	8 160	7 800	6 900	112
113	9 220	7 520	9 760	8 646	8 090	7 700	6 850	113
114	9 180	7 450	9 695	8 588	8 020	7 600	6 800	114
115	9 140	7 380	9 630	8 530	7 950	7 500	6 750	115
116	9 095	7 310	9 560	8 472	7 880	7 400	6 700	116
117	9 050	7 240	9 495	8 414	7 810	7 300	6 650	117
118	9 010	7 170	9 430	8 356	7 740	7 200	6 600	118
119	8 970	7 100	9 365	8 298	7 670	7 100	6 550	119
120	8 930	7 035	9 300	8 240	7 600	7 000	6 500	120

In the following COMPARATIVE DIAGRAM OF COMPRESSION FORMULAS the names of the formulas, the abbreviations for the same and the maximum ratio of l/r for main members and bracing struts are as follows:

Name of formula	Abbreviation	Maximum ratio of l/r	
		Main members	Bracing struts
American Bridge Company..........	A. B.	120	200
American Railway Engineering Ass'n	A. R. E.	100	120
Chicago Building Law..............	C.	120	150
Rankine (Gordon)	G.	....	....
New York Building Law............	N. Y.	120	....
Philadelphia Building Law..........	P.	140	....
Boston Building Law...............	B.	120	....

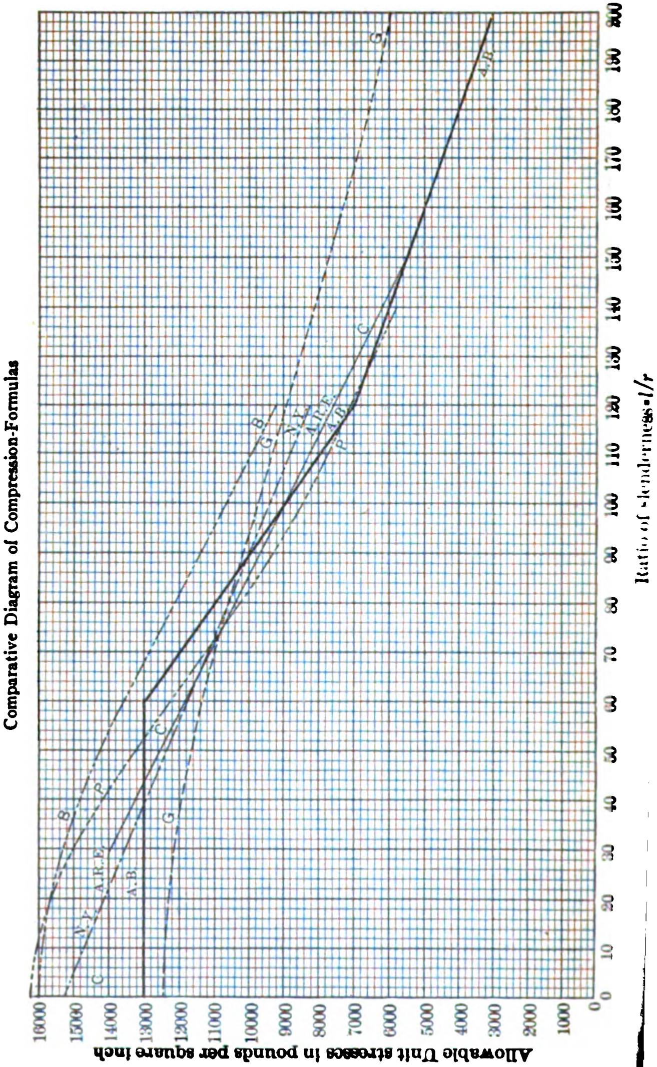

Comparative Diagram of Compression-Formulas
Allowable Unit stresses in pounds per square inch
Ratio of slenderness l/r
16000
15000
14000
13000
12000
11000
10000
9000
8000
7000
6000
5000
4000
3000
2000
1000
0
0
10
20
30
40
50
60
70
80
90
100
110
120
130
140
150
160
170
180
190
200
B
P
C
N.Y.
A.R.E.
A.B.
G

Table XII.* Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Standard Steel-Pipe Columns

Loads in tons of 2 000 pounds. Table based on New York City building laws. Formula used, $S = 15\,200 - 58\,l/r$, in which

S = allowable compressive stress for steel in pounds per square inch,
l = length of column in inches,
r = least radius of gyration in inches.

Values above or to the left of the zigzag lines correspond to values of l/r greater than 120.

Lengths ft	Sizes of pipe. Diameters in inches								
	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	6	7
	Thickness in decimal parts of an inch								
	0.154	0.203	0.216	0.226	0.237	0.247	0.258	0.280	0.301
40	....	....	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
36	....	....	......	......	......	......	......	......	19.16
33	....	....	......	......	......	......	......	13.87	21.95
30	....	....	......	......	......	......	......	16.47	24.74
27	....	....	......	......	......	......	11.16	19.06	27.53
24	....	....	......	......	......	9.72	13.55	21.66	30.32
22	....	....	......	......	8.02	11.25	15.15	23.39	32.18
20	....	....	......	6.41	9.49	12.78	16.74	25.12	34.04
18	....	....	......	7.81	10.95	14.30	18.34	26.85	35.90
16	....	....	6.27	9.20	12.42	15.83	19.93	28.58	37.76
14	....	4.19	7.61	10.60	13.88	17.35	21.52	30.31	39.62
13	....	4.81	8.27	11.30	14.61	18.11	22.32	31.17	40.55
12	....	5.44	8.94	11.99	15.34	18.88	23.12	32.04	41.48
11	2.94	6.07	9.61	12.69	16.07	19.64	23.91	32.90	42.41
10	3.42	6.69	10.27	13.39	16.81	20.40	24.71	33.77	43.34
9	3.89	7.32	10.94	14.09	17.54	21.17	25.51	34.63	44.27
8	4.37	7.94	11.60	14.78	18.27	21.93	26.30	35.50	45.20
7	4.84	8.57	12.27	15.48	19.00	22.69	27.10	36.36	46.13
6	5.32	9.20	12.94	16.18	19.73	23.45	27.90	37.23	47.06
5	5.79	9.82	13.60	16.88	20.46	24.22	28.69	38.09	47.99

Lengths ft	Sizes of pipe. Diameters in inches							
	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
	Thickness in decimals parts of an inch							
	0.322	0.342	0.365	0.375	0.375	0.375	0.375	0.375
40	24.04	33.53	45.38	55.49	64.44	75.63	84.58	93.53
36	28.02	37.76	49.90	60.12	69.07	80.26	89.21	98.17
33	31.00	40.93	53.28	63.60	72.55	83.74	92.69	101.64
30	33.99	44.10	56.66	67.08	76.03	87.22	96.17	105.12
27	36.97	47.27	60.05	70.55	79.51	90.69	99.65	108.60
24	39.96	50.44	63.43	74.03	82.98	94.17	103.12	112.08
22	41.95	52.55	65.69	76.35	85.30	96.49	105.44	114.40
20	43.94	54.66	67.94	78.67	87.62	98.81	107.76	116.71
18	45.93	56.78	70.20	80.99	89.94	101.13	110.08	119.03
16	47.92	58.89	72.46	83.30	92.26	103.45	112.40	121.35
14	49.90	61.01	74.71	85.62	94.57	105.76	114.72	123.67
13	50.90	62.06	75.84	86.78	95.73	106.92	115.88	124.83
12	51.89	63.12	76.97	87.94	96.89	108.08	117.03	125.99
11	52.89	64.18	78.10	89.10	98.05	109.24	118.19	127.15
10	53.88	65.23	79.22	90.26	99.21	110.40	119.35	128.31
9	54.88	66.29	80.35	91.42	100.37	111.56	120.51	129.47
8	55.87	67.35	81.48	92.57	101.53	112.72	121.67	130.62
7	56.87	68.40	82.61	93.73	102.69	113.88	122.83	131.78
6	57.86	69.46	83.74	94.89	103.85	115.04	123.99	132.94
5	58.86	70.52	84.86	96.05	105.00	116.20	125.15	134.10

* Furnished by the National Tube Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XIII.* Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Extra-Strong Steel-Pipe Columns

Loads in tons of 2 000 pounds. Table based on New York City building laws. Formula used, $S = 15\,200 - 58\,l/r$, in which

S = allowable compressive stress for steel in pounds per square inch,
l = length of column in inches,
r = least radus of gyration in inches.

Loads above or to the left of the zigzag lines correspond to values of l/r greater than 120.

Lengths, ft	Sizes of pipe. Diameters in inches								
	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	6	7
	Thickness in decimal parts of an inch								
	0.218	0.276	0.300	0.318	0.337	0.355	0.375	0.432	0.500
40	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	......	......	......	....
36	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	......	......	......	29.53
33	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	......	......	19.90	34.16
30	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	......	......	23.90	38.79
27	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	......	15.22	27.90	43.42
24	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	13.10	18.69	31.89	48.04
22	.....	.....	.....	.....	10.65	15.29	21.01	34.56	51.13
20	.....	.....	.....	8.36	12.72	17.48	23.32	37.23	54.21
18	.....	.....	.....	10.32	14.80	19.67	25.63	39.89	57.30
16	.....	.....	8.14	12.28	16.88	21.86	27.95	42.56	60.33
14	.....	5.25	9.99	14.24	18.95	24.05	30.26	45.22	63.47
13	.....	6.09	10.91	15.22	19.99	25.14	31.42	46.55	65.01
12	.....	6.94	11.84	16.20	21.03	26.24	32.57	47.89	66.55
11	3.85	7.79	12.76	17.18	22.07	27.33	33.73	49.22	68.09
10	4.52	8.64	13.68	18.16	23.11	28.43	34.89	50.55	69.64
9	5.19	9.49	14.61	19.14	24.15	29.52	36.04	51.88	71.18
8	5.86	10.34	15.53	20.12	25.19	30.61	37.20	53.22	72.72
7	6.53	11.19	16.46	21.10	26.23	31.71	38.35	54.55	74.26
6	7.20	12.03	17.38	22.08	27.26	32.80	39.51	55.88	75.80
5	7.87	12.88	18.30	23.06	28.30	33.90	40.67	57.21	77.35

Lengths, ft	Sizes of pipe. Diameters in inches							
	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
	Thickness in decimal parts of an inch							
	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
40	35.27	47.18	60.59	72.52	84.45	99.36	111.29	123.23
36	41.44	53.36	66.77	78.70	90.63	105.54	117.47	129.41
33	46.07	57.99	71.40	83.33	95.26	110.18	122.11	134.04
30	50.70	62.62	76.04	87.97	99.90	114.81	126.75	138.68
27	55.33	67.25	80.67	92.60	104.53	119.45	131.38	143.32
24	59.96	71.88	85.30	97.23	109.17	124.08	136.02	147.95
22	63.05	74.97	88.39	100.32	112.25	127.17	139.11	151.04
20	66.13	78.06	91.48	103.41	115.34	130.26	142.20	154.13
18	69.22	81.15	94.57	106.50	118.43	133.35	145.29	157.22
16	72.31	84.23	97.66	109.59	121.52	136.44	148.38	160.31
14	75.39	87.32	100.74	112.68	124.61	139.53	151.47	163.41
13	76.94	88.87	102.29	114.22	126.16	141.08	153.01	164.95
12	78.48	90.41	103.83	115.77	127.70	142.62	154.56	166.50
11	80.02	91.95	105.38	117.31	129.25	144.17	156.10	168.04
10	81.56	93.50	106.92	118.86	130.79	145.71	157.65	169.59
9	83.11	95.04	108.47	120.40	132.34	147.26	159.19	171.13
8	84.65	96.58	110.01	121.95	133.88	148.80	160.74	172.68
7	86.19	98.13	111.56	123.49	135.43	150.35	162.29	174.22
6	87.74	99.67	113.10	125.04	136.97	151.89	163.83	175.77
5	89.28	101.22	114.64	126.58	138.52	153.44	165.38	177.31

* Furnished by the National Tube Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

ble XIV. Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Struts Formed of a Pair of Steel Channels

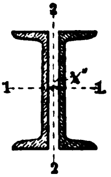
Distance between webs, ¾ in

strut is free to bend in either direction, use smaller load given

Stresses in pounds per square inch:

12 000 for lengths of 30 radii and under;

13 500 — 50 l/r for lengths over 30 radii



	Weight per lin foot, lb*	Thickness of web, in	Area of two channels, sq in	r_{2-2} r_{1-1}, in	Length in feet 8	9	10	11	12	14
15	33	0.40	19.80	1.48	101.57	97.56	93.55	89.54	85.48	77.44
				5.62	118.80	118.80	118.80	118.80	118.80	118.80
	35	0.43	20.58	1.47	105.32	101.13	96.93	92.73	88.54	80.09
				5.58	123.48	123.48	123.48	123.48	123.48	123.00
	40	0.52	23.52	1.46	120.13	115.30	110.48	103.66	100.78	91.14
				5.43	141.12	141.12	141.12	141.12	141.12	140.41
	45	0.62	26.48	1.45	134.91	129.48	123.99	118.50	113.00	102.08
				5.32	158.88	158.88	158.88	158.88	158.88	157.82
	50	0.72	29.42	1.46	150.36	144.23	138.20	132.17	126.06	114.00
				5.23	176.52	176.52	176.52	176.52	176.52	174.75
	55	0.82	32.36	1.47	165.60	159.00	152.40	145.78	139.22	126.10
				5.16	194.16	194.16	194.16	194.16	194.16	192.00
12	20½	0.28	12.06	1.34	59.81	57.10	54.40	51.70	49.02	43.62
				4.61	72.36	72.36	72.36	72.36	71.99	70.43
	25	0.39	14.70	1.31	72.32	68.95	65.60	62.21	58.83	52.03
				4.43	88.20	88.20	88.20	88.20	87.28	85.26
	30	0.51	17.64	1.30	86.52	82.46	78.36	74.30	70.25	62.09
				4.28	105.84	105.84	105.84	105.48	104.25	101.78
	35	0.64	20.58	1.31	101.25	96.52	91.78	87.10	82.37	72.90
				4.17	123.48	123.48	123.48	122.65	121.16	118.33
	40	0.76	23.52	1.32	116.01	110.66	105.31	99.96	94.66	83.96
				4.09	141.12	141.12	141.12	139.82	138.06	134.65
	15	0.24	8.92	1.24	42.94	40.78	38.64	36.48	34.32	30.01
				3.87	53.52	53.52	53.29	52.62	51.91	50.43
	20	0.38	11.76	1.20	55.86	52.92	49.98	47.04	44.10	38.22
				3.66	70.56	70.56	69.73	68.79	67.82	65.85
	25	0.53	14.70	1.20	69.82	66.15	62.47	58.80	55.12	47.77
				3.52	88.20	87.94	86.69	85.44	84.19	81.69
	30	0.68	17.64	1.22	84.40	80.04	75.71	71.35	67.03	58.34
				3.42	105.84	105.13	103.63	102.04	100.20	97.41
	35	0.82	20.58	1.26	99.76	94.82	89.93	85.04	80.16	70.33
				3.35	123.48	122.34	120.49	118.64	116.79	113.13
	13¼	0.23	7.78	1.19	36.83	34.87	32.91	30.94	28.98	25.07
				3.49	46.68	46.48	45.82	45.16	44.50	43.15
	15	0.29	8.82	1.17	41.45	39.18	36.93	34.66	32.41	27.89
				3.40	52.92	52.52	51.81	50.98	50.10	48.64
	20	0.45	11.76	1.15	54.85	51.77	48.71	45.65	42.57	36.42
				3.21	70.56	69.50	68.38	67.29	66.20	64.00
	25	0.62	14.70	1.17	69.09	65.31	61.55	57.77	54.00	46.48
				3.10	87.83	86.43	85.00	83.56	82.17	79.30

* Of single channel.

Table XIV (Continued). Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Struts Formed of a Pair of Steel Channels

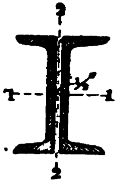
Distance between webs, ½ in

If strut is free to bend in either direction, use smaller load given

Stresses in pounds per square inch:

11 000 for lengths of 50 radii and under;

13 500 − 50 l/r for lengths over 50 radii



Depth, in	Weight per lin foot, lb*	Thickness of web, in	Area of two channels, sq in	r_{2-2} r_{1-1}, in	Length in feet					
					6	7	8	9	10	11
8	11.25	0.22	6.70	1.04	33.63	31.70	29.76	27.83	25.91	23.96
				3.11	36.85	36.85	36.85	36.85	36.85	36.85
	13.75	0.31	8.08	1.04	40.56	38.23	35.89	33.57	31.24	28.90
				2.98	44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44
	16.25	0.40	9.56	1.03	47.82	45.05	42.25	39.48	36.68	33.91
				2.89	52.58	52.58	52.58	52.58	52.58	52.58
	18.75	0.49	11.02	1.03	55.12	51.93	48.70	45.51	42.29	39.09
				2.82	60.61	60.61	60.61	60.61	60.61	60.61
	21.25	0.58	12.50	1.03	62.53	58.90	55.25	51.62	47.96	44.34
				2.77	68.75	68.75	68.75	68.75	68.75	68.75
7	9.75	0.21	5.70	0.99	28.11	26.39	24.66	22.94	21.20	19.47
				2.72	31.35	31.35	31.35	31.35	31.35	31.35
	12.25	0.32	7.20	0.99	35.51	33.33	31.15	28.98	26.78	24.60
				2.59	39.60	39.60	39.60	39.60	39.60	39.42
	14.75	0.42	8.68	0.99	42.71	40.18	37.56	34.93	32.28	29.66
				2.50	47.74	47.74	47.74	47.74	47.74	47.13
	17.25	0.53	10.14	1.00	50.19	47.15	44.10	41.06	38.02	34.98
				2.44	55.77	55.77	55.77	55.77	55.77	54.73
	19.75	0.63	11.62	1.00	57.52	54.03	50.54	47.06	43.57	40.08
				2.39	63.91	63.91	63.91	63.91	63.91	62.39
6	8.00	0.20	4.76	0.94	23.02	21.50	19.98	18.46	16.94	15.42
				2.34	26.18	26.18	26.18	26.18	26.02	25.41
	10.50	0.32	6.18	0.94	29.89	27.91	25.94	23.97	22.00	20.02
				2.21	33.99	33.99	33.99	33.99	33.32	32.48
	13.00	0.44	7.64	0.95	37.11	34.68	32.27	29.87	27.44	25.01
				2.13	42.02	42.02	42.02	41.88	40.81	39.72
	15.50	0.56	9.12	0.95	44.30	41.40	38.53	35.66	32.78	29.80
				2.07	50.16	50.16	50.16	49.68	48.33	47.03
5	6.50	0.19	3.90	0.89	18.43	17.13	15.81	14.49	13.18	11.86
				1.95	21.45	21.45	21.45	20.92	20.32	19.72
	9.00	0.33	5.30	0.90	25.17	23.41	21.65	19.87	18.11	16.35
				1.83	29.15	29.15	28.83	27.97	27.10	26.22
	11.50	0.48	6.76	0.91	32.26	30.03	27.81	25.58	23.35	21.12
				1.75	37.18	37.18	36.36	35.20	34.03	32.88
4	5.25	0.18	3.10	0.84	14.28	13.17	12.07	10.96	9.85	...
				1.56	17.05	16.75	16.15	15.55	14.96	14.36
	6.25	0.25	3.68	0.84	16.95	15.64	14.33	13.02	11.70	....
				1.51	20.24	19.72	18.99	18.26	17.53	16.80
	7.25	0.32	4.26	0.84	19.62	18.10	16.59	15.07	13.54	....
				1.46	23.43	22.63	21.75	20.87	19.98	19.12

* Of single channel.

Table XV. Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Single-Steel-Angle Struts

ANGLES WITH UNEQUAL LEGS

Stresses in pounds per square inch:
11 000 for lengths of 50 radii and under;
13 500 − 50 l/r for lengths over 50 radii

Size, in	Thickness, in	r axis 3-3,* in	Area, sq in	Length in feet						
				4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6 × 4	⅜	0.88	3.61	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	⅞	0.86	7.99	42.78	40.00	37.21	34.44	31.64	28.86	26.07
5 × 3½	⅜	0.76	3.05	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	¾	0.75	5.81	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
5 × 3	5/16	0.66	2.40	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	¾	0.64	5.44	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
4½ × 3	5/16	0.66	2.25	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	¾	0.64	5.06	24.66	22.29	19.92	17.55	15.18	....	....
4 × 3½	5/16	0.73	2.25	11.49	10.57	9.65	8.72	7.79	6.86	....
	¾	0.72	5.06	25.73	23.62	21.51	19.40	17.29	15.18	....
4 × 3	5/16	0.65	2.09	10.25	9.28	8.32	7.36	6.39	....	....
	¾	0.64	4.69	22.86	20.67	18.47	16.27	14.07	....	....
3½ × 3	5/16	0.63	1.93	9.35	8.43	7.51	6.59	....	....	....
	⅜	0.62	2.30	11.07	9.96	8.84	7.74	....	....	....
	⅝	0.62	3.67	17.67	15.90	14.12	12.35	....	....	....
3½ × 2½	¼	0.54	1.44	6.52	5.72	4.92	....	....	....	....
	⅜	0.54	2.11	9.55	8.38	7.21	....	....	....	....
	½	0.53	2.75	12.34	10.78	9.22	....	....	....	....
3 × 2½	¼	0.53	1.31	5.88	5.13	4.39	....	....	....	....
	⅜	0.52	1.92	8.52	7.42	6.31	....	....	....	....
	½	0.52	2.50	11.10	9.66	8.22	....	....	....	....
3 × 2	¼	0.43	1.19	4.71	3.88	....	....	....	....	....
	⅜	0.43	1.73	6.85	5.64	....	....	....	....	....
	½	0.43	2.25	8.91	7.34	....	....	....	....	....
2½ × 2	¼	0.42	1.06	4.13	3.37	....	....	....	....	....
	⅜	0.42	1.55	6.03	4.93	....	....	....	....	....
	½	0.42	2.00	7.79	6.36	....	....	....	....	....

* This is the least radius of gyration with reference to the diagonal axis 3-3. (See Table XI, pages 362 to 365.)

Table XV (Continued). Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Single-Steel-Angle Struts

ANGLES WITH EQUAL LEGS

Stresses in pounds per square inch:
11 000 for lengths of 50 radii and under;
13 500 − 50 l/r for lengths over 50 radii

Size, in	Thickness, in	r axis 3-3,* in	Area, sq in	Length in feet						
				4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6 × 6	⅜	1.19	4.36	23.98	23.93	22.83	21.74	20.64	19.54	18.44
	⅝	1.18	7.11	39.10	38.96	37.14	35.35	33.54	31.72	29.93
	⅞	1.17	9.74	53.57	53.27	50.77	48.28	45.77	43.26	40.78
5 × 5	⅜	0.99	3.61	19.85	18.89	17.80	16.71	15.64	14.53	13.42
	⅝	0.97	5.86	32.23	30.50	28.68	26.86	25.06	23.24	21.43
	⅞	0.96	7.99	43.94	41.44	38.95	36.45	33.95	31.46	28.96
4 × 4	⅜	0.79	2.86	14.96	13.88	12.79	11.71	10.61	9.53	....
	½	0.78	3.75	19.54	18.10	16.65	15.22	13.78	12.33	...
	⅝	0.77	4.61	23.93	22.13	20.33	18.55	16.75	14.95	....
	¾	0.77	5.44	28.24	26.12	23.99	21.89	19.77	17.65	....
3½ × 3½	5/16	0.69	2.09	10.47	9.56	8.65	7.74	6.83	....	....
	½	0.68	3.25	16.20	14.77	13.34	11.90	10.47	....	....
	⅝	0.67	3.98	19.74	17.95	16.17	14.39	12.61	....	....
	¾	0.67	4.69	13.26	21.16	19.06	16.96	14.86	....	....
3 × 3	¼	0.59	1.44	6.79	6.06	5.32	4.59	....	....	....
	⅜	0.58	2.11	9.88	8.78	7.69	6.60	....	....	....
	½	0.58	2.75	12.87	11.45	10.03	8.60	....	....	....
	⅝	0.57	3.36	15.60	13.84	12.07	10.30	....	....	....
2½ × 2½	3/16	0.49	0.90	3.87	3.32	2.76	....	....	....	....
	¼	0.49	1.19	5.10	4.39	3.66	....	....	....	....
	⅜	0.48	1.73	7.35	6.27	5.19	....	....	....	....
	½	0.47	2.25	9.44	8.01	6.57	....	....	....	....
2¼ × 2¼	3/16	0.44	0.81	3.26	2.70	....	....	....	....	....
	¼	0.44	1.06	4.26	3.54	2.80	....	....	....	....
	⅜	0.43	1.55	6.13	5.05	3.95	....	....	....	....
	7/16	0.43	1.78	7.14	5.80	4.53	....	....	....	....
2 × 2	3/16	0.40	0.72	2.70	2.16	....	....	....	....	....
	¼	0.39	0.94	3.45	2.72	2.00	....	....	....	....

---

* This is the least radius of gyration, with reference to the diagonal axis 3-3. (See Table XII, pages 366 and 367.)

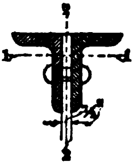
Table XVI. Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Double-Steel-Angle Struts

LONG LEGS PARALLEL AND ONE-HALF INCH APART

Stresses in pounds per square inch:

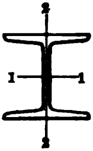
11 000 for lengths of 50 radii and under;

13 500 − 50 l/r for lengths over 50 radii



Size, in	Thickness, in	Least r, in	Area two angles, sq in	Length in feet						
				5	6	7	8	10	11	12
8 ×6	½	2.49	13.52	74.36	74.36	74.36	74.36	74.36	73.34	71.72
	1	2.65	26.82	147.51	147.51	147.51	147.51	147.51	147.51	144.62
6 ×4	⅜	1.67	7.22	39.71	39.71	39.65	38.35	35.77	34.47	33.14
	13/16	1.74	14.94	82.17	82.17	82.17	80.26	75.07	72.50	69.91
6 ×3½	⅜	1.43	6.84	37.62	37.57	36.13	34.69	31.82	30.38	29.00
	½	1.46	9.00	49.50	49.50	47.81	45.97	42.27	40.41	38.56
	⅝	1.49	11.10	61.05	61.05	59.27	57.05	52.51	50.29	48.07
	13/16	1.52	14.12	77.66	77.66	75.82	73.03	67.42	64.65	61.88
5 ×4	⅜	1.59	6.46	35.53	35.53	35.07	33.86	31.41	30.20	28.99
	¾	1.54	12.38	68.09	68.09	66.69	64.28	59.45	57.04	54.62
5 ×3½	⅜	1.51	6.10	33.55	33.55	32.70	31.49	29.05	27.84	26.64
	¾	1.55	11.62	63.91	63.91	62.69	60.45	55.95	53.71	51.44
5 ×3	⅜	1.27	5.72	31.46	30.50	29.15	27.80	25.09	23.75	22.39
	½	1.30	7.50	41.25	40.23	38.51	36.78	33.32	31.59	29.85
	⅝	1.33	9.22	50.71	49.76	47.69	45.59	41.40	39.30	37.29
	¾	1.36	10.88	59.84	58.94	56.63	54.23	49.42	47.05	44.66
4 ×3½	⅜	1.25	5.34	29.37	28.35	27.07	25.79	23.23	21.94	20.66
	¾	1.20	10.12	55.66	53.13	50.60	48.07	43.01	40.48	39.95
4 ×3	⅜	1.26	4.96	27.28	26.28	25.12	24.00	21.64	20.49	19.30
	¾	1.22	9.38	51.59	49.47	47.18	44.85	40.24	37.94	35.64
3½×3½	¼	1.12	2.88	15.58	14.81	14.03	13.26	11.72	10.95	10.18
	⅜	1.10	4.22	22.73	21.59	20.42	19.28	16.97	15.82	14.67
	½	1.09	5.50	29.56	28.05	26.53	25.02	21.98	20.47	18.96
	11/16	1.06	7.30	38.92	36.86	34.78	32.74	28.58	26.51	24.43
3 ×2	¼	0.93	2.38	12.22	11.45	10.69	9.92	8.39	7.62	....
	½	0.92	4.50	23.04	21.58	20.10	18.64	15.70	14.23	....
2½×2	3/16	0.79	1.62	7.86	7.24	6.63	6.01	....	....	....
	½	0.75	4.00	19.00	17.40	15.80	14.20	....	....	....
2 ×2	3/16	0.62	1.44	6.22	5.54	4.82	4.13	....	....	....
2 ×2	¼	0.61	1.88	8.08	7.14	6.20	5.26	....	....	....

Table XVII.* Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Steel-Beam Columns



Allowable fiber-stress in pounds per square inch: 13 000 for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include details

Effective length, ft	Depth and weight of sections						
	H beams				I beams		
	8-in 34-lb	6-in 23.8-lb	5-in 18.7-lb	4-in 13.6-lb	15-in 42-lb	12-in 31½-lb	10-in 25-lb
2	130.0	91.0	71.5	52.0	162.2	120.4	95.8
3	130.0	91.0	71.5	52.0	162.2	120.4	95.8
4	130.0	91.0	71.5	52.0	162.2	120.4	95.8
5	130.0	91.0	71.5	50.7	162.2	120.4	94.4
6	130.0	91.0	71.5	45.7	153.9	109.9	85.3
7	130.0	91.0	66.0	40.6	140.1	98.9	76.2
8	130.0	86.7	60.5	35.6	126.2	87.9	67.1
9	130.0	80.9	55.0	30.5	112.3	76.9	58.0
10	125.8	75.1	49.5	26.7	98.5	65.9	50.2
11	119.4	69.3	44.0	24.2	86.0	59.9	45.7
12	113.0	63.5	38.5	21.7	79.0	54.4	41.1
13	106.6	57.7	35.8	19.2	72.1	48.9	36.5
14	100.2	51.9	33.0	16.6	65.2	43.4	32.0
15	93.8	47.6	30.3	14.1	58.2	37.9	27.4
16	87.3	44.7	27.5	....	51.3	32.4	22.9
17	80.9	41.8	24.8	....	44.4	26.9	....
18	74.5	38.9	22.0	....	37.4	....	....
19	69.0	36.0	19.3	....	....	....	....
20	65.8	33.1	16.5	....	....	....	....
21	62.6	30.2	....	....	....	....	....
22	59.4	27.3	....	....	....	....	....
23	56.2	24.4	....	....	....	....	....
24	53.0	21.5	....	....	....	....	....
25	49.8	....	....	....	....	....	....
26	46.6	....	....	....	....	....	....
27	43.4	....	....	....	....	....	....
28	40.2	....	....	....	....	....	....
29	37.0	....	....	....	....	....	....
30	33.7	....	....	....	....	....	....
31	30.5	....	....	....	....	....	....
Area, sq in	10.00	7.00	5.50	4.00	12.48	9.26	7.37
I_{1-1}, in.^{4}....	115.4	45.1	23.8	10.7	441.8	215.8	122.1
r_{1-1}, in......	3.40	2.54	2.08	1.63	5.95	4.83	4.07
I_{2-2}, in.^{4}.....	35.1	14.7	7.9	3.6	14.6	9.5	6.9
r_{2-2}, in......	1.87	1.45	1.20	0.95	1.08	1.01	0.97
Weight, lb per lin ft	34	23.8	18.7	13.6	42	31½	25

Safe load-values above the upper heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those between the heavy lines for ratios up to 120 l/r; and those below the lower heavy line are for ratios not over 200 l/r

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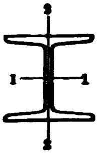
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XVII * (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Steel-Beam Columns



Allowable fiber-stress in pounds per square inch: 13 000 for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

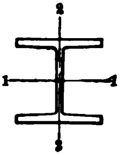
Weights do not include details

Effective length, ft	Depth and weight of sections					
	I beams					
	9-in 21-lb	8-in 18-lb	7-in 15-lb	6-in 12¼-lb	5-in 9¾-lb	4-in 7½-lb
2	82.0	69.3	57.5	46.9	37.3	28.7
3	82.0	69.3	57.5	46.9	37.3	28.5
4	82.0	69.3	56.8	44.5	33.3	24.0
5	77.8	63.2	50.0	38.5	28.0	19.5
6	69.4	55.6	43.2	32.5	22.7	15.2
7	61.0	48.0	36.4	26.5	18.8	13.0
8	52.6	40.4	30.3	22.9	16.1	10.8
9	44.2	35.0	26.9	19.9	13.5	8.5
10	40.0	31.2	23.5	16.8	10.8	....
11	35.8	27.4	20.1	13.8	....	....
12	31.5	23.6	16.7	10.8	....	....
13	27.3	19.8	13.3	....	....	....
14	23.1	16.0	....	....	....	....
15	18.9	....	....	....	....	....
16	....	....	....	....	....	....
17	....	....	....	....	....	....
18	....	....	....	....	....	....
19	....	....	....	....	....	....
20	....	....	....	....	....	....
21	....	....	....	....	....	....
22	....	....	....	....	....	....
23	....	....	....	....	....	....
24	....	....	....	....	....	....
25	....	....	....	....	....	....
26	....	....	....	....	....	....
27	....	....	....	....	....	....
28	....	....	....	....	....	....
29	....	....	....	....	....	....
30	....	....	....	....	....	....
31	....	....	....	....	....	....
Area, sq in	6.31	5.33	4.42	3.61	2.87	2.21
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	84.9	56.9	36.2	21.8	12.1	6.0
r_{1-1}, in.....	3.67	3.27	2.86	2.46	2.05	1.64
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	5.2	3.8	2.7	1.9	1.2	0.77
r_{2-2}, in.....	0.90	0.84	0.78	0.72	0.65	0.59
Weight, lb per lin ft	21	18	15	12¼	9¾	7½

Safe load-values above the upper heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those between the heavy lines for ratios up to 120 l/r; and those below the lower heavy line are for ratios not over 200 l/r

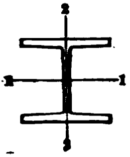
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XVIII. Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Bethlehem Rolled-Steel 8-Inch H Columns with Square Ends

Unsupported length, ft	 Allowable stress in pounds per square inch: 13 000 for lengths under 55 radii; 16 000 − 55 l/r for lengths over 55 radii						
8	59.7	66.1	74.8	83.4	92.2	101.0	109 9
9	59.7	66.1	74.8	83.4	92.2	101.0	109.9
10	58.1	64.7	73.3	81.9	90.6	99.5	108.4
11	56.5	63.0	71.4	79.8	88.3	97.0	105 7
12	55.0	61 3	69.6	77.7	86.1	94.5	103 0
13	53.5	59.7	67.7	75.7	83.8	92.1	100 3
14	52.0	58.0	65.8	73.6	81.5	89.6	97.7
15	50.4	56.3	64.0	71.5	79.2	87.1	95.0
16	48.9	54.6	62.1	69.4	76.9	84.6	92.3
17	47.4	53.0	60.2	67.4	74.6	82 2	89 6
18	45.9	51.3	58.4	65.3	72.4	79 7	86 9
20	42.8	48.0	54.6	61.1	67.8	74.7	81.6
22	39.7	44.6	50.9	57.0	63.2	69.8	76.2
24	36.7	41.3	47.1	52.8	58.7	64.8	70.9
26	....	38.0	43.4	48.7	54.1	59.9	65.5
Area, sq in	9.17	10.17	11.50	12.83	14.18	15.53	16.90
I_{1-1}, in⁴.....	105.7	121.5	139.5	158.3	177.7	197.8	218 6
r_{1-1}, in.....	3.40	3.46	3.48	3.51	3.54	3.57	3 60
I_{2-2}, in⁴.....	35.8	41.1	47.2	53.4	59.8	66.3	73.1
r_{2-2}, in.....	1.98	2.01	2.03	2.04	2.05	2.07	2.08
Weight of section, lb per lin ft	32.0	34.5	39.0	43.5	48.0	53.0	57 5

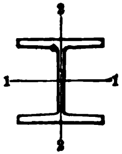
Loads below the heavy line are for lengths greater than 125 radii

ble XVIII (Continued). Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Bethlehem Rolled-Steel 8-Inch H Columns with Square Ends

supported length, ft	 Allowable stress in pounds per square inch: 13 000 for lengths under 55 radii; 16 000 − 55 l/r for lengths over 55 radii						
8	118.8	127.8	136.8	146.0	154.6	163.8	173.2
9	118.8	127.8	136.8	146.0	154.6	163.8	173.2
10	117.3	126.5	135.6	144.9	153.6	163.1	172.6
11	114.4	123.5	132.4	141.4	149.9	159.3	168.6
12	111.5	120.4	129.1	137.9	146.2	155.4	164.5
13	108.7	117.3	125.8	134.4	142.6	151.6	160.5
14	105.8	114.2	122.5	131.0	138.9	147.7	156.4
15	102.9	111.2	119.2	127.5	135.2	143.9	152.4
16	100.0	108.1	116.0	124.0	131.6	140.0	148.3
17	97.1	105.0	112.7	120.5	127.9	136.1	144.3
18	94.2	101.9	109.4	117.0	124.2	132.3	140.2
20	88.5	95.8	102.9	110.1	116.9	124.6	132.1
22	82.7	89.6	96.3	103.1	109.6	116.9	124.0
24	76.9	83.5	89.8	96.2	102.2	109.2	115.9
26	71.2	77.3	83.2	89.2	94.9	101.5	107.8
sq in	18.27	19.66	21.05	22.46	23.78	25.20	26.64
in^4	240.2	262.5	285.6	309.5	333.5	359.0	385.3
in	3.63	3.65	3.68	3.71	3.75	3.77	3.80
in^4	80.0	87.1	94.4	101.9	109.2	117.2	125.1
in	2.09	2.11	2.12	2.13	2.14	2.16	2.17
ight section, per lin ft	62.0	67.0	71.5	76.5	81.0	85.5	90.5

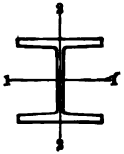
Loads below the heavy line are for lengths greater than 125 radii

Table XIX. Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Bethlehem Rolled-Steel 10-Inch H Columns with Square Ends

Unsupported length, ft	 Allowable stress in pounds per square inch: 13000 for lengths under 55 radii; 16 000 − 55 l/r for lengths over 55 radii						
10	93.5	103.4	114.2	125.0	135.9	146.8	157.9
11	93.5	103.4	114.2	125.0	135.9	146.8	157.9
12	92.1	102.2	113.1	123.9	134.9	145.9	157.0
13	90.2	100.1	110.8	121.4	132.2	143.0	153.9
14	88.3	98.0	108.5	118.9	129.5	140.1	150.8
15	86.3	95.9	106.2	116.4	126.9	137.2	147.7
16	84.5	93.8	103.9	113.9	124.2	134.3	144.6
18	80.7	89.6	99.3	108.9	118.8	128.5	138.4
20	76.9	85.4	94.7	103.9	113.4	122.7	132.2
22	73.1	81.3	90.1	98.9	108.0	116.9	126.0
24	69.3	77.1	85.6	93.9	102.6	111.1	119.8
26	65.4	72.9	81.0	88.9	97.2	105.3	113.5
28	61.6	68.7	76.4	83.9	91.8	99.5	107.3
30	57.8	64.5	71.8	78.9	86.4	93.7	101.1
32	54.0	60.3	67.2	73.9	80.1	87.9	94.9
Area, sq in	14.37	15.91	17.57	19.23	20.91	22.59	24.29
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	263.5	296.8	331.9	368.0	405.2	443.6	483.0
r_{1-1}, in.....	4.28	4.32	4.35	4.37	4.40	4.43	4.46
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	89.1	100.4	112.2	124.2	136.5	149.1	162.0
r_{2-2}, in.....	2.49	2.51	2.53	2.54	2.56	2.57	2.58
Weight of section, lb per lin ft	49.0	54.0	59.5	65.5	71.0	77.0	82.5

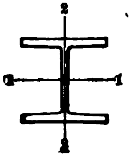
Loads below the heavy line are for lengths greater than 125 radii

Table XIX (Continued). Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Bethlehem Rolled-Steel 10-Inch H Columns with Square Ends

Unsupported length, ft	 Allowable stress in pounds per square inch: 13 000 for lengths under 55 radii; 16 000 − 55 l/r for lengths over 55 radii						
10	168.9	180.1	190.6	201.9	213.2	224.6	236.1
11	168.9	180.1	190.6	201.9	213.2	224.6	236.1
12	168.3	179.6	190.2	201.9	213.2	224.6	236.1
13	165.0	176.1	186.6	198.0	209.3	220.7	232.2
14	161.7	172.6	182.9	194.1	205.2	216.4	227.7
15	158.4	169.1	179.2	190.3	201.2	212.1	223.2
16	155.1	165.6	175.5	186.4	197.0	207.8	218.7
18	148.5	158.6	168.1	178.6	188.9	199.2	209.8
20	142.0	151.6	160.7	170.8	180.7	190.7	200.8
22	135.4	144.6	153.3	163.1	172.5	182.1	191.8
24	128.8	137.6	145.9	155.3	164.4	173.5	182.8
26	122.2	130.6	138.5	147.5	156.2	165.0	173.8
28	115.6	123.6	131.2	139.8	148.0	156.4	164.9
30	109.0	116.6	123.8	132.0	139.9	147.8	155.9
32	102.4	109.6	116.4	124.2	131.7	139.2	146.9
Area, sq in	25.99	27.71	29.32	31.06	32.80	34.55	36.32
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	523.5	565.2	607.0	651.0	696.2	742.7	790.4
r_{1-1}, in.....	4.49	4.52	4.55	4.58	4.61	4.64	4.67
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	175.1	188.6	201.7	215.6	229.9	244.4	259.3
r_{2-2}, in.....	2.60	2.61	2.62	2.64	2.65	2.66	2.67
Weight of section, lb per lin ft	88.5	94.0	99.5	105.5	111.5	117.5	123.5

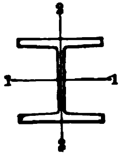
Loads below the heavy line are for lengths greater than 125 radii

Table XX. Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Bethlehem Rolled-Steel 12-Inch H Columns with Square Ends

Unsupported length, ft	 Allowable stress in pounds per square inch: 13 000 for lengths under 55 radii; 16 000 − 55 l/r for lengths over 55 radii							
10	123.5	136.2	149.1	162.0	175.0	188.0	201.1	214.2
12	123.5	136.2	149.1	162.0	175.0	188.0	201.1	214.2
14	122.5	135.4	148.3	161.4	174.5	187.7	201.0	214.2
16	118.3	130.8	143.3	155.9	168.6	181.5	194.3	207.2
18	114.1	126.2	138.3	150.5	162.8	175.2	187.7	200.1
20	109.9	121.6	133.2	145.1	156.9	169.0	181.0	193.1
22	105.7	117.0	128.2	139.7	151.1	162.8	174.4	186.0
24	101.5	112.4	123.2	134.2	145.2	156.5	167.7	178.9
26	97.3	107.8	118.1	128.8	139.4	150.3	161.1	171.9
28	93.1	103.1	113.1	123.4	133.5	144.0	154.4	164.8
30	88.9	98.5	108.1	117.9	127.7	137.8	147.8	157.7
32	84.7	93.9	103.0	112.5	121.9	131.6	141.1	150.7
34	80.5	89.3	98.0	107.1	116.0	125.3	134.4	143.6
36	76.3	84.7	93.0	101.7	110.2	119.1	127.8	136.6
38	......	......	......	......	104.3	112.8	121.1	129.5
Area, sq in	19.00	20.96	22.94	24.92	26.92	28.92	30.91	32.96
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	499.0	556.6	615.6	676.1	738.1	801.7	866.8	933.4
r_{1-1}, in.....	5.13	5.15	5.18	5.21	5.24	5.27	5.30	5.33
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	168.6	188.2	208.1	228.5	249.2	270.1	291.7	313.6
r_{2-2}, in.....	2.98	3.00	3.01	3.03	3.04	3.06	3.07	3.08
Weight of section, lb per lin ft	64.5	71.5	78.0	84.5	91.5	98.5	105.0	112.0

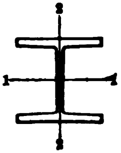
Loads below the heavy line are for lengths greater than 125 radii

Table XX (Continued). Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Bethlehem Rolled-Steel 12-Inch H Columns with Square Ends

Unsupported length, ft	 Allowable stress in pounds per square inch: 13 000 for lengths under 55 radii; 16 000 − 55 l/r for lengths over 55 radii						
10	226.7	239.9	253.3	266.7	280.2	293.7	307.3
12	226.7	239.9	253.3	266.7	280.2	293.7	307.3
14	226.7	239.9	253.3	266.7	280.2	293.7	307.3
16	219.6	232.6	246.0	259.3	272.6	286.0	299.7
18	212.1	224.8	237.8	250.6	263.5	276.6	289.9
20	204.7	217.0	229.6	242.0	254.5	267.1	280.1
22	197.3	209.1	221.4	233.4	245.5	257.7	270.3
24	189.9	201.3	213.2	224.8	236.4	248.3	260.5
26	182.5	193.5	204.9	216.1	227.4	238.8	250.7
28	175.0	185.6	196.7	207.5	218.4	229.4	240.9
30	167.6	177.8	188.5	198.9	209.3	219.9	231.0
32	160.2	170.0	180.3	190.3	200.3	210.5	221.2
34	152.8	162.1	172.1	181.6	191.3	201.1	211.4
36	145.3	154.3	163.9	173.0	182.3	191.6	201.6
38	137.9	146.5	155.6	164.4	173.2	182.2	191.8
Area, sq in	34.87	36.91	38.97	41.03	43.10	45.19	47.28
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	1 000.0	1 069.8	1 141.3	1 214.5	1 289.4	1 366.0	1 444.3
r_{1-1}, in.....	5.36	5.38	5.41	5.44	5.47	5.50	5.63
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	335.0	357.7	380.7	404.1	428.0	452.2	477.0
r_{2-2}, in.....	3.10	3.11	3.13	3.14	3.15	3.16	3.18
Weight of section, lb per lin ft	118.5	125.5	132.5	139.5	146.5	153.5	161.0

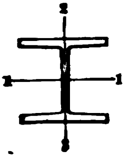
Loads below the heavy line are for lengths greater than 125 radii

Table XXI. Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Bethlehem Rolled-Steel 14-Inch H Columns with Square Ends

Unsupported length, ft	 Allowable stress in pounds per square inch: 13 000 for lengths under 55 radii; 16 000 − 55 l/r for lengths over 55 radii						
10	159.0	173.9	188.9	204.0	219.1	234.3	249.5
12	159.0	173.9	188.9	204.0	219.1	234.3	249.5
14	159.0	173.9	188.9	204.0	219.1	234.3	249.5
16	158.5	173.9	188.6	204.0	219.1	234.3	249.5
18	153.8	168.5	183.2	198.1	212.9	228.0	243.0
20	149.2	163.4	177.7	192.2	206.6	221.3	235.9
22	144.5	158.4	172.2	186.3	200.3	214.6	228.8
24	139.9	153.3	166.7	180.4	194.0	207.9	221.7
26	135.2	148.2	161.2	174.6	187.7	201.2	214.5
28	130.5	143.2	155.8	168.7	181.4	194.5	207.4
30	125.9	138.1	150.3	162.8	175.1	187.8	200.3
32	121.2	133.1	144.8	156.9	168.8	181.1	193.2
36	111.9	122.9	133.8	145.1	156.2	167.7	179.0
40	102.6	112.8	122.9	133.4	143.6	154.3	164.7
44	....	....	111.9	121.6	131.0	140.9	150.5
Area, sq in	24.46	26.76	29.06	31.38	33.70	36.04	38.38
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	884.9	976.8	1 070.6	1 166.6	1 264.5	1 364.6	1 466.7
r_{1-1}, in......	6.01	6.04	6.07	6.10	6.13	6.16	6.18
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	294.5	325.4	356.9	387.8	420.3	453.4	486.9
r_{2-2}, in.....	3.47	3.49	3.50	3.52	3.53	3.55	3.56
Weight of section, lb per lin ft	83.5	91.0	99.0	106.5	114.5	122.5	130.5

Loads below the heavy line are for lengths greater than 125 radii

ble XXI (Continued). Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Bethlehem Rolled-Steel 14-Inch H Columns with Square Ends

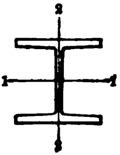


Allowable stress in pounds per square inch:
13 000 for lengths under 55 radii;
16 000 − 55 *l*/*r* for lengths over 55 radii

pported length, ft						
10	263.8	279.2	294.7	310.1	325.7	341.3
12	263.8	279.2	294.7	310.1	325.7	341.3
14	263.8	279.2	294.7	310.1	325.7	341.3
16	263.8	279.2	294.7	310.1	325.7	341.3
18	257.4	272.5	288.1	303.4	319.0	334.6
20	249.9	264.6	279.8	294.7	309.9	325.1
22	242.4	256.7	271.5	286.0	300.8	315.6
24	234.9	248.9	263.2	277.3	291.7	306.1
26	227.4	241.0	254.9	268.6	282.6	296.6
28	220.0	233.1	246.6	259.9	273.5	287.1
30	212.5	225.2	238.3	251.2	264.4	277.6
32	205.0	217.3	230.0	242.5	255.3	268.1
36	190.0	201.5	213.5	225.1	237.1	249.1
40	175.1	185.7	196.9	207.7	218.9	230.1
44	160.1	170.0	180.3	190.3	200.7	211.1
a, sq in	40.59	42.95	45.33	47.71	50.11	52.51
in^4.....	1 568.4	1 674.7	1 783.3	1 894.0	2 007.0	2 122.3
in.....	6.21	6.24	6.27	6.30	6.33	6.36
in^4....	519.7	554.4	589.5	626.1	662.3	699.0
in.....	3.58	3.59	3.61	3.62	3.64	3.65
eight section, er lin ft	138.0	146.0	154.0	162.0	170.5	178.5

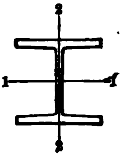
Loads below the heavy line are for lengths greater than 125 radii

Table XXI (Continued). Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Bet lehem Rolled-Steel 14-Inch H Columns with Square Ends

Unsupported length, ft	 Allowable stress in pounds per square inch 13 000 for lengths under 55 radii; 16 000 − 55 l/r for lengths over 55 radii						
10	357.0	372.8	388.6	403.5	419.4	435.4	45
12	357.0	372.8	388.6	403.5	419.4	435.4	45
14	357.0	372.8	388.6	403.5	419.4	435.4	45
16	357.0	372.8	388.6	403.5	419.4	435.4	45
18	350.3	366.1	381.9	396.9	412.9	429.0	44
20	340.4	355.8	371.2	385.8	410.5	417.2	43
22	330.5	345.5	360.5	374.8	390.0	405.3	42
24	320.6	335.2	349.8	363.7	378.5	393.4	408
26	310.7	324.9	339.1	352.6	367.1	381.6	396
28	300.8	314.6	328.4	341.6	355.6	369.7	383
30	290.9	304.3	317.7	330.5	344.1	357.8	371
32	281.0	294.0	307.0	319.4	332.6	345.9	35
36	261.2	273.4	285.6	297.3	309.7	322.2	33
40	241.4	252.8	264.2	275.1	286.8	298.5	31
44	221.6	232.2	242.8	253.0	263.8	274.8	28
Area, sq in	54.92	57.35	59.78	62.07	64.52	66.98	69
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	2 239.8	2 359.7	2 481.9	2 603.3	2 730.2	2 859.6	2 99
r_{1-1}, in....	6.39	6.41	6.44	6.48	6.51	6.53	6
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	736.3	744.2	812.6	849.8	889.3	929.4	9
r_{2-2}, in.....	3.66	3.67	3.69	3.70	3.71	3.73	[illegible]
Weight of section, lb per lin ft	186.5	195.0	203.5	211.0	219.5	227.5	[illegible]

Loads below the heavy line are for lengths greater than 125 radii

Table XXI (Continued). Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Bethlehem Rolled-Steel 14-Inch H Columns with Square Ends

Unsupported length, ft	 Allowable stress in pounds per square inch: 13 000 for lengths under 55 radii; 16 000 − 55 l/r for lengths over 55 radii					
10	467.6	483.8	500.0	516.4	532.8	549.3
12	467.6	483.8	500.0	516.4	532.8	549.3
14	467.6	483.8	500.0	516.4	532.8	549.3
16	467.6	483.8	500.0	516.4	532.8	549.3
18	461.5	477.9	494.4	510.9	527.6	544.3
20	448.9	464.8	480.9	497.0	513.3	529.6
22	436.2	451.8	467.4	483.2	499.1	515.0
24	423.6	438.7	454.0	469.3	484.8	500.4
26	410.9	425.7	440.5	455.5	470.6	485.7
28	398.2	412.6	427.1	441.6	456.3	471.1
30	385.6	399.6	413.6	427.8	442.1	456.4
32	372.9	386.5	400.2	413.9	427.8	441.8
36	347.6	360.4	373.3	386.3	399.4	412.5
40	322.2	334.3	346.4	358.6	370.9	383.3
44	296.9	308.1	319.5	330.9	342.4	354.0
Area, sq in	71.94	74.43	76.93	79.44	81.97	84.50
I_{1-1}, in^4	3 125.8	3 262.7	3 402.1	3 544.1	3 688.8	3 836.1
r_{1-1}, in	6.59	6.62	6.65	6.68	6.71	6.74
I_{2-2}, in^4	1 011.3	1 053.2	1 095.6	1 138.7	1 182.4	1 226.7
r_{2-2}, in	3.75	3.76	3.77	3.79	3.80	3.81
Weight of section, lb per lin ft	244.5	253.0	261.5	270.0	278.5	287.5

Loads below the heavy line are for lengths greater than 125 radii

Table XXII. Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Light-Weight Lally Columns

Factor of safety = 4

Calculated by the New York building code formula, $S = 15\,200 - 58\,l/r$

Outside diameter, in	Length of column in feet										
	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
3	6	6	5	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
3½	9	9	8	8	7	....	....	....	....	....	...
4	13	13	12	12	11	10	....	....	....	....	....
4½	14	14	13	13	12	11	10	....	....	....	....
5	20	20	19	19	18	18	17	17	16	....	....
6	28	28	27	27	26	26	25	24	23	23	22

Table XXIII. Safe Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Heavy-Weight Lally Columns

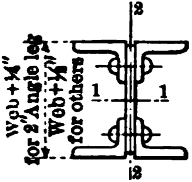
Factor of safety = 4

These loads can be greatly increased by reinforcing the concrete

Calculated by the New York building code formula, $S = 15\,200 - 58\,l/r$

Outside diameter, in	Weight per linear foot, lb	Length of columns in feet							
		6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20
2⅞	10	8	7	6	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
3½	15	12	11	10	9	.....	.....	.....	.....
4	20	16	15	14	12	11	.....	.....	.....
4½	24	20	18	17	16	15	.....	.....	.....
5	29	27	26	24	22	21	19	.....	.....
5½	36	32	31	29	28	26	24	22	.....
6⅝	49	45	43	41	40	38	35	34	32
7⅝	64	58	56	54	52	51	49	46	44
8⅝	81	74	72	69	67	65	62	60	57
9⅝	100	93	89	87	85	82	79	77	75
10¾	123	111	109	107	104	101	99	96	93
11¾	146	131	128	124	122	119	117	113	111
12¾	169	150	146	144	141	139	135	133	130

Table XXIV.* Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Plate-and-Angle Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Web-plate 6"×¼"			Web-plate 8"×¼"			
	4 angles 2½"×2"×¼"	4 angles 3"×2"×¼"	4 angles 3"×2½"×¼"	4 angles 3"×2½"×¼"	4 angles 3"×2½"×5/16"	4 angles 3½"×2½"×¼"	4 angles 3½"×2½"×5/16"
6	69	81	88	94	110	101	119
7	63	78	82	86	103	101	119
8	56	72	76	79	95	96	115
9	49	66	69	72	87	89	107
10	43	60	63	65	78	83	100
11	38	54	56	57	70	76	92
12	35	49	50	50	62	70	85
13	32	43	45	47	56	63	78
14	28	40	42	43	52	57	70
15	25	37	39	39	48	52	63
16	22	34	35	36	44	49	60
17	18	32	32	32	40	46	56
18	....	29	29	28	36	43	52
19	....	26	26	25	32	39	49
20	....	23	22	....	28	36	45
21	....	20	....	....	....	33	41
22	....	....	....	....	....	30	38
23	....	....	....	....	....	27	34
24	....	....	....	....	....	23	30
25	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
26	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
27	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
28	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
29	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
30	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Area, sq in	5.74	6.26	6.74	7.24	8.48	7.76	9.12
I_{1-1}, in⁴.....	34.3	39.1	42.6	81.2	96.9	90.1	107
r_{1-1}, in.....	2.45	2.50	2.51	3.35	3.38	3.41	3.43
I_{2-2}, in⁴.....	6.2	10.3	10.3	10.3	12.9	16.0	20.2
r_{2-2}, in.....	1.04	1.28	1.24	1.19	1.23	1.44	1.49
Weight, lb per lin ft..	19.6	21.5	23.1	24.8	29.2	26.4	31.2

The safe load-values above the upper heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those between the heavy lines are for ratios up to 120 l/r; and those below the lower heavy line are for ratios not over 200 l/r

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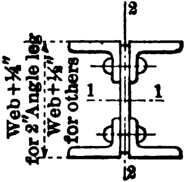
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXIV* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Plate-and-Angle Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Web-plate 8″×5⁄16″			Web-plate 8″×3⁄8″			
	4 angles 3½″×2½″×5⁄16″	4 angles 3½″×2½″×3⁄8″	4 angles 4″×3″×5⁄16″	4 angles 4″×3″×3⁄8″	4 angles 4″×3″×3⁄8″	4 angles 4″×3″×7⁄16″	4 angles 4″×3″×½″
6	125	142	141	161	168	188	208
7	125	142	141	161	168	188	208
8	120	138	141	161	168	188	208
9	112	130	136	158	163	185	206
10	104	121	128	149	154	175	196
11	96	112	121	140	145	165	185
12	89	104	113	131	136	155	174
13	81	95	105	123	127	145	163
14	73	86	97	114	118	135	152
15	66	77	89	105	109	124	141
16	62	73	81	97	100	114	130
17	58	68	75	88	90	104	120
18	54	64	71	83	86	98	110
19	50	60	67	79	81	93	105
20	47	55	63	74	77	88	100
21	43	51	59	70	72	83	94
22	39	47	55	66	68	78	89
23	35	42	51	61	63	73	83
24	31	38	48	57	59	68	78
25	....	34	44	53	54	63	72
26	....	....	40	48	49	58	67
27	....	....	36	44	45	53	62
28	....	....	....	39	40	48	56
29	....	....	....	....	....	....	51
30	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Area, sq in	9.62	10.94	10.86	12.42	12.92	14.48	16.00
I_{1-1}, in⁴.....	110	127	122	141	143	161	178
r_{1-1}, in.....	3.38	3.40	3.35	3.36	3.33	3.34	3.33
I_{2-2}, in⁴.....	20.7	24.9	30.3	36.3	37.2	43.5	50.2
r_{2-2}, in.....	1.47	1.51	1.67	1.71	1.70	1.73	1.77
Weight, lb per lin ft..	32.9	37.3	37.3	42.5	44.2	49.4	54.6

The safe load-values above the upper heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those between the heavy lines are for ratios up to 120 l/r; and those below the lower heavy line are for ratios not over 200 l/r

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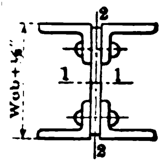
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXIV[*] (Continued). **Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Plate-and-Angle Columns**



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13).

$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Web-plate 10"×¼"			Web-plate 10"×5/16"			Web-plate 10"×⅜"		
	4 angles 3"×2½"×¼"	4 angles 3½"×2½"×¼"	4 angles 3½"×2½"×5/16"	4 angles 3½"×2½"×5/16"	4 angles 4"×3"×5/16"	4 angles 4"×3"×⅜"	4 angles 4"×3"×⅜"	4 angles 4"×3"×7/16	4 angles 5"×3½"×⅜"
6	99	107	125	133	149	170	178	198	207
7	91	107	125	133	149	170	178	198	207
8	82	100	119	125	149	170	178	198	207
9	74	93	111	117	142	164	170	192	207
10	66	86	103	108	133	154	160	181	207
11	58	79	95	99	125	145	150	170	203
12	52	71	87	91	116	135	140	160	194
13	48	64	79	82	108	126	130	149	185
14	44	57	71	73	99	117	121	138	175
15	40	54	65	68	91	107	111	127	166
16	36	50	61	64	82	98	101	116	157
17	32	47	57	60	77	90	93	106	148
18	28	43	53	55	73	85	88	101	139
19	24	40	49	51	69	81	83	95	130
20	.....	36	45	47	64	76	78	90	121
21	.....	33	41	42	60	71	73	84	112
22	.....	29	37	38	56	67	68	79	107
23	.....	25	34	34	51	62	63	74	103
24	.....	.....	30	.....	47	57	58	68	98
25	.....	.....	.....	.....	43	52	53	63	93
26	.....	.....	.....	.....	39	48	48	57	89
27	.....	.....	.....	.....	34	43	43	52	84
28	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	47	80
29	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	75
30	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	71
Area, sq in	7.74	8.26	9.62	10.25	11.49	13.05	13.67	15.23	15.95
I_{1-1}, in⁴	134	148	176	181	201	232	237	267	279
r_{1-1}, in	4.16	4.23	4.28	4.20	4.18	4.22	4.17	4.19	4.18
I_{2-2}, in⁴	10.3	16.0	20.2	20.7	30.3	36.3	37.2	43.5	70.6
r_{2-2}, in	1.15	1.39	1.45	1.42	1.62	1.67	1.65	1.69	2.10
Weight, lb per lin ft ..	26.5	28.1	32.9	35.0	39.4	44.6	46.8	52.0	54.4

The safe load-values above the upper heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those between the heavy lines are for ratios up to 120 l/r; and those below the lower heavy line are for ratios not over 200 l/r

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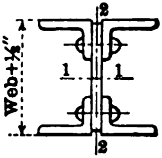
[*] **From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.**

Table XXIV* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Plate-and-Angle Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\, l/r$$

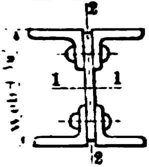
Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Web-plate 10″×⅜″				Web-plate 10″×½″			Web-pl. 10″×⅝″
	4 angles 5″×3½″×7⁄16	4 angles 6″×4″×⅜″	4 angles 6″×4″×7⁄16″	4 angles 6″×4″×½″	4 angles 6″×4″×½″	4 angles 6″×4″×9⁄16	4 angles 6″×4″×⅝″	4 angles 6″×4″×⅝″
6	232	236	266	296	312	341	370	386
7	232	236	266	296	312	341	370	386
8	232	236	266	296	312	341	370	386
9	232	236	266	296	312	341	370	386
10	232	236	266	296	312	341	370	386
11	230	236	266	296	312	341	370	386
12	220	236	266	296	312	341	370	386
13	210	235	266	296	312	341	370	386
14	200	226	257	288	302	333	363	378
15	190	218	248	278	291	321	350	365
16	180	209	238	267	280	309	337	351
17	170	201	229	257	269	297	325	338
18	160	192	220	247	258	285	312	325
19	150	184	210	237	247	274	299	312
20	140	175	201	226	236	262	287	298
21	130	167	191	216	225	250	274	285
22	123	158	182	206	214	238	261	272
23	118	150	172	195	203	226	249	258
24	113	141	163	185	192	214	236	245
25	108	132	154	175	181	203	223	232
26	103	126	144	164	170	191	210	218
27	98	121	139	157	164	181	198	207
28	93	117	134	152	158	175	192	200
29	88	113	130	146	153	169	186	193
30	83	109	125	141	147	164	179	187
Area, sq in	17.87	18.19	20.47	22.75	24.00	26.24	28.44	29.69
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	315	319	361	401	412	451	489	500
r_{1-1}, in.....	4.20	4.19	4.20	4.20	4.14	4.15	4.15	4.10
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	82.3	119	139	160	165	186	206	213
r_{2-2}, in.....	2.15	2.56	2.61	2.65	2.62	2.66	2.69	2.68
Weight, lb per lin ft..	60.8	62.0	70.0	77.6	81.8	89.4	97.0	101.3

The safe load-values above the upper heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those between the heavy lines are for ratios up to 120 l/r; and those below the lower heavy line are for ratios not over 200 l/r

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXIV[*] (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Plate-and-Angle Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch, 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

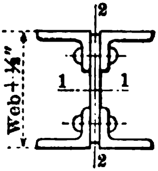
Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Web-plate 12"×1/4"			Web-plate 12"×5/16"		Web-plate 12"×3/8"			
	4 angles 3 1/2"×2 1/2"×1/4"	4 angles 3 1/2"×2 1/2"×5/16"	4 angles 4"×3"×5/16"	4 angles 4"×3"×5/16"	4 angles 4"×3"×3/8"	4 angles 4"×3"×3/8"	4 angles 5"×3 1/2"×3/8"	4 angles 5"×3 1/2"×7/16"	4 angles 5"×3 1/2"×1/2"
6	114	132	148	157	178	187	217	242	266
7	112	132	148	157	178	187	217	242	266
8	104	123	148	157	178	187	217	242	266
9	96	115	140	147	169	177	217	242	266
10	89	106	131	138	159	167	217	242	266
11	81	98	123	129	149	156	210	237	264
12	73	89	114	120	139	145	201	226	252
13	65	80	106	111	129	134	191	215	241
14	59	72	97	101	119	124	181	205	229
15	55	67	89	92	109	113	171	194	218
16	52	63	80	84	99	102	162	184	206
17	48	58	76	79	92	96	152	173	195
18	44	54	71	75	87	91	142	162	184
19	40	50	67	70	82	85	132	152	172
20	36	45	63	65	77	80	123	141	161
21	32	41	59	61	72	75	115	130	149
22	28	37	55	56	67	69	110	125	141
23	.....	33	50	52	62	64	105	120	135
24	.....	.....	46	47	57	58	100	114	129
25	.....	.....	42	42	52	53	95	109	123
26	.....	.....	38	38	47	48	91	104	118
27	.....	.....	.....	.....	42	.....	86	98	112
28	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	81	93	106
29	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	76	88	101
30	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	71	82	95
Area, sq in	8.76	10.12	11.36	12.11	13.67	14.42	16.70	18.62	20.50
I_{1-1}, in^4	222	264	295	304	350	359	421	476	526
r_{1-1}, in.....	5.04	5.11	5.09	5.01	5.06	4.99	5.02	5.05	5.07
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	16.0	20.2	29.6	30.3	36.3	37.3	70.6	82.3	94.6
r_{2-2}, in.....	1.35	1.41	1.61	1.58	1.63	1.61	2.06	2.10	2.15
Weight, lb per lin ft..	29.8	34.6	39.0	41.6	46.8	49.3	56.9	63.3	69.7

The safe load-values above the upper heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those between the heavy lines are for ratios up to 120 l/r; and those below the lower heavy line are for ratios not over 200 l/r

[*] From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXIV* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Plate-and-Angle Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under
Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13).

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

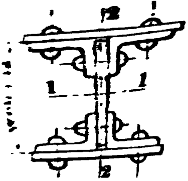
Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Web-plate 12"×3/8"		Web-plate 12"×1/2"					Web-plate	
								12"×5/8"	12"×3/4"
	4 angles 6"×4"×7/16"	4 angles 6"×4"×1/2"	4 angles 6"×4"×1/2"	4 angles 6"×4"×9/16"	4 angles 6"×4"×5/8"	4 angles 6"×4"×11/16"	4 angles 6"×4"×3/4"	4 angles 6"×4"×3/4"	4 angles 6"×4"×3/4"
6	276	305	325	354	383	411	439	458	478
7	276	305	325	354	383	411	439	458	478
8	276	305	325	354	383	411	439	458	478
9	276	305	325	354	383	411	439	458	478
10	276	305	325	354	383	411	439	458	478
11	276	305	325	354	383	411	439	458	478
12	276	305	325	354	383	411	439	458	478
13	274	305	323	354	383	411	439	458	478
14	264	295	312	342	373	403	433	451	469
15	254	284	300	330	359	389	418	435	452
16	244	274	288	317	346	375	403	419	436
17	234	263	277	305	333	361	388	404	420
18	224	252	265	292	319	347	373	388	403
19	214	241	253	280	306	333	358	372	387
20	204	230	242	267	293	318	344	357	370
21	194	220	230	255	279	304	329	341	354
22	184	209	218	242	266	290	314	325	338
23	174	198	207	230	253	276	299	310	321
24	164	187	195	217	239	262	284	294	305
25	155	176	183	204	226	248	269	278	288
26	147	166	173	192	213	234	254	262	272
27	142	160	167	185	203	220	239	247	256
28	137	154	162	179	196	213	230	239	248
29	132	149	156	173	189	206	223	231	240
30	127	143	150	166	183	199	215	223	232
Area, sq in	21.22	23.50	25.00	27.24	29.44	31.60	33.76	35.26	36.76
I_{1-1}, in⁴	544	605	623	683	741	794	849	867	885
r_{1-1}, in	5.06	5.07	4 99	5 01	5.02	5.01	5.01	4.96	4.91
I_{2-2}, in⁴	139	160	165	186	206	228	249	257	266
r_{2-2}, in	2.56	2.61	2 57	2.61	2.65	2 69	2.72	2.70	2.69
Weight, lb per lin ft..	72.5	80.1	85.2	92.8	100.4	107.6	114.8	119.9	125.0

The safe load-values above the upper heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60: those between the heavy lines are for ratios up to 120 l/r; and those below the lower heavy line are for ratios not over 200 l/r

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXIV (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Plate-and-Angle Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under
Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13).

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

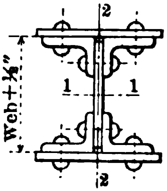
Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft.	Web-plate 12"×3/8" 4 angles 6"×4"×3/8" 2 plates 14"×3/8"	Web-plate 12"×3/8" 4 angles 6"×4"×3/8" 2 plates 14"×1/2"	Web-plate 12"×3/8" 4 angles 6"×4"×7/16" 2 plates 14"×1/2"	Web-plate 12"×3/8" 4 angles 6"×4"×1/2" 2 plates 14"×1/2"	Web-plate 12"×1/2" 4 angles 6"×4"×1/2" 2 plates 14"×1/2"	Web-plate 12"×1/2" 4 angles 6"×4"×1/2" 2 plates 14"×5/8"
11	383	428	458	487	507	553
12	383	428	458	487	507	553
13	383	428	458	487	507	553
14	383	428	458	487	507	553
15	383	428	458	487	507	553
16	379	428	458	487	506	553
17	368	419	447	475	491	542
18	357	407	434	461	476	526
19	346	395	421	447	461	510
20	334	383	407	433	447	495
21	323	370	394	419	432	479
22	312	358	381	405	417	463
23	301	346	368	391	403	448
24	289	334	355	377	388	432
25	278	322	342	363	373	416
26	267	310	329	349	358	401
27	256	297	316	335	344	385
28	244	285	303	321	329	369
29	233	273	290	307	314	354
30	222	261	277	293	299	338
31	211	249	264	279	285	323
32	203	237	250	265	272	307
33	197	228	242	257	264	294
34	191	221	235	250	257	287
35	186	215	229	243	249	279
Area, sq in	29.44	32.94	35.22	37.50	39.00	42.50
I_{1-1}, in⁴	916	1 073	1 136	1 197	1 215	1 377
r_{1-1}, in	5.58	5.71	5.68	5.65	5.58	5.69
I_{2-2}, in⁴	291	348	368	388	394	451
r_{2-2}, in	3.14	3.25	3.23	3.22	3.18	3.26
Wt. per lin ft.	100.2	112.1	120.1	127.7	132.8	144.7

Safe load-values above the upper heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; between the heavy lines are for ratios up to 120 l/r; and those below the lower line are for ratios not over 200 l/r

Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXIV [*] (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Plate and-Angle Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds f lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13).

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Web-plate 12"×½"		Web-plate 12"×⅝"			
	4 angles 6"×4"×9/16" 2 plates 14"×⅝"	4 angles 6"×4"×⅝" 2 plates 14"×⅝"	4 angles 6"×4"×⅝" 2 plates 14"×⅝"	4 angles 6"×4"×⅝" 2 plates 14"×¾"	4 angles 6"×4"×¾" 2 plates 14"×⅞"	4 angles 6"×4"×⅝" 2 plates 14"×1"
11	582	610	630	675	721	766
12	582	610	630	675	721	766
13	582	610	630	675	721	766
14	582	610	630	675	721	766
15	582	610	630	675	721	766
16	582	610	630	675	721	766
17	569	596	613	663	714	763
18	553	579	594	644	694	742
19	536	562	576	625	674	721
20	520	544	558	606	654	700
21	503	527	540	587	634	679
22	487	509	522	568	614	658
23	470	492	504	548	594	637
24	454	475	486	529	574	616
25	437	457	468	510	554	595
26	421	440	450	491	534	574
27	404	422	431	472	514	553
28	388	405	413	453	494	532
29	371	388	395	434	474	511
30	354	370	377	415	454	490
31	338	353	359	396	434	469
32	321	336	341	377	414	448
33	309	323	331	361	394	427
34	301	315	322	351	381	409
35	293	306	313	342	371	399
Area, sq in	44.74	46.94	48.44	51.94	55.44	58.91
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	1 437	1 495	1 513	1 682	1 856	2 037
r_{1-1}, in......	5.67	5.64	5.59	5.69	5.79	5.88
I_{2-2}, in^4....	472	492	499	556	613	671
r_{2-2}, in.....	3.25	3.24	3.21	3.27	3.33	3.37
Weight, lb per lin ft..	152.3	159.9	165.0	176.9	188.8	200.7

The safe load-values above the upper heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 6 those between the heavy lines are for ratios up to 120 l/r; and those below the low heavy line are for ratios not over 200 l/r

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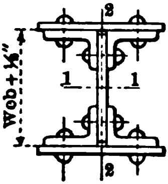
[*] From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXIV* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Plate-and-Angle Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Web-plate 12"×⅝"					
	4 angles 6"×4"×⅝" 2 plates 14"×1⅛"	4 angles 6"×4"×⅝" 2 plates 14"×1¼"	4 angles 6"×4"×⅝" 2 plates 14"×1⅜"	4 angles 6"×4"×⅝" 2 plates 14"×1½"	4 angles 6"×4"×⅝" 2 plates 14"×1⅝"	4 angles 6"×4"×⅝" 2 plates 14"×1¾"
11	812	857	903	948	994	1 039
12	812	857	903	948	994	1 039
13	812	857	903	948	994	1 039
14	812	857	903	948	994	1 039
15	812	857	903	948	994	1 039
16	812	857	903	948	994	1 039
17	812	857	903	948	994	1 039
18	791	840	888	937	986	1 034
19	769	817	864	912	960	1 007
20	747	794	840	887	934	980
21	725	771	817	862	908	953
22	703	748	793	837	882	926
23	681	725	769	812	856	899
24	659	702	745	787	830	872
25	637	679	721	762	805	845
26	615	657	697	738	779	818
27	593	634	673	713	753	791
28	571	611	649	688	727	764
29	549	588	625	663	701	737
30	527	565	601	638	675	710
31	505	542	577	613	649	684
32	483	519	553	588	623	657
33	461	496	529	563	597	630
34	439	473	505	538	571	603
35	427	456	484	513	545	576
Area, sq in	62.44	65.94	69.44	72.94	76.44	79.94
I_{1-1}, in⁴	2 224	2 418	2 618	2 825	3 038	3 259
r_{1-1}, in	5.97	6.06	6.14	6.22	6.30	6.38
I_{2-2}, in⁴	728	785	842	899	956	1014
r_{2-2}, in	3.41	3.45	3.48	3.51	3.54	3.56
Weight, lb per lin ft	212.6	224.5	236.4	248.3	260.2	272.1

The safe load-values above the upper heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those between the heavy lines are for ratios up to 120 l/r; and those below the lower heavy line are for ratios not over 200 l/r

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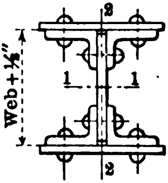
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXIV[*] (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Plate-and-Angle Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\, l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Web-plate 12"×⅝"		Web-plate 14"×⅜"				
	4 angles 6"×4"×⅝" 2 plates 14"×1⅞"	4 angles 6"×4"×⅝" 2 plates 14"×2"	4 angles 6"×4"×⅜" 2 plates 14"×⅜"	4 angles 6"×4"×7/16" 2 plates 14"×⅜"	4 angles 6"×4"×½" 2 plates 14"×⅜"	4 angles 6"×4"×½" 2 plates 14"×7/16"	4 angles 6"×4"×½" 2 plates 14"×½"
11	1 085	1 130	392	422	452	474	497
12	1 085	1 130	392	422	452	474	497
13	1 085	1 130	392	422	452	474	497
14	1 085	1 130	392	422	452	474	497
15	1 085	1 130	392	422	452	474	497
16	1 085	1 130	387	415	444	470	497
17	1 085	1 130	375	403	431	456	482
18	1 082	1 130	363	390	417	442	468
19	1 054	1 101	352	377	404	428	453
20	1 026	1 072	340	365	390	415	439
21	998	1 043	328	352	377	401	425
22	970	1 014	317	340	363	387	410
23	942	985	305	327	350	373	396
24	914	956	293	314	336	359	381
25	886	927	281	302	323	345	367
26	858	898	270	289	309	331	353
27	830	869	258	276	296	317	338
28	802	840	246	264	282	303	324
29	774	811	235	251	269	289	309
30	746	782	223	239	255	275	295
31	718	753	211	227	243	261	281
32	690	725	205	220	236	251	267
33	662	696	200	214	229	244	260
34	634	667	194	208	222	237	253
35	606	638	188	201	216	230	245
Area, sq in	83.44	86.94	30.19	32.47	34.75	36.50	38.25
I_{1-1}, in⁴	3 486	3 721	1 261	1 351	1 436	1 539	1 643
r_{1-1}, in	6.46	6.54	6.46	6.45	6.43	6.49	6.55
I_{2-2}, in⁴	1071	1128	291	311	331	360	388
r_{2-2}, in	3.58	3.60	3.10	3.09	3.09	3.14	3.19
Weight, lb per lin ft	284.0	295.9	102.8	110.8	118.4	124.3	130.3

The safe load-values above the upper heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those between heavy lines are for ratios up to 120 l/r; and those below the lower heavy line are for ratios not over 200 l/r.

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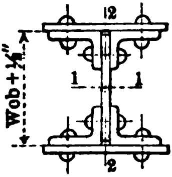
[*] From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXIV[*] (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Plate-and-Angle Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\, l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Web-plate 14"×3/8"		Web-plate 14"×½"		
	4 angles 6"×4"×½" 2 plates 14"×9/16"	4 angles 6"×4"×½" 2 plates 14"×5/8"	4 angles 6"×4"×½" 2 plates 14"×5/8"	4 angles 6"×4"×9/16" 2 plates 14"×5/8"	4 angles 6"×4"×5/8" 2 plates 14"×5/8"
11	520	543	566	595	623
12	520	543	566	595	623
13	520	543	566	595	623
14	520	543	566	595	623
15	520	543	566	595	623
16	520	543	566	595	623
17	507	533	551	578	605
18	493	517	535	561	587
19	478	502	518	544	569
20	463	487	502	527	551
21	448	472	486	510	533
22	433	456	470	493	515
23	418	441	454	476	497
24	403	426	437	459	479
25	388	410	421	442	461
26	374	395	405	424	443
27	359	380	389	407	425
28	344	364	373	390	407
29	329	349	356	373	390
30	314	334	340	356	372
31	299	318	324	339	354
32	284	303	308	322	336
33	275	290	298	312	327
34	267	282	290	304	318
35	260	275	282	295	309
Area, sq in	40.00	41.75	43.50	45.74	47.94
I_{1-1}, in⁴	1 749	1 857	1 885	1 970	2 053
r_{1-1}, in	6.61	6.67	6.58	6.56	6.54
I_{2-2}, in⁴	417	446	451	472	492
r_{2-2}, in	3.23	3.27	3.22	3.21	3.20
Weight, lb per lin ft	136.2	142.2	148.1	155.7	163.3

The safe load-values above the upper heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those between the heavy lines are for ratios up to 120 l/r; and those below the lower heavy line are for ratios not over 200 l/r

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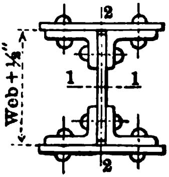
[*] From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXIV* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Plate-and-Angle Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Web-plate 14"×5/8"						
	4 angles 6"×4"×5/8" 2 plates 14"×5/8"	4 angles 6"×4"×5/8" 2 plates 14"×3/4"	4 angles 6"×4"×5/8" 2 plates 14"×7/8"	4 angles 6"×4"×5/8" 2 plates 14"×1"	4 angles 6"×4"×5/8" 2 plates 14"×1 1/8"	4 angles 6"×4"×5/8" 2 plates 14"×1 1/4"	4 angles 6"×4"×5/8" 2 plates 14"×1 3/8"
11	646	691	737	782	828	873	919
12	646	691	737	782	828	873	919
13	646	691	737	782	828	873	919
14	646	691	737	782	828	873	919
15	646	691	737	782	828	873	919
16	643	691	737	782	828	873	919
17	624	675	726	776	826	873	919
18	606	655	705	754	803	852	901
19	587	635	684	733	780	829	876
20	568	615	664	711	758	805	851
21	549	596	643	689	735	782	827
22	530	576	622	668	713	758	802
23	511	556	602	646	690	734	778
24	493	536	581	625	667	711	753
25	474	517	560	603	645	687	728
26	455	497	540	581	622	664	704
27	436	477	519	560	600	640	679
28	417	457	498	538	577	617	655
29	399	438	477	516	554	593	630
30	380	418	457	495	532	569	605
31	361	398	436	473	509	546	581
32	345	378	415	452	487	522	556
33	336	365	396	430	464	499	532
34	326	356	385	415	444	475	507
35	317	346	375	404	432	461	489
Area, sq in	49.69	53.19	56.69	60.19	63.69	67.19	70.69
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	2 081	2 302	2 539	2 764	3 006	3 255	3 512
r_{1-1}, in.....	6.47	6.58	6.68	6.78	6.87	6.96	7.05
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	499	556	613	671	728	785	842
r_{2-2}, in.....	3.17	3.23	3.29	3.34	3.38	3.42	3.45
Weight, lb per lin ft..	169.3	181.2	193.1	205.0	216.9	228.8	240.7

The safe load-values above the upper heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those between the heavy lines are for ratios up to 120 l/r; and those below the lower heavy line are for ratios not over 200 l/r

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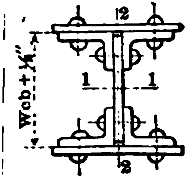
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXIV* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Plate-and-Angle Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\, l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Web-plate 14"×5/8"					
	4 angles 6"×4"×5/8" 2 plates 14"×1½"	4 angles 6"×4"×5/8" 2 plates 14"×1⅝"	4 angles 6"×4"×5/8" 2 plates 14"×1¾"	4 angles 6"×4"×5/8" 2 plates 14"×1⅞"	4 angles 6"×4"×5/8" 2 plates 14"×2"	4 angles 6"×4"×5/8" 2 plates 16"×1¾"
11	964	1 010	1 055	1 101	1 146	1 198
12	964	1 010	1 055	1 101	1 146	1 198
13	964	1 010	1 055	1 101	1 146	1 198
14	964	1 010	1 055	1 101	1 146	1 198
15	964	1 010	1 055	1 101	1 146	1 198
16	964	1 010	1 055	1 101	1 146	1 198
17	964	1 010	1 055	1 101	1 146	1 198
18	949	998	1 046	1 095	1 144	1 198
19	924	971	1 018	1 067	1 114	1 198
20	898	945	991	1 038	1 084	1 198
21	872	918	963	1 010	1 055	1 174
22	847	892	935	981	1 025	1 146
23	821	865	908	953	996	1 119
24	796	839	880	924	966	1 091
25	770	812	853	895	937	1 064
26	744	786	825	867	907	1 036
27	719	759	797	838	877	1 009
28	693	732	770	810	848	981
29	668	706	742	781	818	954
30	642	679	715	753	789	926
31	617	653	687	724	759	899
32	591	626	659	696	730	871
33	565	600	632	667	700	843
34	540	573	604	639	671	816
35	517	546	577	610	641	788
Area, sq in	74.19	77.69	81.19	84.69	88.19	92.19
I_{1-1}, in^4	3 776	4 048	4 327	4 615	4 910	5 120
r_{1-1}, in	7.13	7.22	7.30	7.38	7.46	7.45
I_{2-2}, in^4	899	956	1 014	1 071	1 128	1 493
r_{2-2}, in	3.48	3.51	3.53	3.56	3.58	4.02
Weight, lb per lin ft	252.6	264.5	276.4	288.3	300.2	313.8

The safe load-values above the upper heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those between the heavy lines are for ratios up to 120 l/r; and those below the lower heavy line are for ratios not over 200 l/r

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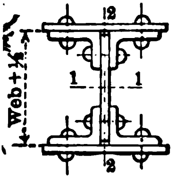
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXIV* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Plate-and-Angle Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Web-plate 14"×⅝"					
	4 angles 6"×4"×⅝" 2 plates 16"×2"	4 angles 6"×6"×⅝" 2 plates 16"×2"	4 angles 6"×6"×⅝" 2 plates 16"×2⅛"	4 angles 6"×6"×⅝" 2 plates 16"×2¼"	4 angles 6"×6"×⅝" 2 plates 16"×2⅜"	4 angles 6"×6"×⅝" 2 plates 16"×2½"
11	1 250	1 315	1 367	1 419	1 471	1 523
12	1 250	1 315	1 367	1 419	1 471	1 523
13	1 250	1 315	1 367	1 419	1 471	1 523
14	1 250	1 315	1 367	1 419	1 471	1 523
15	1 250	1 135	1 367	1 419	1 471	1 523
16	1 250	1 315	1 367	1 419	1 471	1 523
17	1 250	1 315	1 367	1 419	1 471	1 523
18	1 250	1 315	1 367	1 419	1 471	1 523
19	1 250	1 315	1 367	1 419	1 471	1 523
20	1 250	1 308	1 364	1 419	1 471	1 523
21	1 229	1 277	1 333	1 388	1 443	1 497
22	1 201	1 246	1 301	1 356	1 409	1 463
23	1 172	1 216	1 269	1 323	1 375	1 428
24	1 144	1 185	1 237	1 290	1 342	1 393
25	1 115	1 154	1 206	1 258	1 308	1 359
26	1 087	1 123	1 174	1 225	1 274	1 324
27	1 058	1 093	1 142	1 192	1 241	1 289
28	1 030	1 062	1 111	1 160	1 207	1 254
29	1 001	1 031	1 079	1 127	1 173	1 220
30	973	1 000	1 047	1 094	1 139	1 185
31	944	970	1 015	1 062	1 106	1 150
32	916	939	984	1 029	1 072	1 115
33	887	908	952	996	1 038	1 081
34	859	877	920	964	1 005	1 046
35	830	847	889	931	971	1 011
Area, sq in	96.19	101.19	105.19	109.19	113.19	117.19
I_{1-1}, in^4	5 457	5 484	5 830	6 187	6 552	6 928
r_{1-1}, in	7.53	7.36	7.44	7.53	7.61	7.69
I_{2-2}, in^4	1 579	1 581	1 666	1 752	1 837	1 922
r_{2-2}, in	4.05	3.95	3.98	4.01	4.03	4.05
Weight, lb per lin ft. .	327.4	344.2	357.8	371.4	385.0	398.6

The safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; and those below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

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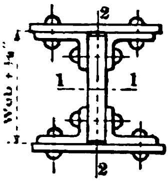
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXIV* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Plate-and-Angle Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13).

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

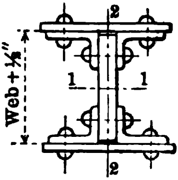
Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two web-plates 14"×½" 4 angles 6"×6"×⅝" 2 plates 16"×2½"	4 angles 8"×6"×⅝" 2 plates 16"×2½"	4 angles 8"×6"×⅝" 2 plates 18"×2⅜"	4 angles 8"×6"×⅝" 2 plates 18"×2½"	4 angles 8"×6"×⅝" 2 plates 18"×2⅝"	4 angles 8"×6"×⅝" 2 plates 18"×2¾"
11	1 592	1 657	1 728	1 787	1 845	1 904
12	1 592	1 657	1 728	1 787	1 845	1 904
13	1 592	1 657	1 728	1 787	1 845	1 904
14	1 592	1 657	1 728	1 787	1 845	1 904
15	1 592	1 657	1 728	1 787	1 845	1 904
16	1 592	1 657	1 728	1 787	1 845	1 904
17	1 592	1 657	1 728	1 787	1 845	1 904
18	1 592	1 657	1 728	1 787	1 845	1 904
19	1 592	1 657	1 728	1 787	1 845	1 904
20	1 590	1 657	1 728	1 787	1 845	1 904
21	1 553	1 653	1 728	1 787	1 845	1 904
22	1 516	1 616	1 728	1 787	1 845	1 904
23	1 479	1 580	1 728	1 787	1 845	1 904
24	1 443	1 543	1 695	1 756	1 818	1 879
25	1 406	1 507	1 661	1 721	1 781	1 842
26	1 369	1 470	1 626	1 685	1 744	1 804
27	1 332	1 434	1 592	1 650	1 708	1 766
28	1 295	1 397	1 557	1 614	1 671	1 729
29	1 258	1 360	1 522	1 578	1 635	1 691
30	1 222	1 324	1 488	1 543	1 598	1 653
31	1 185	1 287	1 453	1 507	1 561	1 616
32	1 148	1 251	1 419	1 471	1 525	1 578
33	1 111	1 214	1 384	1 436	1 488	1 541
34	1 074	1 177	1 349	1 400	1 451	1 503
35	1 038	1 141	1 315	1 365	1 415	1 465
Area, sq in	122.44	127.44	132.94	137.44	141.94	146.44
I_{1-1}, in.^{4}	7 014	7 254	7 559	7 981	8 415	8 859
r_{1-1}, in.	7.57	7.54	7.54	7.62	7.70	7.78
I_{2-2}, in.^{4}	1 946	2 229	2 831	2 953	3 074	3 196
r_{2-2}, in.	3.99	4.18	4.61	4.63	4.65	4.67
Weight, lb per lin ft	416.4	433.6	452.3	467.6	482.9	498.2

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those below heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXIV* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Plate-and-Angle Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\, l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two web-plates 14"×5/8"					
	4 angles 8"×6"×5/8" 2 plates 18"×2 3/4"	4 angles 8"×6"×5/8" 2 plates 20"×2 5/8"	4 angles 8"×6"×5/8" 2 plates 20"×2 3/4"	4 angles 8"×6"×5/8" 2 plates 20"×2 7/8"	4 angles 8"×6"×5/8" 2 plates 20"×3"	4 angles 8"×6"×5/8" 2 plates 20"×3 1/8"
11	1 949	2 027	2 092	2 157	2 222	2 287
12	1 949	2 027	2 092	2 157	2 222	2 287
13	1 949	2 027	2 092	2 157	2 222	2 287
14	1 949	2 027	2 092	2 157	2 222	2 287
15	1 949	2 027	2 092	2 157	2 222	2 287
16	1 949	2 027	2 092	2 157	2 222	2 287
17	1 949	2 027	2 092	2 157	2 222	2 287
18	1 949	2 027	2 092	2 157	2 222	2 287
19	1 949	2 027	2 092	2 157	2 222	2 287
20	1 949	2 027	2 092	2 157	2 222	2 287
21	1 949	2 027	2 092	2 157	2 222	2 287
22	1 949	2 027	2 092	2 157	2 222	2 287
23	1 949	2 027	2 092	2 157	2 222	2 287
24	1 918	2 027	2 092	2 157	2 222	2 287
25	1 879	2 027	2 092	2 157	2 222	2 287
26	1 841	2 009	2 077	2 146	2 214	2 283
27	1 802	1 972	2 039	2 107	2 175	2 242
28	1 763	1 935	2 002	2 068	2 135	2 202
29	1 724	1 899	1 964	2 029	2 095	2 161
30	1 686	1 862	1 926	1 991	2 055	2 120
31	1 647	1 825	1 889	1 952	2 016	2 079
32	1 608	1 789	1 851	1 913	1 976	2 039
33	1 569	1 752	1 813	1 874	1 936	1 998
34	1 530	1 715	1 775	1 836	1 896	1 957
35	1 492	1 679	1 738	1 797	1 857	1 916
Area, sq in	149.94	155.94	160.94	165.94	170.94	175.94
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	8 916	9 248	9 741	10 248	10 767	11 298
r_{1-1}, in.....	7.71	7.70	7.78	7.86	7.94	8.01
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	3 222	4 049	4 216	4 383	4 549	4 716
r_{2-2}, in.....	4.64	5.10	5.12	5.14	5.16	5.18
Weight, lb per lin ft..	510.1	530.5	547.5	564.5	581.5	598.5

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

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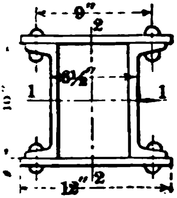
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXV.* **Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 10-Inch Channel-Columns**



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 10-in channels latticed			Two 10-in channels, two 12-in plates					
	15-lb channels, single lattice	20-lb channels, single lattice	25-lb channels, single lattice	15-lb channels, 5/16-in plates	15-lb channels, 3/8-in plates	15-lb channels, 7/16-in plates	15-lb channels, ½-in plates	20-lb channels, 7/16-in plates	20-lb channels, ½-in plates
11	116	153	191	213	233	252	272	289	309
12	116	153	191	213	233	252	272	289	309
13	116	153	191	213	233	252	272	289	309
14	116	153	191	213	233	252	272	289	309
15	116	153	191	213	233	252	272	289	309
16	116	153	191	213	233	252	272	289	309
17	116	153	191	213	233	252	272	289	309
18	116	152	186	213	233	252	271	286	305
19	115	148	181	208	227	245	264	278	297
20	112	144	176	203	221	239	257	271	289
21	109	140	171	197	215	232	250	263	280
22	106	136	165	192	209	226	243	256	272
23	103	132	160	186	203	219	236	248	264
24	100	128	155	181	197	213	229	240	256
25	98	124	150	175	191	206	222	233	248
26	95	120	145	170	185	200	215	225	240
27	92	116	140	164	179	193	208	217	231
28	89	112	134	159	173	187	201	210	223
29	86	108	129	153	167	180	194	202	215
30	83	104	124	148	161	174	187	195	207
31	80	100	119	142	155	167	180	187	199
32	77	96	114	137	149	161	173	179	191
33	75	92	109	131	143	154	166	172	183
34	72	88	103	126	137	148	159	164	174
35	69	84	101	120	131	141	152	157	166
Area, sq in	8.92	11.76	14.70	16.42	17.92	19.42	20.92	22.26	23.76
I_{1-1}, in^4	134	158	182	333	376	420	465	444	489
r_{1-1}, in	3.87	3.66	3.52	4.50	4.58	4.65	4.71	4.46	4.53
I_{2-2}, in^4	123	148	171	213	231	249	267	274	292
r_{2-2}, in	3.72	3.55	3.41	3.60	3.59	3.58	3.58	3.51	3.50
Weight, lb per lin ft	37.8	47.8	57.8	55.5	60.6	65.7	70.8	75.7	80.8

Safe load-values above the upper heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those between the heavy lines are for ratios up to 120 l/r; and those below the lower heavy line are for ratios not over 200 l/r

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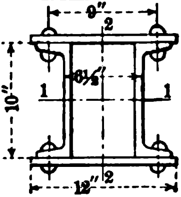
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXV* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 10-Inch Channel-Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 10-in channels, two 12-in plates							
	20-lb channels, 9/16-in plates	20-lb channels, 5/8-in plates	25-lb channels, 9/16-in plates	25-lb channels, 5/8-in plates	30-lb channels, 9/16-in plates	30-lb channels, 5/8-in plates	35-lb channels, 9/16-in plates	35-lb channels, 5/8-in plates
11	328	348	367	386	405	424	443	463
12	328	348	367	386	405	424	443	463
13	328	348	367	386	405	424	443	463
14	328	348	367	386	405	424	443	463
15	328	348	367	386	405	424	443	463
16	328	348	367	386	405	424	443	463
17	328	348	367	386	403	423	437	457
18	324	343	359	378	392	411	424	444
19	315	334	349	367	381	399	412	431
20	307	325	339	357	370	388	400	418
21	298	316	329	347	359	376	387	405
22	289	307	319	336	348	364	375	392
23	281	297	310	326	337	353	362	379
24	272	288	300	316	326	341	350	366
25	263	279	290	305	314	330	338	354
26	255	270	280	295	303	318	325	341
27	246	261	270	285	292	306	313	328
28	237	252	260	274	281	295	301	315
29	229	242	251	264	270	283	288	302
30	220	233	241	253	259	271	276	289
31	211	224	231	243	248	260	263	276
32	203	215	221	233	237	248	251	263
33	194	206	211	222	226	237	239	250
34	185	196	201	212	216	227	232	243
35	177	187	194	205	211	221	226	237
Area, sq in	25.26	26.76	28.20	29.70	31.14	32.64	34.08	35.58
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	534	581	559	606	583	630	608	655
r_{1-1}, in.....	4.60	4.66	4.45	4.52	4.33	4.39	4.22	4.29
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	310	328	333	351	354	372	372	390
r_{2-2}, in.....	3.50	3.50	3.44	3.44	3.37	3.37	3.30	3.31
Weight, lb per lin ft..	85.9	91.0	95.9	101.0	105.9	111.0	115.9	121.0

Safe load-values above the upper heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those between the heavy lines are for ratios up to 120 l/r; and those below the lower heavy line are for ratios not over 200 l/r

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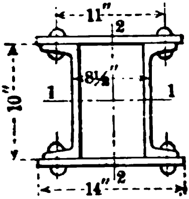
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXV* (Continued). **Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 10-Inch Channel-Columns**



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 10-in channels, latticed				Two 10-in channels, two 14-in plates			
	15-lb channels, single lattice	20-lb channels, single lattice	25-lb channels, single lattice	30-lb channels, single lattice	15-lb channels, 3/8-in plates	15-lb channels, 7/16-in plates	15-lb channels, 1/2-in plates	20-lb channels, 7/16-in plates
11	116	153	191	229	252	275	298	312
12	116	153	191	229	252	275	298	312
13	116	153	191	229	252	275	298	312
14	116	153	191	229	252	275	298	312
15	116	153	191	229	252	275	298	312
16	116	153	191	229	252	275	298	312
17	116	153	191	229	252	275	298	312
18	116	153	189	224	252	275	298	312
19	116	150	184	218	252	275	298	312
20	114	146	179	211	252	275	298	312
21	111	142	174	205	252	275	298	312
22	109	139	169	199	251	273	295	308
23	106	135	164	193	246	267	289	302
24	103	131	159	187	241	261	282	295
25	100	127	154	180	235	256	276	288
26	98	123	149	174	230	250	270	282
27	95	119	144	168	225	244	263	275
28	92	115	139	162	219	238	257	268
29	89	112	134	156	214	232	250	261
30	87	108	129	149	209	226	244	255
31	84	104	124	143	203	220	238	248
32	81	100	119	137	198	214	231	241
33	78	96	114	131	193	209	225	235
34	75	92	109	125	187	203	219	228
35	73	88	104	121	182	197	212	221
Area, sq in	8.92	11.76	14.70	17.64	19.42	21.17	22.92	24.01
I_{1-1}, in⁴.....	134	158	182	207	416	468	520	491
r_{1-1}, in.....	3.87	3.66	3.52	3.42	4.63	4.70	4.76	4.52
I_{2-2}, in⁴.....	197	241	284	323	369	398	426	442
r_{2-2}, in.....	4.70	4.53	4.39	4.28	4.36	4.33	4.31	4.29
Weight, lb per lin ft..	39.3	49.4	59.4	69.4	65.7	71.7	77.6	81.7

Safe load-values above the upper heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those between the heavy lines are for ratios up to 120 l/r; and those below the lower heavy line are for ratios not over 200 l/r

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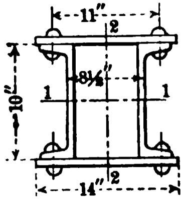
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXV* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 10-In Channel-Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds fo lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 10-in channels, two 14-in plates						
	20-lb channels, ½-in plates	20-lb channels, 9⁄16-in plates	20-lb channels, ⅝-in plates	25-lb channels, 9⁄16-in plates	25-lb channels, ⅝-in plates	25-lb channels, 11⁄16-in plates	25-lb channels, ¾-in plates
11	335	358	380	396	419	441	464
12	335	358	380	396	419	441	464
13	335	358	380	396	419	441	464
14	335	358	380	396	419	441	464
15	335	358	380	396	419	441	464
16	335	358	380	396	419	441	464
17	335	358	380	396	419	441	464
18	335	358	380	396	419	441	464
19	335	358	380	396	419	441	464
20	335	358	380	396	419	441	464
21	335	358	380	396	419	441	464
22	330	352	374	388	410	432	453
23	323	344	365	379	401	422	443
24	316	337	357	371	392	412	433
25	308	329	349	362	382	403	423
26	301	321	341	353	373	393	412
27	294	313	332	345	364	383	402
28	287	306	324	336	355	373	392
29	279	298	316	327	346	364	382
30	272	290	308	319	336	354	372
31	265	282	299	310	327	344	361
32	258	275	291	301	318	335	351
33	251	267	283	293	309	325	341
34	243	259	274	284	300	315	331
35	236	251	266	275	291	306	320
Area, sq in	25.76	27.51	29.26	30.45	32.20	33.95	35.70
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	544	597	652	622	676	732	790
r_{1-1}, in.....	4.59	4.66	4.72	4.52	4.58	4.64	4.70
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	470	499	527	541	570	598	627
r_{2-2}, in.....	4.27	4.26	4.24	4.22	4.21	4.20	4.19
Weight, lb per lin ft..	87.6	93.6	99.5	103.6	109.5	115.5	121.4

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; and thos below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

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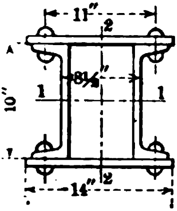
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, P

Table XXV* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 10-Inch Channel-Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

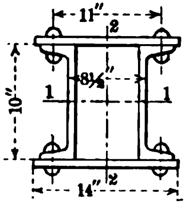
Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 10-in channels, two 14-in plates					
	30-lb channels, $^{11}/_{16}$-in plates	30-lb channels, ¾-in plates	30-lb channels, $^{13}/_{16}$-in plates	30-lb channels, ⅞-in plates	30-lb channels, $^{15}/_{16}$-in plates	30-lb channels, 1-in plates
11	480	502	525	548	571	593
12	480	502	525	548	571	593
13	480	502	525	548	571	593
14	480	502	525	548	571	593
15	480	502	525	548	571	593
16	480	502	525	548	571	593
17	480	502	525	548	571	593
18	480	502	525	548	571	593
19	480	502	525	548	571	593
20	480	502	525	548	571	593
21	477	500	522	544	567	589
22	467	488	510	532	554	575
23	456	477	499	520	541	562
24	446	466	487	508	529	549
25	435	455	475	495	516	536
26	424	444	464	483	503	522
27	414	432	452	471	490	509
28	403	421	440	459	478	496
29	392	410	429	446	465	483
30	382	399	417	434	452	469
31	371	388	405	422	440	456
32	360	377	394	410	427	443
33	350	365	382	398	414	430
34	339	354	370	385	401	416
35	328	343	359	373	389	403
Area, sq in	36.89	38.64	40.39	42.14	43.89	45.64
I_{1-1}, in⁴	757	814	873	932	994	1 056
r_{1-1}, in	4.53	4.59	4.65	4.70	4.76	4.81
I_{2-2}, in⁴	637	666	695	723	752	780
r_{2-2}, in	4.16	4.15	4.15	4.14	4.14	4.13
Weight, lb per lin ft	125.5	131.4	137.4	143.3	149.3	155.2

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXV* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 10-Inch Channel-Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

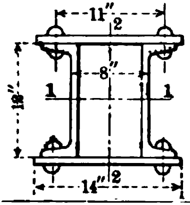
Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 10-in channels, two 14-in plates					
	35-lb channels, 15/16-in plates	35-lb channels, 1-in plates	35-lb channels, 1 1/16-in plates	35-lb channels, 1⅛-in plates	35-lb channels, 1 3/16-in plates	35-lb channels, 1¼-in plates
11	609	632	654	677	700	723
12	609	632	654	677	700	723
13	609	632	654	677	700	723
14	609	632	654	677	700	723
15	609	632	654	677	700	723
16	609	632	654	677	700	723
17	609	632	654	677	700	723
18	609	632	654	677	700	723
19	609	632	654	677	700	723
20	609	632	654	677	700	723
21	602	624	647	669	691	714
22	588	610	632	654	675	697
23	575	596	617	639	660	681
24	561	582	603	624	644	665
25	547	568	588	608	628	648
26	533	553	573	593	612	632
27	520	539	559	578	596	616
28	506	525	544	563	581	599
29	492	511	529	547	565	583
30	479	496	514	532	549	567
31	465	482	500	517	533	550
32	451	468	485	502	517	534
33	437	454	470	487	502	518
34	424	440	455	471	486	502
35	410	425	441	456	470	485
Area, sq in	46.83	48.58	50.33	52.08	53.83	55.58
I_{1-1}, in^4	1 018	1 080	1 144	1 209	1 275	1 343
r_{1-1}, in	4.66	4.72	4.77	4.82	4.87	4.92
I_{2-2}, in^4	788	816	845	874	902	931
r_{2-2}, in	4.10	4.10	4.10	4.10	4.09	4.09
Weight, lb per lin ft	159.3	165.2	171.2	177.1	183.1	189.0

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXVI.* Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 12-Inch Channel-Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 12-in channels, latticed				Two 12-in channels, two 14-in plates		
	20½-lb channels, single lattice	25-lb channels, single lattice	30-lb channels, single lattice	35-lb channels, single lattice	20½-lb channels, ⅜-in plates	20½-lb channels, 7/16-in plates	20½-lb channels, ½-in plates
11	157	191	229	268	293	316	339
12	157	191	229	268	293	316	339
13	157	191	229	268	293	316	339
14	157	191	229	268	293	316	339
15	157	191	229	268	293	316	339
16	157	191	229	268	293	316	339
17	157	191	229	268	293	316	339
18	157	191	229	268	293	316	339
19	157	191	229	268	293	316	339
20	157	191	229	268	293	316	339
21	157	191	229	265	293	316	339
22	157	190	225	259	290	312	334
23	155	186	220	253	283	305	326
24	152	182	215	248	277	298	319
25	149	178	210	242	271	291	312
26	146	174	205	236	265	284	304
27	142	170	200	230	258	277	297
28	139	166	195	224	252	271	290
29	136	162	190	218	246	264	282
30	133	158	185	212	239	257	275
31	129	154	180	206	233	250	268
32	126	150	175	200	227	243	260
33	123	146	170	194	220	236	253
34	120	142	165	188	214	230	246
35	117	138	160	182	208	223	238
Area, sq in	12.06	14.70	17.64	20.58	22.56	24.31	26.06
I_{1-1}, in⁴	256	288	323	359	658	730	803
r_{1-1}, in	4.61	4.43	4.28	4.17	5.40	5.48	5.55
I_{2-2}, in⁴	244	279	316	351	415	444	473
r_{2-2}, in	4.50	4.36	4.23	4.13	4.29	4.27	4.26
Weight, lb per lin ft	50.4	59.4	69.4	79.4	76.7	82.7	88.6

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

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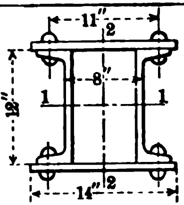
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXVI* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 12-Inch Channel-Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13).

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 12-in channels, two 14-in plates						
	20½-lb channels, 9/16-in plates	20½-lb channels, 5/8-in plates	25-lb channels, 9/16-in plates	25-lb channels, 5/8-in plates	25-lb channels, 11/16-in plates	25-lb channels, 3/4-in plates	25-lb channels, 13/16-in plates
11	362	384	396	419	441	464	487
12	362	384	396	419	441	464	487
13	362	384	396	419	441	464	487
14	362	384	396	419	441	464	487
15	362	384	396	419	441	464	487
16	362	384	396	419	441	464	487
17	362	384	396	419	441	464	487
18	362	384	396	419	441	464	487
19	362	384	396	419	441	464	487
20	362	384	396	419	441	464	487
21	362	384	396	418	440	463	485
22	355	377	387	409	431	453	474
23	347	369	378	400	421	443	464
24	339	360	370	390	411	432	453
25	332	352	361	381	401	422	442
26	324	344	352	372	392	412	431
27	316	335	344	363	382	402	421
28	308	327	335	354	372	391	410
29	300	318	326	344	362	381	399
30	292	310	318	335	353	371	388
31	284	302	309	326	343	361	377
32	277	293	300	317	333	350	367
33	269	285	291	307	323	340	356
34	261	277	283	298	314	330	345
35	253	268	274	289	304	320	334
Area, sq in	27.81	29.56	30.45	32.20	33.95	35.70	37.45
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	878	954	910	986	1 063	1 142	1 223
r_{1-1}, in.....	5.62	5.68	5.47	5.53	5.60	5.66	5.71
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	501	530	537	565	594	622	651
r_{2-2}, in.....	4.24	4.23	4.20	4.19	4.18	4.18	4.17
Weight, lb per lin ft..	94.6	100.5	103.6	109.5	115.5	121.4	127.4

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

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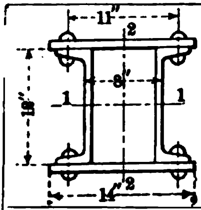
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXVI* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 12-Inc Channel-Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 12-in channels, two 14-in plates							
	30-lb channels, ¾-in plates	30-lb channels, 13⁄16-in plates	30-lb channels, ⅞-in plates	30-lb channels, 15⁄16-in plates	30-lb channels, 1-in plates	35-lb channels, 15⁄16-in plates	35-lb channel, 1-in plates	35-lb channels, 1 1⁄16-in plates
11	502	525	548	571	593	609	632	654
12	502	525	548	571	593	609	632	654
13	502	525	548	571	593	609	632	654
14	502	525	548	571	593	609	632	654
15	502	525	548	571	593	609	632	654
16	502	525	548	571	593	609	632	654
17	502	525	548	571	593	609	632	654
18	502	525	548	571	593	609	632	654
19	502	525	548	571	593	609	632	654
20	502	525	548	571	593	609	632	654
21	498	521	543	565	588	601	623	645
22	487	509	531	553	575	587	609	631
23	476	497	518	540	561	573	594	616
24	465	486	506	527	548	559	580	601
25	453	474	494	514	535	545	566	586
26	442	462	482	502	522	532	552	571
27	431	451	469	489	508	518	537	557
28	420	439	457	476	495	504	523	542
29	409	427	445	463	482	490	509	527
30	397	415	432	450	468	477	494	512
31	386	404	420	438	455	463	480	497
32	375	392	408	425	442	449	466	483
33	364	380	396	412	428	435	452	468
34	352	368	383	399	415	421	437	453
35	341	357	371	386	402	408	423	438
Area, sq in	38.64	40.39	42.14	43.89	45.64	46.83	48.58	50.33
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	1 174	1 258	1 340	1 424	1 509	1 459	1 544	1 630
r_{1-1}, in.....	5.52	5.58	5.64	5.70	5.75	5.58	5.64	5.69
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	659	688	717	745	774	779	808	837
r_{2-2}, in.....	4.13	4.13	4.12	4.12	4.12	4.08	4.08	4.08
Weight, lb per lin ft..	131.4	137.4	143.3	149.3	155.2	159.3	165.2	171.2

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

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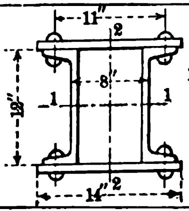
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXVI* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 12-Inc Channel-Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13).

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

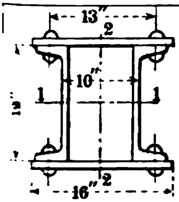
Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 12-in channels, two 14-in plates						
	35-lb channels, $1\frac{1}{8}$-in plates	35-lb channels, $1\frac{3}{16}$-in plates	35-lb channels, $1\frac{1}{4}$-in plates	35-lb channels, $1\frac{5}{16}$-in plates	35-lb channels, $1\frac{3}{8}$-in plates	35-lb channels, $1\frac{7}{16}$-in plates	35-lb channels, $1\frac{1}{2}$-in plates
11	677	700	723	745	768	791	814
12	677	700	723	745	768	791	814
13	677	700	723	745	768	791	814
14	677	700	723	745	768	791	814
15	677	700	723	745	768	791	814
16	677	700	723	745	768	791	814
17	677	700	723	745	768	791	814
18	677	700	723	745	768	791	814
19	677	700	723	745	768	791	814
20	677	700	723	745	768	791	814
21	668	689	712	734	757	779	802
22	653	674	695	717	739	761	783
23	637	658	679	700	722	743	765
24	622	642	663	684	704	725	746
25	607	626	646	667	687	707	728
26	591	610	630	650	670	689	709
27	576	594	614	633	652	672	691
28	561	578	597	616	635	654	672
29	545	563	581	599	617	636	654
30	530	547	564	582	600	618	635
31	515	531	548	565	583	600	617
32	499	515	532	548	565	582	599
33	484	499	515	531	548	564	580
34	469	483	499	515	530	546	562
35	453	467	482	498	513	528	543
Area, sq in	52.08	53.83	55.58	57.33	59.08	60.83	62.58
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	1 719	1 808	1 899	1 992	2 087	2 183	2 280
r_{1-1}, in.....	5.74	5.80	5.85	5.89	5.94	5.99	6.04
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	865	894	922	951	980	1 008	1 037
r_{2-2}, in.....	4.08	4.07	4.07	4.07	4.07	4.07	4.07
Weight, lb per lin ft..	177.1	183.1	189.0	195.0	200.9	206.9	212.8

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; thos below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXVI * **(Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 12-Inch Channel-Columns**



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 12-in channels, two 16-in plates									
	30-lb channels, 15/16-in plates	30-lb channels, 1-in plates	30-lb channels, 1 1/16-in plates	30-lb channels, 1 1/8-in plates	30-lb channels, 1 3/16-in plates	30-lb channels, 1 1/4-in plates	35-lb channels, 1 3/16-in plates	35-lb channels, 1 1/4-in plates	35-lb channels, 1 5/16-in plates	35-lb channels, 1 3/8-in plates
11	619	645	671	697	723	749	762	788	814	840
12	619	645	671	697	723	749	762	788	814	840
13	619	645	671	697	723	749	762	788	814	840
14	619	645	671	697	723	749	762	788	814	840
15	619	645	671	697	723	749	762	788	814	840
16	619	645	671	697	723	749	762	788	814	840
17	619	645	671	697	723	749	762	788	814	840
18	619	645	671	697	723	749	762	788	814	840
19	619	645	671	697	723	749	762	788	814	840
20	619	645	671	697	723.	749	762	788	814	840
21	619	645	671	697	723	749	762	788	814	840
22	619	645	671	697	723	749	762	788	814	840
23	619	645	671	697	723	749	762	788	814	840
24	619	645	671	697	723	749	762	787	813	838
25	610	635	660	686	711	736	747	772	797	822
26	599	623	648	673	697	721	732	756	781	805
27	587	611	635	659	683	707	718	741	766	789
28	575	599	622	646	669	693	703	726	750	773
29	563	586	609	633	655	678	688	711	734	757
30	552	574	596	619	642	664	674	696	719	741
31	540	562	583	606	628	649	659	681	703	724
32	528	549	571	593	614	635	644	665	687	708
33	516	537	558	579	600	621	630	650	672	692
34	504	525	545	566	586	606	615	635	656	676
35	493	512	532	553	572	592	600	620	640	660
Area, sq in	47.64	49.64	51.64	53.64	55.64	57.64	58.58	60.58	62.58	64.58
I_{1-1}, in⁴.....	1 581	1 678	1 777	1 878	1 980	2 084	2 015	2 119	2 225	2 333
r_{1-1}, in.....	5.76	5.81	5.87	5.92	5.97	6.01	5.87	5.91	5.96	6.01
I_{2-2}, in⁴.....	1 121	1 164	1 206	1 249	1 292	1 334	1 349	1 392	1 434	1 477
r_{2-2}, in.....	4.85	4.84	4.83	4.83	4.82	4.81	4.80	4.79	4.79	4.78
Weight, lb per lin ft..	162.0	168.8	175.6	182.4	189.2	196.0	199.2	206.0	212.8	219.6

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

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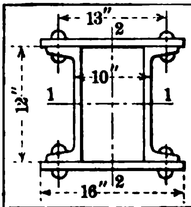
* **From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.**

Table XXVI * (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 12-Inc Channel-Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 12-in channels, two 16-in plates									
	35-lb channels, $1\frac{7}{16}$-in plates	35-lb channels, $1\frac{1}{2}$-in plates	35-lb channels, $1\frac{9}{16}$-in plates	35-lb channels, $1\frac{5}{8}$-in plates	35-lb channels, $1\frac{11}{16}$-in plates	35-lb channels, $1\frac{3}{4}$-in plates	35-lb channels, $1\frac{13}{16}$-in plates	35-lb channels, $1\frac{7}{8}$-in plates	35-lb channels, $1\frac{15}{16}$-in plates	35-lb channels, 2-in plates
11	866	892	918	944	970	996	1 022	1 048	1 074	1 10
12	866	892	918	944	970	996	1 022	1 048	1 074	1 10
13	866	892	918	944	970	996	1 022	1 048	1 074	1 10
14	866	892	918	944	970	996	1 022	1 048	1 074	1 10
15	866	892	918	944	970	996	1 022	1 048	1 074	1 10
16	866	892	918	944	970	996	1 022	1 048	1 074	1 10
17	866	892	918	944	970	996	1 022	1 048	1 074	1 10
18	866	892	918	944	970	996	1 022	1 048	1 074	1 10
19	866	892	918	944	970	996	1 022	1 048	1 074	1 10
20	866	892	918	944	970	996	1 022	1 048	1 074	1 10
21	866	892	918	944	970	996	1 022	1 048	1 074	1 10
22	866	892	918	944	970	996	1 022	1 048	1 074	1 10
23	866	892	918	944	970	996	1 022	1 048	1 074	1 10
24	864	889	915	940	966	992	1 017	1 042	1 068	1 09
25	847	872	897	922	947	972	997	1 022	1 047	1 07
26	830	854	879	903	928	953	977	1 002	1 027	1 05
27	814	837	862	885	909	934	957	981	1 006	1 02
28	797	820	844	867	891	914	937	961	985	1 00
29	780	803	826	848	872	895	917	941	964	98
30	764	785	808	830	853	876	897	920	943	96
31	747	768	791	812	834	857	878	900	922	94
32	730	751	773	794	815	837	858	880	901	92
33	713	734	755	775	797	818	838	859	881	90
34	697	716	737	757	778	799	818	839	860	87
35	680	699	720	739	759	779	798	819	839	85
Area, sq in	66.58	68.58	70.58	72.58	74.58	76.58	78.58	80.58	82.58	84.5
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	2 443	2 555	2 668	2 783	2 901	3 020	3 141	3 264	3 389	3 51
r_{1-1}, in.....	6.06	6.10	6.15	6.19	6.24	6.28	6.32	6.36	6.41	6.
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	1 520	1 562	1 605	1 648	1 690	1 733	1 776	1 818	1 861	1 9
r_{2-2}, in.....	4.78	4.77	4.77	4.76	4.76	4.76	4.75	4.75	4.75	4.
Weight, lb per lin ft..	226.4	233.2	240.0	246.8	253.6	260.4	267.2	274.0	280.8	287.

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; thos below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

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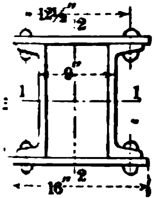
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXVII.* Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 15-Inch Channel-Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\, l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 15-in channels, latticed				Two 15-in channels, two 16-in plates		
	33-lb channels, single lattice	35-lb channels, single lattice	40-lb channels, single lattice	45-lb channels, single lattice	33-lb channels, ⅜-in plates	33-lb channels, 7/16-in plates	33-lb channels, ½-in plates
11	257	268	306	344	413	439	465
12	257	268	306	344	413	439	465
13	257	268	306	344	413	439	465
14	257	268	306	344	413	439	465
15	257	268	306	344	413	439	465
16	257	268	306	344	413	439	465
17	257	268	306	344	413	439	465
18	257	268	306	344	413	439	465
19	257	268	306	344	413	439	465
20	257	268	306	344	413	439	465
21	257	268	306	344	413	439	465
22	257	268	306	344	413	439	465
23	257	268	306	344	413	439	465
24	257	268	306	343	413	439	465
25	257	266	301	336	407	432	457
26	252	261	295	329	400	424	448
27	247	256	289	322	392	415	440
28	243	251	284	316	384	407	431
29	238	246	278	309	376	399	422
30	233	241	272	302	368	390	413
31	228	236	266	296	360	382	404
32	224	231	260	289	352	373	395
33	219	226	254	282	345	365	386
34	214	221	249	276	337	357	377
35	209	216	243	269	329	348	368
Area, sq in	19.80	20.58	23.52	26.48	31.80	33.80	35.80
I_{1-1}, in⁴	625	640	695	750	1 334	1 459	1 586
r_{1-1}, in	5.62	5.58	5.43	5.32	6.48	6.57	6.66
I_{2-2}, in⁴	491	504	552	597	747	789	832
r_{2-2}, in	4.98	4.95	4.84	4.75	4.85	4.83	4.82
Weight, per lin ft	80.2	84.2	92.1	102.2	106.8	113.6	120.4

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

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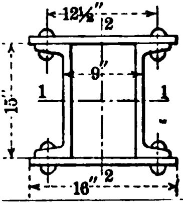
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

able XXVII[*] (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 15-Inc Channel-Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13).

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 15-in channels, two 16-in plates						
	33-lb channels, 9/16-in plates	33-lb channels, 5/8-in plates	35-lb channels, 5/8-in plates	35-lb channels, 11/16-in plates	35-lb channels, 3/4-in plates	35-lb channels, 13/16-in plates	35-lb channels, 7/8-in plates
11	491	517	528	554	580	606	632
12	491	517	528	554	580	606	632
13	491	517	528	554	580	606	632
14	491	517	528	554	580	606	632
15	491	517	528	554	580	606	632
16	491	517	528	554	580	606	632
17	491	517	528	554	580	606	632
18	491	517	528	554	580	606	632
19	491	517	528	554	580	606	632
20	491	517	528	554	580	606	632
21	491	517	528	554	580	606	632
22	491	517	528	554	580	606	632
23	491	517	528	554	580	606	632
24	491	517	527	552	578	604	629
25	482	507	517	542	567	592	617
26	473	498	507	531	555	580	605
27	464	488	497	520	544	569	592
28	454	478	486	510	533	557	580
29	445	468	476	499	522	545	568
30	435	458	466	488	511	533	556
31	426	448	456	478	499	522	543
32	416	438	446	467	488	510	531
33	407	428	436	456	477	498	519
34	398	418	425	446	466	487	507
35	388	408	415	435	454	475	494
Area, sq in	37.80	39.80	40.58	42.58	44.58	46.58	48.58
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	1 715	1 847	1 861	1 994	2 129	2 267	2 406
r_{1-1}, in.....	6.74	6.81	6.77	6.84	6.91	6.98	7.04
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	875	917	930	973	1 016	1 058	1 101
r_{2-2}, in.....	4.81	4.80	4.79	4.78	4.77	4.77	4.76
Weight, lb per lin ft..	127.2	134.0	138.0	144.8	151.6	158.4	165.2

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

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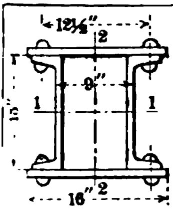
[*] From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXVII* (Continued). **Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 15-Inch Channel-Columns**



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 15-in channels, two 16-in plates						
	40-lb channels, 13/16-in plates	40-lb channels, 7/8-in plates	40-lb channels, 15/16-in plates	40-lb channels, 1-in plates	40-lb channels, 1 1/16-in plates	40-lb channels, 1 1/8-in plates	45-lb channels, 1 1/16-in plates
11	644	670	696	722	748	774	786
12	644	670	696	722	748	774	786
13	644	670	696	722	748	774	786
14	644	670	696	722	748	774	786
15	644	670	696	722	748	774	786
16	644	670	696	722	748	774	786
17	644	670	696	722	748	774	786
18	644	670	696	722	748	774	786
19	644	670	696	722	748	774	786
20	644	670	696	722	748	774	786
21	644	670	696	722	748	774	786
22	644	670	696	722	748	774	786
23	644	670	696	722	748	774	786
24	639	665	690	715	741	767	777
25	627	651	677	701	727	752	761
26	614	638	663	687	712	737	746
27	602	625	649	673	697	721	730
28	589	612	636	659	683	706	715
29	577	599	622	645	668	691	699
30	564	586	609	631	653	676	684
31	551	573	595	616	639	661	668
32	539	560	581	602	624	646	653
33	526	547	568	588	609	630	637
34	514	534	554	574	595	615	622
35	501	520	541	560	580	600	606
Area, sq in	49.52	51.52	53.52	55.52	57.52	59.52	60.48
I_{1-1}, in⁴	2 322	2 461	2 602	2 746	2 891	3 039	2 946
r_{1-1}, in	6.85	6.91	6.97	7.03	7.09	7.15	6.98
I_{2-2}, in⁴	1 106	1 149	1 192	1 234	1 277	1 320	1 322
r_{2-2}, in	4.73	4.72	4.72	4.71	4.71	4.71	4.68
Weight, lb per lin ft	168.4	175.2	182.0	188.8	195.6	202.4	205.6

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

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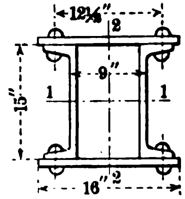
[*] From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXVII* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 15-Inch Channel-Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\, l/r$$

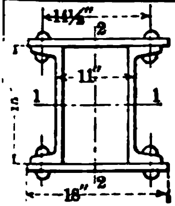
Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 15-in channels, two 16-in plates						
	45-lb channels, 1⅛-in plates	45-lb channels, 1 3/16-in plates	45-lb channels, 1¼-in plates	45-lb channels, 1 5/16-in plates	45-lb channels, 1⅜-in plates	45-lb channels, 1 7/16-in plates	45-lb channels, 1½-in plates
11	812	838	864	890	916	942	968
12	812	838	864	890	916	942	968
13	812	838	864	890	916	942	968
14	812	838	864	890	916	942	968
15	812	838	864	890	916	942	968
16	812	838	864	890	916	942	968
17	812	838	864	890	916	942	968
18	812	838	864	890	916	942	968
19	812	838	864	890	916	942	968
20	812	838	864	890	916	942	968
21	812	838	864	890	916	942	968
22	812	838	864	890	916	942	968
23	812	838	864	890	916	942	968
24	802	827	853	879	904	930	956
25	786	811	836	861	886	912	937
26	770	794	819	844	868	893	918
27	754	778	802	826	850	874	898
28	738	761	785	808	832	856	879
29	722	745	768	791	814	837	860
30	705	728	751	773	796	818	841
31	689	711	734	756	778	800	822
32	673	695	716	738	760	781	803
33	657	678	699	720	741	763	784
34	641	662	682	703	723	744	764
35	625	645	665	685	705	725	745
Area, sq in	62.48	64.48	66.48	68.48	70.48	72.48	74.48
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	3 094	3 244	3 396	3 550	3 707	3 865	4 026
r_{1-1}, in.....	7.04	7.09	7.15	7.20	7.25	7.30	7.35
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	1 365	1 408	1 450	1 493	1 536	1 578	1 621
r_{2-2}, in.....	4.67	4.67	4.67	4.67	4.67	4.67	4.67
Weight, lb per lin ft..	212.4	219.2	226.0	232 8	239.6	246.4	253.2

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXVII * (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 15-Inch Channel-Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 15-in channels, two 18-in plates							
	33-lb channels, ⅜-in plates	33-lb channels, 7/16-in plates	33-lb channels, ½-in plates	33-lb channels, 9/16-in plates	33-lb channels, ⅝-in plates	35-lb channels, ⅝-in plates	35-lb channels, 11/16-in plates	35-lb channels, ¾-in plates
11	433	462	491	521	550	560	589	619
12	433	462	491	521	550	560	589	619
13	433	462	491	521	550	560	589	619
14	433	462	491	521	550	560	589	619
15	433	462	491	521	550	560	589	619
16	433	462	491	521	550	560	589	619
17	433	462	491	521	550	560	589	619
18	433	462	491	521	550	560	589	619
19	433	462	491	521	550	560	589	619
20	433	462	491	521	550	560	589	619
21	433	462	491	521	550	560	589	619
22	433	462	491	521	550	560	589	619
23	433	462	491	521	550	560	589	619
24	433	462	491	521	550	560	589	619
25	433	462	491	521	550	560	589	619
26	433	462	491	521	550	560	589	619
27	433	462	491	521	550	560	589	619
28	433	462	491	520	549	558	586	615
29	428	456	484	512	539	549	577	605
30	421	449	476	503	530	540	567	594
31	414	441	468	494	521	530	557	584
32	407	433	459	486	512	521	547	574
33	400	426	451	477	503	512	537	563
34	393	418	443	469	494	502	527	553
35	386	411	435	460	485	493	518	543
Area, sq in	33.30	35.55	37.80	40.05	42.30	43.08	45.33	47.58
I_{1-1}, in^4	1 423	1 564	1 707	1 852	1 999	2 014	2 164	2 316
r_{1-1}, in	6.54	6.63	6.72	6.80	6.87	6.84	6.91	6.98
I_{2-2}, in^4	1 069	1 130	1 190	1 251	1 312	1 332	1 393	1 453
r_{2-2}, in	5.67	5.64	5.61	5.59	5.57	5.56	5.54	5.53
Weight, lb per lin ft	111.9	119.6	127.2	134.9	142.5	146.5	154.2	161.8

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

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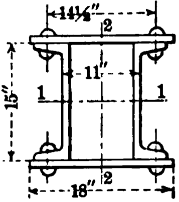
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXVII* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 15-Inc Channel-Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\, l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 15-in channels, two 18-in plates							
	35-lb channels, 13/16-in plates	35-lb channels, 7/8-in plates	40-lb channels, 13/16-in plates	40-lb channels, 7/8-in plates	40-lb channels, 15/16-in plates	40-lb channels, 1-in plates	40-lb channels, 1 1/16-in plates	40-lb channels, 1 1/8-in plates
11	648	677	686	715	745	774	803	832
12	648	677	686	715	745	774	803	832
13	648	677	686	715	745	774	803	832
14	648	677	686	715	745	774	803	832
15	648	677	686	715	745	774	803	832
16	648	677	686	715	745	774	803	832
17	648	677	686	715	745	774	803	832
18	648	677	686	715	745	774	803	832
19	648	677	686	715	745	774	803	832
20	648	677	686	715	745	774	803	832
21	648	677	686	715	745	774	803	832
22	648	677	686	715	745	774	803	832
23	648	677	686	715	745	774	803	832
24	648	677	686	715	745	774	803	832
25	648	677	686	715	745	774	803	832
26	648	677	686	715	745	774	803	832
27	648	677	686	715	745	774	803	832
28	643	671	680	708	736	764	793	821
29	632	660	668	696	723	751	779	807
30	621	649	657	684	711	738	766	793
31	610	637	645	672	698	725	752	779
32	599	626	634	660	685	712	738	764
33	589	615	622	648	673	698	725	750
34	578	603	610	636	660	685	711	736
35	567	592	599	624	648	672	698	722
Area, sq in	49.83	52.08	52.77	55.02	57.27	59.52	61.77	64.02
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	2 470	2 627	2 525	2 682	2 841	3 002	3 166	3 332
r_{1-1}, in.....	7.04	7.10	6.92	6.98	7.04	7.10	7.16	7.21
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	1 514	1 575	1 589	1 649	1 710	1 771	1 832	1 892
r_{2-2}, in.....	5.51	5.50	5.49	5.48	5.46	5.45	5.45	5.44
Weight, lb per lin ft..	169.5	177.1	179.5	187.1	194.8	202.4	210.1	217.7

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

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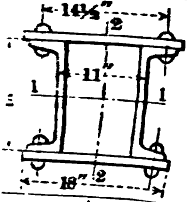
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXVII* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 15-Inch Channel-Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

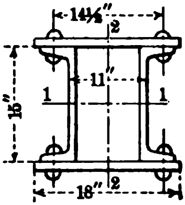
Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 15-in channels, two 18-in plates						
	45-lb channels, 1 1/16-in plates	45-lb channels, 1⅛-in plates	45-lb channels, 1 3/16-in plates	45-lb channels, 1¼-in plates	45-lb channels, 1 5/16-in plates	45-lb channels, 1⅜-in plates	45-lb channels, 1 7/16-in plates
11	841	871	900	929	958	988	1 017
12	841	871	900	929	958	988	1 017
13	841	871	900	929	958	988	1 017
14	841	871	900	929	958	988	1 017
15	841	871	900	929	958	988	1 017
16	841	871	900	929	958	988	1 017
17	841	871	900	929	958	988	1 017
18	841	871	900	929	958	988	1 017
19	841	871	900	929	958	988	1 017
20	841	871	900	929	958	988	1 017
21	841	871	900	929	958	988	1 017
22	841	871	900	929	958	988	1 017
23	841	871	900	929	958	988	1 017
24	841	871	900	929	958	988	1 017
25	841	871	900	929	958	988	1 017
26	841	871	900	929	958	988	1 017
27	841	871	900	929	958	987	1 015
28	829	857	885	913	942	970	998
29	814	843	870	897	926	953	980
30	800	828	855	882	909	936	963
31	786	813	839	866	893	919	945
32	771	798	824	850	877	902	928
33	757	783	809	834	860	885	911
34	743	768	793	818	844	868	893
35	728	754	778	802	827	852	876
Area, sq in	64.73	66.98	69.23	71.48	73.73	75.98	78.23
I_{1-1}, in^4	3 221	3 387	3 556	3 727	3 900	4 076	4 255
r_{1-1}, in	7.05	7.11	7.17	7.22	7.27	7.32	7.37
I_{2-2}, in^4	1 903	1 964	2 025	2 086	2 146	2 207	2 268
r_{2-2}, in	5.42	5.42	5.41	5.40	5.40	5.39	5.38
Weight, lb per lin ft	220.1	227.7	235.4	243.0	250.0	258.3	266.0

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

*From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXVII* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 15-Incl Channel-Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

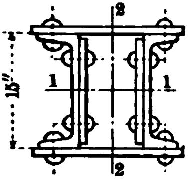
Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 15-in channels, two 18-in plates						
	45-lb channels, 1½-in plates	45-lb channels, 1$\frac{9}{16}$-in plates	45-lb channels, 1⅝-in plates	45-lb channels, 1$\frac{11}{16}$-in plates	45-lb channels, 1¾-in plates	45-lb channels, 1⅞-in plates	45-lb channels, 2-in plates
11	1 046	1 075	1 105	1 134	1 163	1 222	1 280
12	1 046	1 075	1 105	1 134	1 163	1 222	1 280
13	1 046	1 075	1 105	1 134	1 163	1 222	1 280
14	1 046	1 075	1 105	1 134	1 163	1 222	1 280
15	1 046	1 075	1 105	1 134	1 163	1 222	1 280
16	1 046	1 075	1 105	1 134	1 163	1 222	1 280
17	1 046	1 075	1 105	1 134	1 163	1 222	1 280
18	1 046	1 075	1 105	1 134	1 163	1 222	1 280
19	1 046	1 075	1 105	1 134	1 163	1 222	1 280
20	1 046	1 075	1 105	1 134	1 163	1 222	1 280
21	1 046	1 075	1 105	1 134	1 163	1 222	1 280
22	1 046	1 075	1 105	1 134	1 163	1 222	1 280
23	1 046	1 075	1 105	1 134	1 163	1 222	1 280
24	1 046	1 075	1 105	1 134	1 163	1 222	1 280
25	1 046	1 075	1 105	1 134	1 163	1 222	1 280
26	1 046	1 075	1 105	1 134	1 163	1 222	1 280
27	1 044	1 073	1 102	1 131	1 159	1 216	1 275
28	1 026	1 054	1 083	1 112	1 139	1 195	1 253
29	1 009	1 036	1 064	1 092	1 119	1 174	1 231
30	991	1 017	1 045	1 073	1 099	1 153	1 208
31	973	999	1 026	1 053	1 079	1 132	1 186
32	955	980	1 007	1 034	1 059	1 111	1 164
33	937	962	988	1 014	1 039	1 090	1 142
34	919	943	969	995	1 019	1 069	1 120
35	901	925	950	975	999	1 048	1 098
Area, sq in	80.48	82.73	84.98	87.23	89.48	93.98	98.48
I_{1-1}, in⁴	4 436	4 619	4 805	4 994	5 185	5 575	5 976
r_{1-1}, in	7.42	7.47	7.52	7.57	7.61	7.70	7.79
I_{2-2}, in⁴	2 329	2 389	2 450	2 511	2 572	2 693	2 815
r_{2-2}, in	5.38	5.37	5.37	5.37	5.36	5.35	5.35
Weight, lb per lin ft	273.6	281.3	288.9	296.6	304.2	319.5	334.8

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXVII* (Continued). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 15-Inch Channel-Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13).

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 15-in channels			Two 15-in, 45-lb channels			
	35 lb		45 lb				
	2 flange-plates 18"×2" 2 web-plates 14"×3/8"	2 flange-plates 18"×2" 2 web-plates 14"×9/16"	2 flange-plates 18"×2" 2 web-plates 14"×9/16"	2 flange-plates 20"×1 7/8" 2 web-plates 14"×5/8"	2 flange-plates 20"×2" 2 web-plates 14"×5/8"	2 flange-plates 20"×2 1/8" 2 web-plates 14"×5/8"	2 flange-plates 20"×2 1/4" 2 web-plates 14"×5/8"
11	1 340	1 408	1 485	1 547	1 612	1 677	1 742
12	1 340	1 408	1 485	1 547	1 612	1 677	1 742
13	1 340	1 408	1 485	1 547	1 612	1 677	1 742
14	1 340	1 408	1 485	1 547	1 612	1 677	1 742
15	1 340	1 408	1 485	1 547	1 612	1 677	1 742
16	1 340	1 408	1 485	1 547	1 612	1 677	1 742
17	1 340	1 408	1 485	1 547	1 612	1 677	1 742
18	1 340	1 408	1 485	1 547	1 612	1 677	1 742
19	1 340	1 408	1 485	1 547	1 612	1 677	1 742
20	1 340	1 408	1 485	1 547	1 612	1 677	1 742
21	1 340	1 408	1 485	1 547	1 612	1 677	1 742
22	1 340	1 408	1 485	1 547	1 612	1 677	1 742
23	1 340	1 408	1 485	1 547	1 612	1 677	1 742
24	1 340	1 408	1 485	1 547	1 612	1 677	1 742
25	1 340	1 408	1 485	1 547	1 612	1 677	1 742
26	1 340	1 408	1 485	1 547	1 612	1 677	1 742
27	1 331	1 394	1 465	1 547	1 612	1 677	1 742
28	1 307	1 369	1 439	1 547	1 612	1 677	1 742
29	1 284	1 344	1 413	1 547	1 612	1 677	1 742
30	1 261	1 320	1 387	1 543	1 607	1 670	1 735
31	1 238	1 295	1 361	1 519	1 582	1 644	1 708
32	1 214	1 270	1 335	1 495	1 557	1 618	1 681
33	1 191	1 246	1 309	1 471	1 532	1 592	1 654
34	1 168	1 221	1 283	1 447	1 507	1 566	1 627
35	1 145	1 197	1 257	1 424	1 482	1 540	1 600
Area, sq in	103.08	108.33	114.23	118.98	123.98	128.98	133.98
I_{1-1}, in⁴	6 037	6 123	6 233	6 397	6 843	7 300	7 769
r_{1-1}, in	7.65	7.52	7.39	7.33	7.43	7.52	7.61
I_{2-2}, in⁴	2 919	3 021	3 148	4 240	4 407	4 573	4 740
r_{2-2}, in	5.32	5.28	5.25	5.97	5.96	5.95	5.95
Weight, lb per lin ft	350.5	368.4	388.4	404.5	421 5	438 5	455.5

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60; those below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

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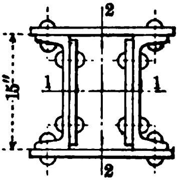
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XXVII[*] (Concluded). Safe Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for 15-Inch Channel-Columns



Allowable fiber-stress per square inch: 13 000 pounds for lengths of 60 radii or under

Reduced for lengths over 60 radii, by Formula (13),

$$S = 19\,000 - 100\,l/r$$

Weights do not include rivet-heads or other details

Effective length, ft	Two 15-in, 45-lb channels					
	2 flange-plates 20"×2⅜" 2 web-plates 14"×⅝"	2 flange-plates 20"×2½" 2 web-plates 14"×⅝"	2 flange-plates 20"×2⅝" 2 web-plates 14"×⅝"	2 flange-plates 20"×2¾" 2 web-plates 14"×⅝"	2 flange-plates 20"×2⅞" 2 web-plates 14"×⅝"	2 flange-plates 20"×3" 2 web-plates 14"×⅝"
11	1 807	1 872	1 937	2 002	2 067	2 132
12	1 807	1 872	1 937	2 002	2 067	2 132
13	1 807	1 872	1 937	2 002	2 067	2 132
14	1 807	1 872	1 937	2 002	2 067	2 132
15	1 807	1 872	1 937	2 002	2 067	2 132
16	1 807	1 872	1 937	2 002	2 067	2 132
17	1 807	1 872	1 937	2 002	2 067	2 132
18	1 807	1 872	1 937	2 002	2 067	2 132
19	1 807	1 872	1 937	2 002	2 067	2 132
20	1 807	1 872	1 937	2 002	2 067	2 132
21	1 807	1 872	1 937	2 002	2 067	2 132
22	1 807	1 872	1 937	2 002	2 067	2 132
23	1 807	1 872	1 937	2 002	2 067	2 132
24	1 807	1 872	1 937	2 002	2 067	2 132
25	1 807	1 872	1 937	2 002	2 067	2 132
26	1 807	1 872	1 937	2 002	2 067	2 132
27	1 807	1 872	1 937	2 002	2 067	2 132
28	1 807	1 872	1 937	2 002	2 067	2 132
29	1 807	1 872	1 937	2 002	2 067	2 132
30	1 798	1 863	1 926	1 991	2 054	2 118
31	1 770	1 834	1 896	1 960	2 022	2 085
32	1 742	1 805	1 866	1 929	1 989	2 052
33	1 714	1 776	1 836	1 897	1 957	2 019
34	1 686	1 747	1 806	1 866	1 925	1 985
35	1 658	1 718	1 775	1 835	1 893	1 952
Area, sq in	138.98	143.98	148.98	153.98	158.98	163.98
I_{1-1}, in^4.....	8 251	8 744	9 251	9 770	10 301	10 846
r_{1-1}, in.....	7.70	7.79	7.88	7.97	8.05	8.13
I_{2-2}, in^4.....	4 907	5 073	5 240	5 407	5 573	5 740
r_{2-2}, in.....	5.94	5.94	5.93	5.93	5.92	5.92
Weight, lb per lin ft..	472.5	489.5	506.5	523.5	540.5	557.5

Safe load-values above the heavy line are for ratios of l/r not over 60: those below the heavy line are for ratios not over 120 l/r

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[*] From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

CHAPTER XV

STRENGTH OF BEAMS AND BEAM GIRDERS. FRAMING AND CONNECTING STEEL BEAMS

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1. General Principles of the Flexure of Beams

Definitions. A structural member placed in a generally horizontal position upon two or more supports or projecting from some other construction is called a BEAM. A GIRDER is a beam carrying smaller or secondary beams. A CANTILEVER BEAM is a beam supported at the middle, or having one end fixed, as in a wall, and the other end free; or it is the part of a beam which overhangs, or projects, beyond a support. A SIMPLE BEAM is one which rests upon two supports, one at each end. A CONTINUOUS BEAM rests upon more than two supports. The distance between the supports of a simple beam, or, when so specially designated from center to center of the bearings, is the SPAN. It is usually designated by l. The loads on beams are either UNIFORMLY DISTRIBUTED or CONCENTRATED. A uniformly distributed or UNIFORM load includes the weight of the beam itself and any load spread evenly over it, such as the weight of a wall. Uniform loads are estimated by their intensity per unit of length of the beam, in pounds per linear foot. A uniform load per linear foot is represented by w, and the total uniform load by wl or W. A concentrated load is a single applied weight, such as a column and its load, or the load from another beam, and is designated by P.

Stresses and Deformations. A load on a simple beam causes the fibers to bend or deflect, and eventually to break across, or in other words, a load induces TRANSVERSE OF FLEXURAL STRESSES in the fibers. Since it is impossible to bend or deflect a simple beam without causing a shortening of the fibers on the upper or concave side and an elongation of the fibers on the lower or convex side, a load on a beam causes COMPRESSION in the upper fibers and TENSION in the lower fibers, while between the two there is a neutral layer or surface of fibers which is unchanged in length and which is called the NEUTRAL SURFACE of the beam. In a cantilever beam the reverse is the case, the upper fibers being in tension and the lower ones in compression.

Laws Determined by Experiment. From experiments it has been found that the amount of elongation or shortening of any fiber is directly proportional to its distance from the neutral surface of a beam; hence, if the ELASTIC LIMIT is not exceeded, the stresses, also, are proportional to their distances from this neutral surface. The trace of the neutral surface on a cross-section of a beam is called the NEUTRAL AXIS of the cross-section. Within the elastic limit of a material the neutral surface passes through the CENTERS OF GRAVITY of the cross-sections of a beam for all materials.

Bending Moments and Resisting Moments.* To determine the strength of any beam to resist the effects of any load or series of loads, two things must be determined: first, the moment or moments of the external destructive force or forces tending to bend and break the beam, which is called the MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT; and, secondly, the moments of the combined resistances of all the fibers in the DANGEROUS SECTION of the beam to being broken, which, in their summation, are called the MOMENT OF RESISTANCE or the RESISTING MOMENT.

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* See, also, Chapter IX, pages 324 and 325.

The Methods of Finding the Bending Moments for any load or series of loads are explained in Chapter IX. The moment of resistance is equal to the SECTION-MODULUS or SECTION-FACTOR, denoted by I/c, multiplied by the unit stress on the outermost fiber of the material, denoted by S, and it equals the bending moment.

Hence
$$M = SI/c \tag{1}$$

This is known as the FLEXURE-FORMULA and it is the fundamental formula for designing beams. Formulas for finding the section-moduli of common shapes are given in Chapter X, and the values of I/c or the section-moduli of the standard rolled shapes, are given in the tables in the same chapter.

The Coefficient of Strength,* sometimes given in tables of steel beams, is the maximum distributed load that a beam of one foot span would support without producing a fiber-stress exceeding the safe limit, generally 16 000 lb per sq in. As the strength of a beam varies inversely as its span, the safe load for any span may be obtained by dividing this coefficient by the span in feet.

Factors of Safety. In order that a beam shall just be able to carry a load and not break, that condition of equilibrium must exist, in which the maximum bending moment in the beam is equal to the section-modulus multiplied by the ultimate strength of the material. In order that a beam may be abundantly SAFE to carry a given load, the product of the section-modulus by the ultimate strength of the material must be several times greater than the maximum bending moment; and the ratio which this product bears to the maximum bending moment, or which the BREAKING-LOAD bears to the SAFE LOAD, is known as the FACTOR OF SAFETY, that is,

$$\text{Factor of safety} = \frac{\text{ultimate strength}}{\text{working stress}}$$

Ultimate Strengths and Safe Fiber-Stresses. By the STRENGTH OF THE MATERIAL is meant a certain constant quantity which is determined by experiment, and which is known as the ULTIMATE BREAKING STRENGTH. This value is of course different for each material. Table I gives the values of this constant divided by the factor of safety, or in other words, the WORKING STRESS, for most of the materials used in building-construction. The section-moduli multiplied by these values will give the SAFE RESISTING MOMENTS for the beams. The values of S in Table I for steel are about one-fourth those of the breaking-loads; for cast iron, about one-sixth; for average specimens of wood, one-sixth; and for stone and concrete, one-tenth. The safe compressive strength of cast iron for the compression-side of beams is 16 000 lb per sq in, in the New York Building Code. This is considered too high by some engineers and the author recommends 10 000 lb per sq in. This value has been used in calculating the safe loads for cast-iron columns. (See Chapter XIV, page 461.) The safe loads for the steel shapes given in the tables in this chapter are all computed on the value of 16 000 lb per sq in for *S*, but these full loads should be used with caution, and reduced when necessary to satisfy any unusual conditions. For riveted steel girders 14 000 lb per sq in is the value usually given to *S*.

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* The values for coefficients of strength have been omitted from most of the tables, following the policy of some of the latest handbooks, as the safe loads for beams, for example, can be as readily determined from the data of the tables directly, as by the process of dividing such coefficients by the spans. See, however, pages 586 to 591 and 623 to 628.

Table I. Safe Unit Fiber-Stresses, S, for Flexure of Beams*

It is to be noted that these are average values, especially those for wood

Materials	Values of *S*, lb per sq in	Materials	Values of *S*, lb per sq in
Cast iron, tension-side	3 000	Redwood, California	750
Cast iron, compression-side	16 000	Short-leaf yellow pine	1 000
Wrought iron (rolled beams)	12 000	Spruce	700
Steel (rolled beams)	16 000	White oak	1 200
Steel (riveted girders, net flange-section)	14 000	White pine	700
Steel (pins, rivets and bolts)	20 000	Bluestone flagging (North River)	305
Cedar	700	Brick (common)	50
Chestnut	800	Brickwork (in cement)	30
Cypress	800	Granite (average)	180
Douglas fir	800	Limestone (average)	145
Elm	900	Marble (average)	125
Hemlock	600	Sandstone (average)	110
Locust	1 200	Slate (average)	400
Long-leaf yellow pine	1 200	Concrete (Portland) 1:2:4	30
Norway pine	800	Concrete (Portland) 1:2:5	20
		Concrete (natural) 1:2:4	16
		Concrete (natural) 1:2:5	10

* For a comparison of values given in different building laws see Table XVII, page 648, Chapter XVI. Compare, also, with Table XVI, page 647, Chapter XVI. For ultimate stresses for woods, see Tables XVIII and XIX, pages 650 and 651, Chapter XVI. For safe loads for unit beams, see Tables II and III, page 628, Chapter XVI.

Beams Unsymmetrically Loaded or of Irregular Cross-Section. There are certain loadings and cross-sections of beams that occur most frequently in building-construction, and for which tables have been worked out that give the safe loads directly; but for a beam unsymmetrically loaded, or for a beam of irregular cross-section, it is impossible to compute tables for strength, as in each case the values must be computed by determining either the section-modulus, I/c, required to resist the maximum bending moment, or the maximum bending moment that may be allowed for a given value of the section-modulus.

General Formulas for the Flexure of Beams.* The general formula for any beam in a state of flexure under any system of loading is

$$\text{Maximum bending moment in INCH-POUNDS} = \text{section-modulus} \times S \qquad (2)$$

or

$$M_{max} = SI/c \qquad (2)'$$

Also

$$\text{Section-modulus} = \frac{\text{maximum bending moment in in-lb}}{S} \qquad (3)$$

or

$$I/c = M_{max}/S \qquad (3)'$$

* See, also, Chapters IX, X and XVI.

If the bending moment is computed in FOOT-POUNDS, these formulas becom

$$\text{Maximum bending moment} = \frac{\text{section-modulus} \times S}{12} \qquad (4$$

or

$$M_{\max} = SI/12c \qquad (4$$

and

$$\text{Section-modulus} = \frac{12 \times \text{maximum bending moment}}{S} \qquad (5$$

or

$$I/c = 12\,M_{\max}/S \qquad (5)$$

By substituting for the bending moments their values in terms of the load and the spans, the following formulas which apply to beams of any cross-sectio are readily deduced.

2. Formulas for Safe Loads for Beams for Different Conditions of Loading and Support

I/c = the section-modulus;
S = the safe unit fiber-stress in pounds per square inch;
W = the total uniform load in pounds;
P = the concentrated load in pounds;
l = the span in feet.

Values of I/c for the various shapes and sizes of structural-steel shapes are given in the tables of Chapter X.

Case I

Beam Fixed at One End and Loaded with a Concentrated Load P, Near the Free End (Fig. 1).

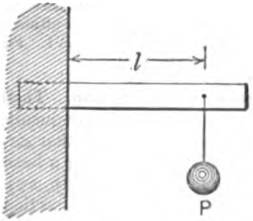

Fig. 1. Cantilever Beam. Load near Free End

From Formula (4)′,

$$M_{\max} = SI/12c$$

From Case I, Chapter IX,

$$M_{\max} = Pl$$

Hence

$$Pl = SI/12c$$

and the safe load in pounds is

$$P = SI/12cl \qquad (6)$$

and the section-modulus is

$$I/c = 12\,Pl/S \qquad (6)'$$

Example 1. A steel T bar is fixed at one end in a brick wall, and loaded at the other end with 600 lb, the distance l being 4 ft. What is the size of the bar required to support the load with safety? (In all examples the weights of the beams are neglected, unless particularly mentioned.)

Solution. Allowing 16 000 lb per sq in for the value of S, Formula (6)′ gives

$$I/c = (12 \times 600 \times 4)/16\,000 = 1.8$$

The next step is to ascertain what T bar has a section-modulus equal to 1.8. In Table XIV, page 369, the nearest section-modulus to this is 1.9, corresponding to a 3 by 4 by ½-in T bar.

For an I beam, by Table IV, page 355, $I/c = 1.8$, the same as for the T bar, and calls for a 3-in 6.5-lb I beam.

Case II

Beam Fixed at One End and Loaded with a Uniformly Distributed Load W (Fig. 2).

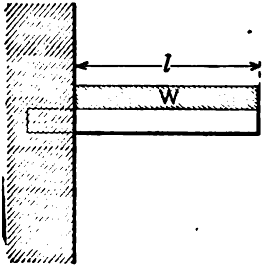

Fig. 2. Cantilever Beam. Distributed Load over Entire Span

From Formula (4)′

$$M_{\max} = SI/12c$$

From Case II, Chapter IX,

$$M_{\max} = Wl/2$$

Hence

$$Wl/2 = SI/12c$$

and the safe load in pounds is

$$W = SI/6cl \tag{7}$$

and

$$I/c = 6Wl/S \tag{7'}$$

Example 2. What is the size of a cantilever steel I beam required to carry a uniformly distributed load of 150 lb per ft over a length of 6 ft?

Solution. $W = 150 \times 6 = 900$ lb. Substituting in formula (7)′,

$$I/c = \frac{6 \times 900 \times 6}{16\,000} = 2.25$$

In Table IV, page 355, the nearest section-modulus to this is 1.9, which is that of a 3-in 7.5-lb beam, the heaviest of that depth. However, as the lightest 4-in beam, also, weighs 7.5 lb per ft it probably would be selected because of its greater stiffness, although its section-modulus is 3, still greater than required.

Case III

Beam Supported at Both Ends and Loaded with a Concentrated Load at the Middle (Fig. 3).

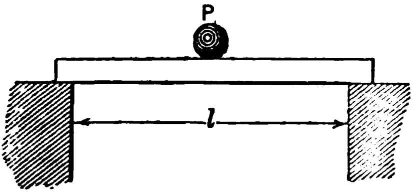

Fig. 3. Simple Beam. Load at Middle of Span

From Formula (4)′

$$M_{\max} = SI/12c$$

From Case IV, Chapter IX,

$$M_{\max} = Pl/4$$

Hence

$$Pl/4 = SI/12c$$

and the safe load in pounds is

$$P = SI/3cl \tag{8}$$

and

$$I/c = 3Pl/S \tag{8'}$$

Example 3. What steel I beam will safely support a concentrated load of 7 tons applied at the middle of a 15-ft span?

Solution. $P = 7$ tons $= 14\,000$ lb. Substituting in formula (8)′,

$$I/c = \frac{3 \times 14\,000 \times 15}{16\,000} = 39.3$$

Referring again to Table IV, page 355, it is seen that a 12-in 35-lb beam has a section-modulus of 38, while a 12-in 40-lb beam, the next larger size, has section-modulus of 44.8. The 35-lb beam, however, would undoubtedly safe.

Case IV

Beam Supported at Both Ends and Loaded with a Uniformly Distributed Lo (Fig. 4).

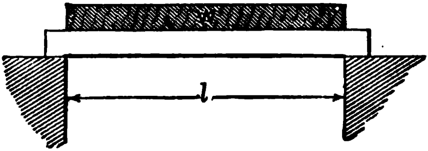

Fig. 4. Simple Beam. Distributed Load over Entire Span

From Formula (4)'

$$M_{\max} = SI/12\,c$$

From Case V, Chapter IX,

$$M_{\max} = Wl/8$$

Hence

$$Wl/8 = SI/12\,c$$

and the safe load in pounds is

$$W = 2\,SI/3\,cl \qquad ($$

and

$$I/c = 3\,Wl/2\,S \qquad (9$$

Example 4. What steel I beam will safely carry a uniformly distributed lo of 1 000 lb per ft over a span of 25 ft?

Solution. $W = wl = 1\,000 \times 25 = 25\,000$ lb. Substituting in Formula (9)'

$$I/c = \frac{3 \times 25\,000 \times 25}{2 \times 16\,000} = 58.6$$

From Table IV, page 354, the nearest section-modulus is 58.9, which is that a 15-in 42-lb beam.

Case V

Beam Supported at Both Ends and Loaded with a Distributed Load Over a P of the Span (Fig. 5).

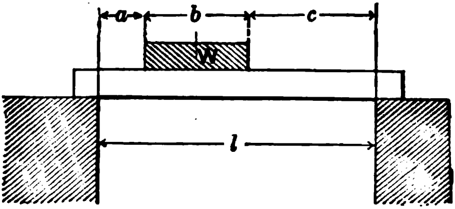

Fig. 5. Simple Beam. Distributed Load over Part of Span

In this case the load is generally given, and the problem is to determine tl size of the required beam. This can be done accurately only by computin the maximum bending moment as explained for Case VIII, Chapter IX, and stituting the value thus found in Formulas (3)′ or (5)′.

Example 5. What steel I beam will safely carry a uniformly distributed load of 1 200 lb per ft over part of the span, beginning at a point 5 ft from the left reaction and extending over a distance of 6 ft, the span of the beam being 18 ft?

Solution. The first step is to find the point of maximum bending moment, which is the point of no shear. Obviously the maximum shear is just at the right of the reaction nearest the load, which in this case is the left reaction. To find the left reaction (see Chapter IX, page 324) the center of moments is taken at the right reaction and the equation of moments is $R_1 \times 18$ ft − (1 200 lb × 6 ft) × 10 ft = 0. 18 R_1 = 72 000 and R_1 = 4 000 lb. The shear just at the right of R_1 is therefore +4 000 lb which, if the weight of the beam itself is not considered, remains unchanged for every section of the beam between the left reaction and the uniformly distributed load of 1 200 lb per ft. From there on in passing to the right, the shear is diminished at the rate of 1 200 lb per ft; and it becomes zero, therefore, at a point 4 000 lb/1 200 lb per ft = 3.3 ft to the right of the 5-ft point. Hence the point of no shear and consequently the point of maximum bending moment is at 5 ft + 3.3 ft, or 8.3 ft, from the left end. The equation for the maximum bending moment at this point is, therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
M_{\max} &= 4\,000 \text{ lb} \times 8.3 \text{ ft} - (1\,200 \text{ lb} \times 3.3 \text{ ft}) \times 3.3/2 \text{ ft} \\
&= 33\,200 \text{ ft-lb} - 6\,574 \text{ ft-lb} = 26\,626 \text{ ft-lb, or } 319\,512 \text{ in-lb}
\end{aligned}
$$

From Formula (3), I/c = 319 512 in-lb/16 000 lb per sq in = 20. From Table IV, page 355, the nearest section-modulus corresponding to this is 20.4, that of a 9-in 25-lb beam. A 10-in 25-lb beam, however, being stronger and stiffer, would probably be used. The 10-in 22 lb beam is what is termed a SUPPLEMENTARY BEAM. (See page 253.)

Case VI

Beam Supported at Both Ends and Loaded with a Concentrated Load, not at the Middle (Fig. 6).

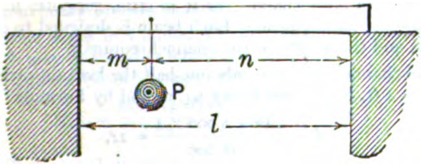

Fig. 6. Simple Beam. Concentrated Load at any Point

From Formula (4)′,

$$M_{\max} = SI/12\,c$$

From Case VI, Chapter IX,

$$M_{\max} = Pmn/l$$

Hence

$$Pmn/l = SI/12\,c$$

and the safe load in pounds is

$$P = SIl/12\,cmn \tag{10}$$

and

$$I/c = 12\,Pmn/lS \qquad (10)'$$

m, n and l being in feet.

Example 6. A steel I beam 20 ft in span is to support a concentrated load of 24 000 lb at a distance of 6 ft from the left support. What must be the size and weight of the beam?

Solution. In this case $P = 24\,000$ lb, $l = 20$ ft, $m = 6$ ft, $n = 14$ ft and $S = 16\,000$ lb per sq in.

Then Formula (10)′ gives

$$I/c = \frac{12 \times 24\,000 \times 6 \times 14}{20 \times 16\,000} = 75.6$$

Table IV, page 354, the nearest value for the section-modulus I/c for axis 1–1 is above 75.6, or 81.2 for a 15-in 60-lb beam. An 18-in 55-lb beam having a section-modulus of 88.4 would be used, unless conditions fix the head-room, as it weighs 5 lb per ft less, and being deeper is consequently stiffer.

Case VII

Beam Supported at Both Ends and Loaded Symmetrically with Two Equal Concentrated Loads (Fig. 7).

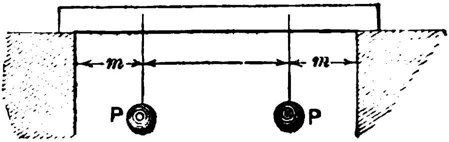

Fig. 7. Simple Beam. Equal Concentrated Loads Symmetrically Placed

From Formula (4)′ and Case VII, Chapter IX, each of the safe loads in pounds is

$$P = SI/12cm \tag{11}$$

and

$$I/c = 12Pm/S \tag*{(11)′}$$

Example 7. A 12-in steel channel, 12 ft in span, supports half the loads of two 10-in beams 4 ft from each end. Each beam is designed to carry 16 000 lb. What is the size and the weight of the channel required?

Solution. The channel supports only one-half the load on each beam; hence, $P = 8\,000$ lb, $m = 4$ ft, $S = 16\,000$ lb per sq in, and by Formula (11)′,

$$I/c = \frac{12 \times 8\,000 \times 4}{16\,000} = 24,$$

which is the section-modulus of a 12-in 25-lb channel. (See Table VIII, page 359.)

Weights of Beams in Flexure-Formulas. It will be noticed that in formulas (11) and (11)′ the span of the beam is not taken into account, and if the beam itself had no weight there would be no difference in the fiber-stresses no matter how far apart the loads P were placed. In reality, however, steel beams have considerable weight, and to be absolutely correct an example such as the one above should include the weight of the beam, which would, of course be a uniformly distributed load. The maximum bending moment of the beam can be found graphically as explained on page 329, and the value of I/c computed by Formulas (3)′ or (5)′. Where, however, the loads are spaced so as to divide the beam into three equal parts, as in the last example, one-third of the weight of the beam may be added to P with sufficient accuracy. Thus, the weight of the channel in the above example between the supports would be 25 lb × 12, or 300 lb, and P would be 8 100 lb, which would give a value for I/c of 24.1. The factor of safety in the loads allowed is generally large enough to offset the slight effect produced by the weight of the beam; but if the full load assumed is likely to be imposed on the beam, then allowance must be made for the weight of the beam itself.

Case VIII

Beam Supported at Both Ends and Loaded Symmetrically with Several Concentrated Loads (Fig. 8).

In this case it is necessary to compute the maximum bending moment in the beam and proportion the beam by Formulas (3)′ or (5)′.

Example 8. A steel-beam girder is to be designed to support a brick wall, 16 in thick and weighing 138 000 lb, over an opening 22 ft wide. The girder must also support the ends of four 10-in floor-beams spaced as in Fig. 8, each beam carrying 16 000 lb. What is the size and weight of the girder required?

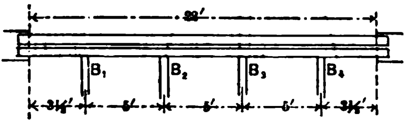

Fig. 8. Simple Beam. Several Concentrated Loads Symmetrically Placed

Solution. The first step is to make an allowance for the weight of the girder. The total load on the girder (neglecting the weight of the girder itself) = 138 000 lb + 4 × 8 000 lb (one-half the load on each beam) = 170 000 lb, or 85 tons. As this is much more than the heaviest single rolled beam will carry, it will be necessary to use a pair of beams and the load on each beam, therefore, will be 42.5 tons. Considering for the present the entire load as uniformly distributed, Table IV, page 577, shows that to support 42.5 tons, or 85 000 lb, over a span of 22 ft requires a 24-in 85-lb beam. The girder then will weigh between supports 2 × 85 × 22 = 3 740 lb, or about 4 000 lb. This added to the weight of the wall makes, for the total distributed load, 142 000 lb. The next step is to determine the maximum bending moment.

By the formulas given in Chapter IX the maximum bending moments for the various loads may be found as follows:

For the wall and girder (Case V, page 326),

$$M_{\max} = \frac{22 \times 142\,000}{8} = 390\,500 \text{ ft-lb}$$

For the beam B_1 (Case VI, page 327),

$$M_{1\max} = \frac{8\,000 \times 3\tfrac{1}{2} \times 18\tfrac{1}{2}}{22} = 23\,545 \text{ ft-lb}$$

For the beam B_2 (Case VI, page 327),

$$M_{2\max} = \frac{8\,000 \times 8\tfrac{1}{2} \times 13\tfrac{1}{2}}{22} = 41\,727 \text{ ft-lb}$$

The beams being spaced symmetrically from the middle of the span, the bending moments for B_3 and B_4 will be equal to those of B_2 and B_1 respectively. Plotting the bending moments to a scale, in the manner explained for Figs. 17 and 18, page 330, the diagram shown in Fig. 9 is obtained. The greatest bending moment is the ordinate M_2, which scales 486 500 ft-lb, or 5 838 000 in-lb.

Note. Since the loads are symmetrically placed, this ordinate is over the middle point of the girder, but it is drawn to one side in the figure in order not to confuse it with the ordinate M, the maximum bending moment for the uniformly distributed load. Substituting this value of M_x in formula (3)′,

$$I/c = \frac{5\,838\,000 \text{ in-lb}}{16\,000 \text{ lb per sq in}} = 365$$

the section-modulus for both beams, or 182.5 for one beam. From Table IV, page 354, it is found that a 24-in 90-lb beam has a section-modulus of 186.5, and two 90-lb beams will just answer. The assumption of a uniform distribution of such a loading over every foot of a girder usually results in the selection of lighter beams than are indicated by the second solution, in which each concentrated load is considered as really concentrated at a point. The two beams should be securely bolted together with separators near each connection of beams B_1, B_2, B_3, B_4, and at each end of the girder.

A DOUBLE-BEAM GIRDER, however, is not considered the best kind of girder to use under this condition of loading, as it is not good construction nor economical of material. As a general rule BEAM GIRDERS should be used only when the loads can be applied to the upper flanges of both beams. Transferring a load directly to the web of one beam, even though it is connected with the other beam by means of separators, does not insure as equal distribution of the loading. The author, therefore, recommends in this case a RIVETED BEAM GIRDER or a RIVETED PLATE GIRDER. The method above indicated applies to any method of loading, the only difference in the calculation being in the determination of the maximum bending moments.

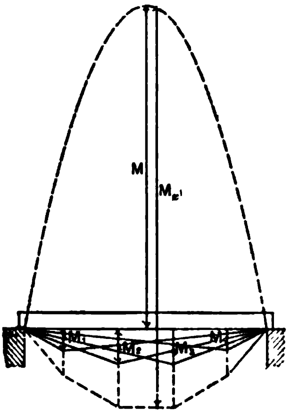

Fig. 9. Bending-moment Diagram for Beam Shown in Fig. 8.

Inclined Beams. The strength of beams inclined to the horizontal may be computed, with sufficient accuracy for most purposes, by using the formulas given for horizontal beams, and taking the HORIZONTAL PROJECTIONS of the beams as the spans.

3. Steel Beams and Girders*

Materials Used for Beams. Practically the only materials used in structural work for beams, at the present day, are wood, steel and reinforced concrete. As wooden beams are always rectangular in cross-section, the general formulas used in this chapter can be much simplified by substituting for I/c its value in terms of the breadth and depth of the beam. Formulas for wooden beams will therefore be found in Chapter XVI. Cast iron, also, is occasionally used for beams or lintels, but as this material is much stronger in resisting compression than tension, the beam must be of a special shape in order to use the material to advantage. The strength of cast-iron beams is therefore considered under a special heading in Chapter XVI. Formulas for reinforced-concrete beams are given in Chapter XXIV, pages 935 to 940.

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* For the deflection of steel beams, see Chapter XVIII.

Forms of Steel Beams. Since 1893, steel beams have superseded wrought-iron beams, and the latter are now never used. Any shape of rolled steel may be used as a beam, but the I shape is the most economical, as it possesses the greatest resistance for a given weight of metal. Next to the I beam, in economy, is the channel, then the deck beam; angles and tees are the least economical of all shapes. The following values show the safe loads per pound of steel, for the various shapes, for a 10-ft span; the same ratio would hold for other spans.

10-in I beam	10-in channel	10-in deck-beam	4 by 6-in angle	4 by 5-in tee
104	94.6	83.0	28.7	21.6

The Deepest Beams, the Strongest, Stiffest and Most Economical. The STRENGTH of a wooden or steel beam of rectangular cross-section varies as the SQUARE OF THE DEPTH, directly as the breadth and inversely as the length, and the STIFFNESS varies directly as the CUBE OF THE DEPTH, directly as the breadth and inversely as the cube of its length; hence the deeper beam will have the greater strength and stiffness in proportion to its sectional area. With I beams these relations do not hold strictly, because of the variation in the forms of the cross-sections, but they are approximately true. It therefore follows that, for any given span, it is more economical in floors, where other conditions will permit, to use deep beams spaced farther apart or to use one deep beam in place of two shallower beams. Thus if a distributed load of 39 tons is to be supported over a span of 16 ft, one 20-in 65-lb beam, two 15-in 42-lb beams, or three 12-in 40-lb beams, could be used; but the 20-in beam would weigh only 1 105 lb, allowing for 6-in bearings, as compared with 1 428 lb for the 15-in beams and 2 040 lb for the 12-in beams, and the bolts and separators would be saved.

Light and Heavy Steel Beams. LIGHT BEAMS are more economical than heavy beams OF THE SAME DEPTH, except when the span is so short that the safe load is governed by the resistance of the web to buckling, in which case the HEAVY BEAMS are the more economical.

Maximum Safe Loads for Steel Beams. All loaded beams are, in general, subject to three kinds of stresses. The most destructive are generally those due to the BENDING MOMENTS, and have already been considered. The second kinds are those which tend to SHEAR a beam, or to make one part slide on the other vertically. (See paragraph on Shearing-Stresses in Steel Beams and Girders, page 567.) These stresses, however, seldom need to be considered except in the case of riveted girders and short beams with very thick webs. The third kind of stress is that which tends to cause the web of a beam to BUCKLE; and in a steel beam over a span very short in proportion to the depth of the beam, the resistance of the web to buckling generally determines the maximum load that the beam, without stiffeners on the web, will support. (See, also, pages 182, 183 and 567.)

Safe Loads for Steel Beams.* To save time in calculating, tables of safe loads for structural and supplementary beams and channels used as beams under conditions of transverse loading, have been prepared, which give the UNIFORMLY DISTRIBUTED SAFE LOADS in thousands of pounds for spans customary in building-construction. They are based upon an extreme FIBER-STRESS o 16 000 lb per sq in on the fibers farthest from the neutral surface of the beam

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* Part of the matter of the following paragraphs relating to steel I beams has been adapted, by permission, from the Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

The Tables of Safe Loads for Angles and Tees, pages 586 to 591, giv the values at the same fiber-stress on spans of one foot, from which the safe loa for any span-length may be obtained by direct division, and also the values fo those spans at which the allowed safe load will produce a deflection of 1/360 o the span-length. The loads in all cases include the weight of the beam, whic should be deducted in order to arrive at the net load which the beam will support For several concentrated loads or for a combination of distributed and concentrated loads it will be necessary to use the methods previously explained unde Case VIII, page 563.

Use of Tables for Concentrated Loads. To use any of the followin tables for CONCENTRATED LOADS, find the equivalent distributed load by multiplying the concentrated load by the factor given in Table IV, page 632, an then use the beam having a safe load equal to the load thus found.

In addition to the conversion-factors in that table the following, also, will b found convenient:

For two equal loads applied at one-third the span from each end, multiply on load by 2⅔.

For two equal loads applied at one-fourth the span from each end multipl one load by 2.

For a beam fixed at one end, and loaded at the other, multiply by 8.

For a beam fixed at one end, and uniformly loaded over the entire length multiply by 4.

Unusual Conditions of Loading of Beams.* It is assumed in all case that the loads are applied normal to the axis 1-1 as shown in the tables of th properties of sections in Chapter X, and that the beam deflects vertically in th PLANE OF BENDING ONLY. If the conditions of loading involve the introdu tion of forces outside this plane of loading, the allowable safe loads must b determined from the general theory of flexure in accordance with the mode o application of the load and its character. This applies particularly to UNSYMMETRICAL SECTIONS, such as angles, which should be used under those conditions of loading where the section can deflect vertically only, being rigidly secured against LATERAL DEFLECTION or twisting throughout the entire spa In all such cases of eccentric loading, the actual safe loads would be considerabl lower than the tabulated safe loads, which have been based upon the mos favorable conditions of loading.

Vertical Deflection of Steel Beams.* In the case of beams intended t carry plastered ceilings, experience indicates that the VERTICAL DEFLECTION, to avoid cracking the plaster, should be limited to not more than 1/360 of the span-length. This SPAN-LIMIT for steel beams is approximately, in feet, twice the depth in inches and is indicated in the tables by the lower, broken, horizontal lines. Beams intended for such purposes should not be used for greater spans unless the allowable tabular safe load exceeds the actual load to be supported. As the dead load of a floor is supported by the floor-beams before the plaster is applied, only the deflection due to the live load really needs to be considered. The vertical deflection of beams is explained in Chapter XVIII.

Lateral Deflection of Steel Beams.* The tabular safe loads are based upon the assumption that the compression-flanges of the various sections ar

* Part of the matter of this paragraph has been adapted, by permission, from the Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

secured at proper intervals, against LATERAL DEFLECTION, by the use of tie-rods or by other means. The LATERAL UNBRACED LENGTH of steel beams and girders should not exceed forty times the width of the compression-flanges. When the unbraced length exceeds ten times the width, the tabular safe loads should be reduced. An explanation of the method of reducing the tabular loads when the unsupported length exceeds ten times the flange-width is given in Chapter XVIII, page 670.

Shearing-Stresses in Steel Beams and Girders.* The safe-load tables for beams and channels are computed solely with reference to SAFE UNIT STRESSES DUE TO FLEXURE, and the safe loads uniformly distributed on the spans given will not cause average SHEARING-STRESSES in the web greater than the 10 000 lb per sq in, the average SAFE WORKING STRENGTH of steel in SHEAR. When, however, beams are loaded with heavy loads concentrated near the supports, or when beams of short span are loaded with uniformly distributed loads to their full carrying capacity as regards flexure, the bending moments may be small in comparison with the reactions at the supports, and the beams may fail along the neutral surface as a result of LONGITUDINAL SHEARING-STRESSES, or they may BUCKLE as a result of the combined longitudinal and vertical web-stresses. On such spans the safe shearing or buckling strength of the web rather than the resistance of the flanges to bending-stresses may limit the carrying capacity of the beam.

Buckling Values of Beam-Webs.* The VERTICAL SHEARING-STRESSES or the vertical compressive components of the web-stresses may under some conditions exceed the safe resistance of the beam to BUCKLING, and there remains the possibility that a web or web-plate, which is amply secure against the safe allowed shear of 10 000 lb per sq in, will not be of sufficient strength when considered as a column. In such cases provision must be made for security against BUCKLING either by stiffeners or by an increased thickness of the web or web-plate. (For the determining conditions for web-buckling of steel beams in grillages, based on direct compression, see page 183.)

Conditions of Web-Buckling of Steel Beams. There are two conditions of WEB-BUCKLING (see, also, foot-note for paragraphs relating to Tables II and III).

(1) The part of the beam bearing on the support is subject to DIRECT COMPRESSION, and the web over this part must be capable of resisting it. If this area is too small the end of the beam will fail, as a column, causing the web to BUCKLE. It is therefore necessary to calculate the required length of the bearing.

(2) The beam throughout its length between the supports, or in case of a cantilever beam, from its end to the support, is subject to SHEAR. It is generally supposed that the shear develops stresses of TENSION and COMPRESSION in the web; that these stresses act at right-angles to each other in the plane of the web and at an angle of 45° with the neutral surface of the beam; and that these DIAGONAL STRESSES are equal in magnitude or intensity to the VERTICAL SHEAR at any point. It is the COMPRESSIVE STRESS that tends to BUCKLE the web.

Formulas for Safe Buckling Resistance of Steel Beams.* In regard to the first condition of buckling a series of experiments has been made on beams of various depths and web-thicknesses to arrive at a basis for a simpler method of computation to use in the investigation of the safe BUCKLING RESISTANCE of beams with unsupported webs, and from these experiments the following formulas * have been deduced:

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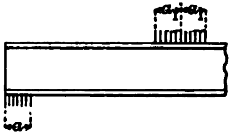
* Part of the matter of this paragraph has been adapted, by permission, from the Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.



$$\text{Safe end-reaction } R = S_b \times t\left(a + \frac{d}{4}\right)$$

$$\text{Safe interior load } P = 2\,S_b \times t\left(a_1 + \frac{d}{4}\right)$$

In these formulas, R is the end-reaction, P the concentrated load, t the web-thickness, d the depth of the beam, a_1 half the distance over which the concentrated load is applied and a the whole distance over which the end-reaction is applied; while S_b is the SAFE RESISTANCE OF THE WEB TO BUCKLING, in pounds per square inch, by the straight-line formula

$$S_c = 19\,000 - 100\,d/2\,r$$

$d/2 = l$ in the column-formula †. The first formula is general and applies to any condition of loading. The second formula covers the case of a single load concentrated at the middle of a span; it can be extended to cover a system of concentrated loads provided the sum of the distances a_1 is not less than a.

Tables II ‡ and III ‡ give for beams and channels with unsupported webs:

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* These formulas, in order to satisfy the first condition, are used in the Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

† This is the column-formula used by the American Bridge Company and in Carnegie's Pocket Companion, S_c being the allowable COMPRESSIVE UNIT STRESS in pounds per square inch within the usual limits of l/r

‡ In regard to the shearing of steel beams, allowable web-shears, etc., the value, for example (see Example 15, this chapter, and on pages 182 and 183 of Chapter II), of 42 000 lb per sq in for a 12-in, 31½-lb I beam, given in Table II, page 575, taken from Carnegie's Pocket Companion, is based on the allowed direct shear without including the condition of web-crippling. That is, the 42 000 lb is determined by taking the area of the web, $0.35 \times 12 = 4.2$ sq in and multiplying it by 10 000 lb per sq in, which is the value there used for the safe unit shearing-stress.

The beam is therefore calculated as being good for 42 000 lb SHEAR, but it is necessary to make a further investigation to ascertain whether the stresses due to shear will cause the web of the beam to buckle. As stated in the paragraph on page 567, on the Buckling Values of Beam-Webs there are two conditions of web-buckling or web-crippling.

In the case of a plate girder the end-stiffeners provide for the first condition, and the intermediate stiffeners for the second condition. The web itself may then be counted on for its full shearing value. In the case of beams, however, it is not generally economical to use stiffeners, so that the web alone must meet every condition.

The Carnegie Pocket Companion gives a formula, reproduced in the preceding paragraph, and gives the derived lengths of bearings in Tables II and III, to satisfy the first condition. Some of the formulas used in the manufacturers' handbooks, for maximum safe shear based on web-buckling for the second condition, are as follows:

$$\text{Passaic Steel Company,} \quad V = \frac{10\,000\,dt}{1 + \dfrac{h^2}{3\,000\,t^2}}$$

$$\text{Cambria Steel Company,} \quad V = \frac{12\,000\,dt}{1 + \dfrac{h^2}{1\,500\,t^2}}$$

$$\text{Bethlehem Steel Company,} \quad V = \frac{12\,000\,dt}{1 + \dfrac{h^2}{3\,000\,t^2}}$$

(1) " The allowed WEB-RESISTANCE S_b, in pounds per square inch, computed from this compression-formula. (See, also, page 183.)

(2) " The distance a, or the distance over which the end-reaction must be distributed when the shearing-stress V in the web is the maximum allowable stress of 10 000 lb per sq in.

(3) " The allowable END-REACTION R, when a is taken at 3½ in, which is the usual length of beam actually resting on the 4-in angles ordinarily used in building-construction for beam-seats.

(4) " The allowable SHEAR V, on the gross area of the cross-section of the beam or channel-webs, at 10 000 lb per sq in."

In regard to the second condition of WEB-BUCKLING, the MAXIMUM ALLOWABLE SHEAR may be calculated by the formula,

$$V = \frac{12\,000\,dt}{1 + \dfrac{h^2}{1\,500\,t^2}}$$

in which V = the maximum safe web-shear in pounds; d = the depth of the beam; t = the thickness of the web; and h = the height between the flange-fillets. (See Example 15, this chapter and also example on pages 182 and 183.)

" In addition to these data which have to do with the MAXIMUM LOADS on beams and channels as computed from the WEB-RESISTANCE, Tables II and III give, also, the MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENTS in foot-pounds, obtained by the multiplication of the SECTION-MODULUS of each section by the allowed FIBER-STRESS of 16 000 lb per sq in and the division of the product by 12 in order to reduce to a foot-pound basis. These maximum bending moments may be used on inspection instead of the table of properties to ascertain the proper size of a section to be used in any particular instance."

in all of which V = the maximum safe web-shear in pounds; d = the depth of the beam; t = the thickness of web; and h = the distance between the flange-fillets.

It is to be noted that the length of the element in compression on the 45° line is $h\sqrt{2}$, and that the square of this length is $2h^2$. It is this value, $2h^2$, that is substituted for l^2 in the column-formula used by the Cambria Steel Company in deducing its formula for shear based on web-buckling. The tensile stress, however, tends to keep the compressive stress from buckling the web, and for this reason the Passaic and Bethlehem engineers take the more liberal value of $3\,000\,t^2$ instead of $1\,500\,t^2$. The Passaic Steel Company, however, used the more conservative unit value of 10 000 lb, reduced, instead of the 12 000 lb used by the others. The Passaic and Cambria formulas give about the same results, a 12-in, 31½-lb I beam by the former having a safe shear of 33 352 lb and by the latter, 33 188 lb.

The Passaic Steel Company is no longer in existence and their handbook is out of print. The Bethlehem Steel Company's handbook has tables for Bethlehem shapes only. If, in any case, no table of maximum shears of beams, based on web-crippling, is at hand, it is suggested that the values may be determined from the formula,

$$V = \frac{12\,000\,dt}{1 + \dfrac{h^2}{1\,500\,t^2}}$$

in which, as before, V = the maximum safe web-shear in pounds; d = the depth of the beam; t = the thickness of the web; and h = the distance between the flange-fillets. For the beam mentioned and used in Example 15, page 571, in this chapter and in the example on pages 182 and 183, $d = 12$ in, $t = 0.35$ in, $h = 9.762$ in, $t^2 = 0.1225$, $h^2 = 95.296644$ and $V = 33\,188$ lb. This formula is recommended as being the most conservative, although there is not a great difference in the results, and the formula of the former Passaic Steel Company is retained elsewhere in Kidder's Pocket-Book. See, for example, page 686 and Table III of Chapter XX. Editor-in-chief.

Table VII is a table computed by Mr. Kidder, giving the strength of small rectangular steel channels or grooved steel. These are often used for supporting metal lath in suspended ceilings, and the table will be found useful in determining the size to use for any given span and spacing.

4. Tables of Safe Loads for Steel Beams and Girders. Examples

Example 9. Direct Bending from a Uniformly Distributed Load. As an illustration of the use of these tables let it be required to determine the proper size and weight of an I beam to carry safely a uniformly distributed load of 34 000 lb over a span of 20 ft, the weight of the beam not being included.

Solution. From Table IV, page 579, a 15-in 50-lb beam will carry 34 400 lb. The weight of this beam is 50 lb × 20 ft = 1 000 lb, making a total load to be supported of 35 000 lb. This is so little in excess of the safe load that the excess need not be considered. Had the difference been more, however, the next heavier beam should be used.

Example 10. Direct Bending from a Concentrated Load. To illustrate the use of the tables to determine the size and weight of beams required to carry concentrated loads, Examples 10 and 11 are given. What I beam, 15 ft in span, will safely support 8 000 lb, concentrated at a point 5 ft from the left support?

Solution. The distance 5 ft is one-third of the span, and the conversion-factor for this (Table IV, page 632) is 1.78. The equivalent uniformly distributed load, therefore, is 8 000 × 1.78 = 14 240 lb, and from Table IV, page 581, a 9-in 25-lb I beam will carry 14 500 lb for a span of 15 ft, and will just answer the purpose.

Example 11. Direct Bending from Two Equal Concentrated Loads. What I beam, 15 ft in span, will safely support two equal concentrated loads of 6 000 lb each, applied 5 ft from each end?

Solution. The distance 5 ft is one-third the span, but the multiplier in this case is 2⅔ (page 632). Hence, the equivalent uniformly distributed load is 6 000 × 2⅔ = 16 000 lb and the beam required (Table IV, page 580) is a 10-in 25-lb, I beam which will carry 17 400 lb. The same result is obtained by using Formula (11)′, page 562. This formula is, $I/c = 12\,Pm/S$. Substituting, $I/c = 12 \times 6\,000 \times 5/16\,000 = 22.5$. The nearest section-modulus to this is 24.4, that of a 10-in 25-lb I beam.

Example 12. Maximum Bending Moment from a Distributed Load Over Part of the Span. The beam in Example 5, Case V, page 561, has a maximum bending moment of 26 626 ft-lb. What beam is required?

Solution. The nearest bending moment to this in the first column of Table II, page 575, is 27 240 ft-lb, which corresponds to a 9-in 25-lb I beam.

Example 13. Allowable Web-Shear.* The maximum shear in the beam of Example 12 is just at the right of the left reaction or bearing, and equals 4 000 lb. Is the beam safe for shear?

Solution. From Table II, page 575, in the column for V, the allowable web-shear for a 9-in 25-lb beam is 36 540 lb. Hence, the beam is safe if web-buckling is not taken into account.

Example 14. Shear.* It is required to determine the maximum load which a 9-in 25-lb I beam can support without exceeding the safe web-resistance of the section.

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* See paragraphs and foot-note relating to buckling of beam-webs, pages 567 to 569.

Solution. From Table IV, page 581, the maximum load for this beam, given in small figures above the heavy, horizontal lines, is 73 100 lb.

Example 15. Safe Buckling Resistance. See, also, paragraphs and foot-note relating to buckling of beam-webs on pages 567 to 569 and also example on pages 182 and 183. According to Table II, page 575, the allowable web-shear for a 12-in, 31.5-lb I beam is 42 000 lb. Will this shear cause the web of the beam to buckle?

Solution. The web-shear is determined by multiplying the area of the web, that is, 0.35 in × 12 in = 4.2 sq in, by 10 000 lb per sq in, the safe unit shearing-stress. The maximum shear which will not cause the web to fail by buckling may be found by the formula given on page 569 for the second condition of web-buckling.

$$V = \frac{12\,000\,dt}{1 + \dfrac{h^2}{1\,500\,t^2}}$$

From the dimensions of structural beams (see Carnegie's Pocket Companion, Seventeenth Edition, page 64) the thickness t of the web of a 12-in, 31.5-lb I beam is 0.35 in, the depth of the beam is $d = 12$ in and h, the distance between flange-fillets, is 9.762 in. Substituting these values in the formula,

$$V = \frac{12\,000 \times 12 \times 0.35}{1 + \dfrac{9.762^2}{1\,500 \times 0.35^2}} = \frac{50\,400}{1 + \dfrac{95.296644}{1\,500 \times 0.1225}} = \frac{50\,400}{1 + \dfrac{95.296644}{183.75}} = \frac{50\,400}{\dfrac{279.046644}{183.75}}$$

$$= \frac{50\,400 \times 183.75}{279.046644} = \frac{9\,261\,000}{279.046644} = 33\,188, \text{ or about } 33\,190 \text{ lb}$$

As this is less than the allowable web-shear of 42 000 lb given in the tables, if account is to be taken of the web-buckling from the second condition mentioned in the preceding pages, a larger or heavier beam should be used or the loads reduced, so that the maximum shear will not exceed 33 190 lb. (For determining conditions for web-buckling of steel beams in grillages, based on direct compression, see page 183.)

Example 16. Safe End-Reactions for Web-Buckling. In Example 8, page 563, the two 24-in 90-lb I beams carry 170 000 lb + (4 000 lb, the weight of the beams) = 174 000, lb or 87 000 lb for each beam. Assuming that they rest upon 4-in brackets riveted to columns at each end of the span, are the end-reactions excessive?

Solution. Since the loading is symmetrical, each reaction for each beam is one-half the total load on each beam, or 43 500 lb. From the last column in Table II, page 574, the maximum end-reaction R, for a 24-in 90-lb beam, is 74 410 lb. Hence, the beam is safe as far as the compression from the end-reactions is concerned.

Strut-Beams. It is not considered good construction to subject a strut to a transverse loading, causing a certain amount of flexure in and thus adding to the compressive stress. Conditions often exist, however, where practical considerations make it desirable to use a strut as a beam, also, as in the top chord or in the principals of a truss. To determine the size of a member in a case of this kind the following method should be used:

(1) Find the section-modulus I/c, for the member for the transverse load by Formulas (2)′ to (11)′, using 12 000 lb per sq in as the value of S, and find the area of the cross-section of a steel shape corresponding to the value of I/c thus found. See note at end of Example 17.

(2) Find the section-area required to resist the compressive stress, by dividing that stress by the value opposite l/r in column VIII of Table XI, page 493.

(3) Add together the two areas and use for the required member a piece or pieces of material having a section-area next larger than the total area found.

Example 17. Strut-Beam. Combined Bending and Compression. The principal rafter in a truss, 8 ft 6 in long between joints, supports the end of a purlin at the middle of the span. The weight from the purlin is 2 800 lb and the compressive stress in the rafter 30 000 lb. It is proposed to use a pair of angles for the rafter, set with the long legs vertical and ½ in apart. What are the dimensions of the angles, the strut being braced laterally?

Solution. (1) By Formula (8)′, $I/c = 3 \times 2\,800 \times 8.5/12\,000 = 5.95$ for the pair of angles, or 2.98 for each angle. (See note at end of this example.) From Table XI, page 363, the nearest value to this with reference to the axis 1–1 is 3.0, the section-modulus for a 5 by 3½ by ½-in angle. The section-area of one angle is 4 sq in and of two angles, 8 sq in.

(1) From Table XVI, page 371, the least r for a pair of 5 by 3½ by ½-in angles, which would be about the axis 1–1, since the strut is braced laterally, is about 1.58 (between 1.55 and 1.61). Then the slenderness-ratio $l/r = 8$ ft 6 in/1.58 in = 102 in/1.58 in = 64.5. From column VIII, Table XI, page 493, $S = 9\,250$ lb per sq in. Hence, 30 000 lb/9 250 lb per sq in = 3.24 sq in, approximately.

(3) The section-area required, therefore, is 8 + 3.24 = 11.24 sq in, which, from Table XI, page 363, is about equivalent to that of two 5 by 4 by $^{11}/_{16}$-in angles. As the section-area in both calculations exceeds that actually required, no allowance for the weight of the angles need be made.

Note. Because of the increase in the tendency of the strut to deflect, caused by the combined stresses of flexure and compression, lower values of S are used than in the cases of simple flexure, or of simple compression.

Tie-Beams. Steel beams subject to combined tensile and transverse stresses should be calculated in a way similar to that explained above for strut-beams. The section necessary to resist the transverse stress should be found first, then the section-area necessary to resist the tensile stress, and the two added together.

Example 18. Tie-Beam. Combined Bending and Tension. One span of a tie-beam, 10 ft between joints, supports a load of 6 000 lb at the middle, and at the same time is under a tensile stress of 84 000 lb. It is proposed to use two steel channels for the tie-beam. What size and weight are required for the channels?

Solution. A load of 6 000 lb applied at the middle of a beam has the same effect as a load of 12 000 lb uniformly distributed, or 6 000 lb for each channel. From Table V, page 584, a 7-in, 9.75-lb channel will be required, its sectio area (Table VIII, page 359) being 2.85 sq in. The additional area required t resist the tensile stress is 84 000 lb/16 000 lb per sq in = 5.25 sq in, or 2.63 fo each channel. The total area for each channel, therefore, should be 2.85 + 2.6 = 5.48 sq in. A 7-in, 19.75-lb channel has a section-area of 5.81 sq in, an an 8-in, 18.75-lb channel has a section-area of 5.5 sq in. Either one will b sufficient, but the 8-in channel will probably be more economical, as it weigh 1 lb per ft less.

Example 19. Channel, Set Flatwise. What is the size of the channel, s flatwise, required to support a uniformly distributed load of 180 lb per ft ov a span of 10 ft, or 120 in?

Solution. $W = 180 \times 10 = 1\,800$ lb. From Case V, page 326, $M_{max} = Wl/8 =$ $1\,800 \times 120/8 = 27\,000$ in-lb. From Formula (3)′, page 557, $I/c = M/S =$

27 000/16 000 = 1.7. From Table VIII, page 359, the I/c about the axis 2–2 corresponding to this is that of a 12-in, 20.5-lb channel.

Example 20. Rectangular Steel Bar with Long Side Vertical. In a suspended, plastered ceiling it is proposed to use 2 by ⅜-in steel bars, 4 ft or 48 in long, to carry the plaster. What is the safe load each bar will support, if set with the long side vertical?

Solution. From Table I, page 346, the I for a 2 by ⅜-in bar is 0 250. $c =$ one-half the depth = 1 in. $I/c = 0.250/1 = 0.250$. Also, from Formula (2)′, page 557, $M_{max} = SI/c$. Substituting, $M_{max} = 16\,000 \times 0.250 = 4\,000$ in-lb. But, from Case V, page 326, $M_{max} = Wl/8$, and hence, $4\,000 = W \times 48/8 = 6\,W$, and $W = 4\,000/6 = 666$ lb.

Table II.*† Maximum Bending Moments and Web-Resistances of I Beams

M_{max}	d	w	t	V	S_b†	a	R
Maximum bending moment	Depth of beam	Weight per lin ft	Thickness of web	Allowable web-shear	Allowable buckling resistance	Minimum end-bearing	End-reaction $a=3\frac{1}{2}$ in
ft-lb	in	lb	in	lb	lb per sq in	in	lb
285 300	27	83.0	0.424	114 480	7 970	27.1	34 650
328 390	24	115.0	0.750	180 000	13 460	11.8	95 880
320 390		110.0	0.688	165 120	12 960	12.5	84 690
312 390		105.0	0.625	150 000	12 350	13.4	73 320
264 400		100.0	0.754	180 960	13 490	11.8	96 620
256 560		95.0	0.693	166 320	13 000	12.5	85 610
248 710		90.0	0.631	151 440	12 410	13.3	74 410
240 870		85.0	0.570	136 800	11 710	14.5	63 410
231 920		80.0	0.500	120 000	10 690	16.5	50 780
214 220		69.5	0.390	93 600	8 340	22.8	30 910
155 880	21	57.5	0.357	74 970	8 820	18.6	27 540
220 750	20	100.0	0.884	176 800	15 080	8.3	113 320
214 210		95.0	0.810	162 000	14 720	8.6	101 370
207 680		90.0	0.737	147 400	14 300	9.0	89 590
201 140		85.0	0.663	132 600	13 780	9.5	77 630
195 510		80.0	0.600	120 000	13 230	10.1	67 460
169 170		75.0	0.649	129 800	13 660	9.6	75 380
162 640		70.0	0.575	115 000	12 980	10.4	63 420
155 930		65.0	0.500	100 000	12 080	11.6	51 320
186 720	18	90.0	0.807	145 260	15 140	7.4	97 730
180 840		85.0	0.725	130 500	14 700	7.7	85 260
174 960		80.0	0.644	115 920	14 160	8.2	72 940
169 080		75.0	0.562	101 160	13 450	8.9	60 480
136 480		70.0	0.719	129 420	14 670	7.8	84 350
130 590		65.0	0.637	114 660	14 110	8.3	71 890
124 710		60.0	0.555	99 900	13 380	9.0	59 420
117 860		55.0	0.460	82 800	12 220	10.2	44 980
108 620		46.0	0.322	57 960	9 320	14.8	24 020
122 890	15	75.0	0.882	132 300	16 050	5.6	102 660
117 980		70.0	0.784	117 600	15 690	5.8	89 160
113 080		65.0	0.686	102 900	15 210	6.1	75 650
108 270		60.0	0.590	88 500	14 600	6.5	62 440
90 850		55.0	0.656	98 400	15 040	6.2	71 530
85 940		50.0	0.558	83 700	14 340	6.7	58 020
81 040		45.0	0.460	69 000	13 350	7.5	44 520
78 530		42.0	0.410	61 500	12 670	8.1	37 660
72 020		36.0	0.289	43 350	10 010	11.2	20 970

V is computed at 10 000 lb per sq in of gross area of web-section.

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

† See, also, foot-note on page 568, with paragraphs relating to this table and to Table III, and paragraphs on page 567, relating to web-buckling of steel beams. See, also, page 183.

Table II*† (Continued). Maximum Bending Moments and Web-Resistances of I Beams

M_{max} Maximum bending moment ft-lb	d Depth of beam in	w Weight per lin ft lb	t Thickness of web in	V Allowable web-shear lb	S_b† Allowable buckling resistance lb per sq in	a Minimum end-bearing in	R End-reaction $a = 3\frac{1}{2}$ in lb
71 330	12	55.0	0.821	98 520	16 470	4.3	87 890
67 410		50.0	0.699	83 880	16 030	4.5	72 830
63 490		45.0	0.576	69 120	15 390	4.8	57 620
59 770		40.0	0.460	55 200	14 480	5.3	43 300
50 730		35.0	0.436	52 320	14 230	5.4	40 330
47 960		31.5	0.350	42 000	13 060	6.2	29 710
44 350		27.5	0.255	30 600	10 850	8.1	17 990
42 320	10	40.0	0.749	74 900	16 690	3.5	75 010
39 050		35.0	0.602	60 200	16 120	3.7	58 220
35 780		30.0	0.455	45 500	15 190	4.1	41 470
32 560		25.0	0.310	31 000	13 410	5.0	24 940
30 370		22.0	0.232	23 200	11 540	6.2	16 060
33 120	9	35.0	0.732	65 880	16 870	3.1	71 010
30 180		30.0	0.569	51 210	16 260	3.3	53 200
27 240		25.0	0.406	36 540	15 160	3.7	35 390
25 160		21.0	0.290	26 100	13 620	4.4	22 710
22 810	8	25.5	0.541	43 280	16 440	2.9	48 920
21 500		23.0	0.449	35 920	15 910	3.0	39 290
20 190		20.5	0.357	28 560	15 120	3.3	29 690
18 960		18.0	0.270	21 600	13 870	3.8	20 600
19 450		17.5	0.210	16 800	12 400	4.5	14 320
16 070	7	20.0	0.458	32 060	16 350	2.5	39 310
14 930		17.5	0.353	24 710	15 570	2.7	28 850
13 800		15.0	0.250	17 500	14 150	3.2	18 580
11 640	9	17.25	0.475	28 500	16 810	2.1	39 930
10 660		14.75	0.352	21 120	16 050	2.2	28 250
9 680		12.25	0.230	13 800	14 480	2.6	16 650
10 260	5	17.0	0.380	19 000	16 720	1.7	30 180
8 080		14.75	0.504	25 200	17 280	1.6	41 370
7 260		12.25	0.357	17 850	16 580	1.8	28 120
6 450		9.75	0.210	10 500	14 870	2.1	14 830
4 760	4	10.5	0.410	16 400	17 310	1.3	31 940
4 500		9.5	0.337	13 480	16 940	1.4	25 690
4 240		8.5	0.263	10 520	16 360	1.4	19 360
3 980		7.5	0.190	7 600	15 360	1.6	13 130
2 590	3	7.5	0.361	10 830	17 560	1.0	26 940
2 390		6.5	0.263	7 890	17 020	1.0	19 020
2 210		5.5	0.170	5 100	15 950	1.1	11 530

V is computed at 10 000 lb per sq in of gross area of web-section.

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

† See, also, foot-note on page 568, with paragraphs relating to this table and to Table III, and paragraphs on page 567, relating to web-buckling of steel beams. See, also, page 183.

Table III.*† Maximum Bending Moments and Web-Resistances of Channel

M_{max}	d	w	t	V	S_b†	a	R
Maximum bending moment	Depth of channel	Weight per lin ft	Thickness of web	Allowable web-shear	Allowable buckling resistance	Minimum end-bearing	End reaction, $a=3\frac{1}{2}$ in
ft-lb	in	lb	in	lb	lb per sq in	in	lb
76 490	15	55.0	0.818	122 700	15 820	5.7	93 830
71 590		50.0	0.720	108 000	15 390	6.0	80 350
66 680		45.0	0.622	93 300	14 820	6.4	66 840
61 780		40.0	0.524	78 600	14 040	6.9	53 350
56 880		35.0	0.426	63 900	12 900	7.9	39 850
55 570		33.0	0.400	60 000	12 510	8.2	36 270
64 360	13	50.0	0.791	102 830	16 150	4.8	86 250
60 110		45.0	0.678	88 140	15 680	5.0	71 760
55 870		40.0	0.565	73 450	15 020	5.4	57 260
53 320		37.0	0.497	64 610	14 470	5.7	48 540
51 620		35.0	0.452	58 760	14 020	6.0	42 770
48 740		32.0	0.375	48 750	13 000	6.8	32 900
43 760	12	40.0	0.758	90 960	16 260	4.4	80 090
39 840		35.0	0.636	76 320	15 730	4.6	65 040
35 920		30.0	0.513	61 560	14 950	5.0	49 850
32 000		25.0	0.390	46 800	13 670	5.8	34 660
28 470		20.5	0.280	33 600	11 570	7.4	21 060
30 800	10	35.0	0.823	82 300	16 900	3.4	83 430
27 530		30.0	0.676	67 600	16 440	3.6	66 670
24 260		25.0	0.529	52 900	15 730	3.9	49 910
20 990		20.0	0.382	38 200	14 470	4.4	33 160
17 840		15.0	0.240	24 000	11 780	6.0	16 970
20 950	9	25.0	0.615	55 350	16 470	3.2	58 220
18 010		20.0	0.452	40 680	15 550	3.5	40 420
15 070		15.0	0.288	25 920	13 590	4.4	22 500
14 020		13.25	0.230	20 700	12 220	5.1	16 170
15 920	8	21.25	0.582	46 560	16 620	2.8	53 200
14 610		18.75	0.490	39 200	16 170	2.9	43 580
13 310		16.25	0.399	31 920	15 530	3.2	34 070
12 000		13.75	0.307	24 560	14 490	3.5	24 460
10 770		11.25	0.220	17 600	12 700	4.3	15 370
12 640	7	19.75	0.633	44 310	17 090	2.3	56 780
11 490		17.25	0.528	36 960	16 700	2.4	46 300
10 350		14.75	0.423	29 610	16 130	2.6	35 830
9 210		12.25	0.318	22 260	15 190	2.9	25 360
8 030		9.75	0.210	14 700	13 230	3.3	14 580
8 680	6	15.5	0.563	33 780	17 150	2.0	48 280
7 700		13.0	0.440	26 400	16 640	2.1	36 610
6 720		10.5	0.318	19 080	15 730	2.3	25 010
5 780		8.0	0.200	12 000	13 810	2.8	13 810
5 550	5	11.5	0.477	23 850	17 180	1.7	38 920
4 730		9.0	0.330	16 500	16 380	1.8	25 670
3 960		6.5	0.190	9 500	14 450	2.2	13 040
3 050	4	7.25	0.325	13 000	16 870	1.4	24 670
2 790		6.25	0.252	10 080	16 250	1.5	18 430
2 530		5.25	0.180	7 200	15 150	1.6	12 270
1 840	3	6.0	0.362	10 860	17 560	1.0	27 020
1 640		5.0	0.264	7 920	17 030	1.0	19 110
1 450		4.0	0.170	5 100	15 940	1.1	11 520

V is computed at 10 000 lb per sq in of gross area of web-section.

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa

† See, also, foot-note on page 568, with paragraphs relating to this table and to Tabl II, and paragraphs on page 567, relating to web-buckling of steel beams. See, als age 183.

Table IV.* Safe Uniform Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Steel I Beams

Maximum bending stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Span, ft	27-in	24-in									21-in	Coefficient of deflection
	83 lb	115 lb	110 lb	105 lb	100 lb	95 lb	90 lb	85 lb	80 lb	69½ lb	57½ lb	
..	...	...	...	...	361.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	....
6	...	...	...	...	352.5	332.6	302.9	...	...	...	...	0.60
7	...	360.0	330.2	...	302.2	293.2	284.2	273.6	240.0	...	...	0.81
8	...	328.4	320.4	300.0	264.4	256.6	248.7	240.9	231.9	...	150.0	1.06
9	229.0	291.9	284.8	277.7	235.0	228.0	221.1	214.1	206.1	187.2	138.6	1.34
10	228.2	262.7	256.3	249.9	211.5	205.2	199.0	192.7	185.5	171.4	124.7	1.66
11	207.5	238.8	233.0	227.2	192.3	186.6	180.9	175.2	168.7	155.8	113.4	2.00
12	190.2	218.9	213.6	208.3	176.3	171.0	165.8	160.6	154.6	142.8	103.9	2.38
13	175.6	202.1	197.2	192.2	162.7	157.9	153.1	148.2	142.7	131.8	95.9	2.80
14	163.0	187.7	183.1	178.5	151.1	146.6	142.1	137.6	132.5	122.4	89.1	3.24
15	152.2	175.1	170.9	166.6	141.0	136.8	132.6	128.5	123.7	114.3	83.1	3.72
16	142.6	164.2	160.2	156.2	132.2	128.3	124.4	120.4	116.0	107.1	77.9	4.24
17	134.3	154.5	150.8	147.0	124.4	120.7	117.0	113.4	109.1	100.8	73.4	4.78
18	126.8	146.0	142.4	138.8	117.5	114.0	110.5	107.1	103.1	95.2	69.3	5.36
19	120.1	138.3	134.9	131.5	111.3	108.0	104.7	101.4	97.6	90.2	65.6	5.98
20	114.1	131.4	128.2	125.0	105.8	102.6	99.5	96.3	92.8	85.7	62.4	6.62
21	108.7	125.1	122.1	119.0	100.7	97.7	94.7	91.8	88.3	81.6	59.4	7.30
22	103.7	119.4	116.5	113.6	96.1	93.3	90.4	87.6	84.3	77.9	56.7	8.01
23	99.2	114.2	111.4	108.7	92.0	89.2	86.5	83.8	80.7	74.5	54.2	8.76
24	95.1	109.5	106.8	104.1	88.1	85.5	82.9	80.3	77.3	71.4	52.0	9.53
25	91.3	105.1	102.5	100.0	84.6	82.1	79.6	77.1	74.2	68.6	49.9	10.35
26	87.8	101.0	98.6	96.1	81.4	78.9	76.5	74.1	71.4	65.9	48.0	11.19
27	84.5	97.3	94.9	92.6	78.3	76.0	73.7	71.4	68.7	63.5	46.2	12.07
28	81.5	93.8	91.5	89.3	75.5	73.3	71.1	68.8	66.3	61.2	44.5	12.98
29	78.7	90.6	88.4	86.2	72.9	70.8	68.6	66.4	64.0	59.1	43.0	13.92
30	76.1	87.6	85.4	83.3	70.5	68.4	66.3	64.2	61.8	57.1	41.6	14.90
31	73.6	84.7	82.7	80.6	68.2	66.2	64.2	62.2	59.8	55.3	40.2	15.91
32	71.3	82.1	80.1	78.1	66.1	64.1	62.2	60.2	58.0	53.6	39.0	16.95
33	69.2	79.6	77.7	75.7	64.1	62.2	60.3	58.4	56.2	51.9	37.8	18.03
34	67.1	77.3	75.4	73.5	62.2	60.4	58.5	56.7	54.6	50.4	36.7	19.13
35	65.2	75.1	73.2	71.4	60.4	58.6	56.8	55.1	53.0	49.0	35.6	20.28
36	63.4	73.0	71.2	69.4	58.8	57.0	55.3	53.5	51.5	47.6	34.6	21.45
37	61.7	71.0	69.3	67.5	57.2	55.5	53.8	52.1	50.1	46.3	33.7	22.66
38	60.1	69.1	67.5	65.8	55.7	54.0	52.4	50.7	48.8	45.1	32.8	23.90
39	58.5	67.4	65.7	64.1	54.2	52.6	51.0	49.4	47.6	43.9	32.0	25.18
40	57.1	65.7	64.1	62.5	52.9	51.3	49.7	48.2	46.4	42.8	31.2	26.48
41	55.7	64.1	62.5	61.0	51.6	50.1	48.5	47.0	45.3	41.8	30.4	27.82
42	54.3	62.6	61.0	59.5	50.4	48.9	47.4	45.9	44.2	40.8	29.7	29.20
43	53.1	61.1	59.6	58.1	49.2	47.7	46.3	44.8	43.1	39.9	29.0	30.60
44	51.9	59.7	58.3	56.8	48.1	46.6	45.2	43.8	42.2	38.9	28.3	32.04
45	50.7	58.4	57.0	55.5	47.0	45.6	44.2	42.8	41.2	38.1	...	33.52
46	49.6	57.1	55.7	54.3	46.0	44.6	43.3	41.9	40.3	37.3	...	35.02
47	48.6	55.9	54.1	53.2	45.0	43.7	42.3	41.0	39.5	36.5	...	36.56
48	47.5	54.7	53.4	52.1	44.1	42.8	41.5	40.1	38.7	35.7	...	38.14
49	46.6	53.6	52.3	51.0	43.2	41.9	40.6	39.3	37.9	35.0	...	39.74
50	45.6	52.5	51.3	50.0	42.3	41.0	39.8	38.5	37.1	34.3	...	41.38

Loads above the upper heavy lines will cause maximum allowable shears in webs. See, also, paragraphs in text and foot-note with same, page 567, relating to web-buckling in beams

Loads below the lower broken lines will cause excessive deflections

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table IV* (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Steel I Beams

Maximum bending stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Span, ft	Depth and weight of sections												Coefficient o deflection
	20-in								18-in				
	100 lb	95 lb	90 lb	85 lb	80 lb	75 lb	70 lb	65 lb	90 lb	85 lb	80 lb	75 lb	
....	353.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	......
5	353.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.41
....	....	324.0	294.8	...	...	259.6	250.0	...	290.5	261.0	...	...	.....
6	294.3	285.6	276.9	265.2	240.0	225.6	216.8	200.0	249.0	241.1	231.8	202.3	0.60
7	252.3	244.8	237.7	229.9	223.4	193.3	185.9	178.2	213.4	206.7	200.0	193.2	0.81
8	220.7	214.2	207.7	201.1	195.5	169.2	162.6	155.9	186.7	180.8	175.0	169.1	1.06
9	196.2	190.4	184.6	178.8	173.8	150.4	144.6	138.6	166.0	160.7	155.5	150.3	1.34
10	176.6	171.4	166.1	160.9	156.4	135.3	130.1	124.7	149.4	144.7	140.0	135.3	1.66
11	160.5	155.8	151.0	146.3	142.2	123.0	118.3	113.4	135.8	131.5	127.2	123.0	2.00
12	147.2	142 8	138.5	134.1	130.3	112.8	108.4	104.0	124.5	120.6	116.6	112.7	2.38
13	135.8	131.8	127.8	123.8	120.3	104.1	100.1	96.0	114.9	111.3	107.7	104 1	2 80
14	126.1	122.4	118.7	114.9	111.7	96.7	92.9	89.1	106.7	103.3	100.0	96.6	3.24
15	117.7	114.2	110.8	107.3	104.3	90.2	86.7	83.2	99.6	96 4	93.3	90.2	3.72
16	110.4	107.1	103.8	100.6	97.7	84.6	81.3	78.0	93.4	90.4	87.5	84.5	4.24
17	103.9	100.8	97.7	94.1	92.0	79.6	76.5	73.4	87.9	85.1	82.3	79.6	4.78
18	98.1	95.2	92.3	89.4	86.9	76.3	72.3	69.3	83.0	80.4	77.8	75.1	5.36
19	92.9	90.2	87.4	84.7	82.3	71.2	68.5	65.7	78.6	76.1	73.7	71.2	5.98
20	88.3	85.7	83.1	80.5	78.2	67.7	65.1	62.4	74.7	72.3	70.0	67.6	6.62
21	84.1	81.6	79.1	76.6	74 5	64.4	62.0	59.4	71.1	68 9	66.7	64.4	7.30
22	80.3	77.9	75.5	73.1	71.1	61.5	59.1	56.7	67.9	65.8	63.6	61.5	8.01
23	76.8	74.5	72.2	70.0	68.0	58.8	56.6	54.2	64.9	62 9	60.9	58.8	8.76
24	73.6	71.4	69.2	67.0	65.2	56.4	54.2	52.0	62.2	60.3	58.3	56.4	9.53
25	70.6	68.5	66.5	64.4	62.6	54.1	52.0	49.9	59.8	57.9	56.0	54.1	10.35
26	67.9	65.9	63.9	61.9	60.2	52.1	50.0	48.0	57.5	55.6	53.8	52.0	11 19
27	65.4	63.5	61.5	59.6	57.9	50.1	48.2	46.2	55.3	53.6	51.8	50.1	12.07
28	63.1	61.2	59.3	57.5	55.9	48.3	46.5	44.6	53.3	51.7	50.0	48.3	12 98
29	60.9	59.1	57.3	55.5	53.9	46.7	44.9	43.0	51.5	49.9	48.3	46.6	13.92
30	58.9	57.1	55 4	53.6	52.1	45.1	43.4	41.6	49.8	48.2	46.7	45.1	14.90
31	57.0	55.3	53.6	51.9	50.5	43.7	42.0	40.2	48.2	46.7	45.2	43.6	15.91
32	55.2	53 6	51.9	50.3	48.9	42.3	40.7	39.0	46.7	45.2	43.7	42.3	16.95
33	53.5	51.9	50.4	48.8	47.4	41.0	39.4	37.8	45.3	43.8	42.4	41.0	18.03
34	51.9	50.4	48.9	47.3	46.0	39.8	38.3	36.7	43.9	42.6	41.2	39.8	19.13
35	50.5	49.0	47.5	46.0	44.7	38.7	37.2	35.6	42.7	41.3	40.0	38.6	20.28
36	49.1	47.6	46.2	44.7	43.4	37.6	36.1	34.7	41.5	40.2	38.9	37.6	21.45
37	47.7	46.3	44.9	43.5	42.3	36.6	35.2	33.7	40.4	39.1	37.8	36.6	22.66
38	46.5	45.1	43.7	42.3	41.2	35.6	34.2	32.8	39.3	38.1	36.8	35.6	23.90
39	45.3	43.9	42.6	41.3	40.1	34.7	33.4	32.0	...	...	...	...	25.18
40	41 1	42.8	41.5	40.2	39.1	33.8	32.5	31.2	...	...	...	...	26.48
41	43.1	41.8	40.5	39.2	38.1	33.0	31.7	30.4	...	...	...	...	27.82
42	42 0	40.8	39.6	38.3	37.2	32.2	31.0	29.7	...	...	...	...	29.20

Loads above the upper heavy lines will cause maximum allowable shears in webs. See, also, paragraphs in text and foot-note with same, page 567, relating to web-buckling in beams

Loads below the lower broken lines will cause excessive deflections

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* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table IV* (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Steel I Beams

Maximum bending stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Span, ft	Depth and weight of sections													Coefficient of deflection
	18-in					15-in								
	70 lb	65 lb	60 lb	55 lb	46 lb	75 lb	70 lb	65 lb	60 lb	55 lb	50 lb	45 lb	42 lb	
	...	...	...	...	...	264.6	...	...	...	196.8	...	...	...	...
4	258.8	229.1	199.8	...	...	245.8	235.2	205.8	177.0	181.7	167.4	148.0	...	0.27
5	218.4	208.9	199.5	...	...	196.6	188.8	180.9	173.2	145.4	137.5	129.7	...	0.41
	...	...	...	165.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	123.0	...
6	182.0	174.1	166.3	157.1	...	163.8	157.3	150.8	144.4	121.1	114.6	108.1	104.7	0.60
7	156.0	149.2	142.5	134.7	115.9	140.4	134.8	129.2	123.7	103.8	98.2	92.6	89.8	0.81
8	136.5	130.6	124.7	117.9	108.6	122.9	118.0	113.1	108.3	90.8	85.9	81.0	78.5	1.06
9	121.3	116.1	110.9	104.8	96.6	109.2	104.9	100.5	96.2	80.8	76.4	72.0	69.8	1.34
10	109.2	104.5	99.8	94.3	86.9	98.3	94.4	90.5	86.6	72.7	68.8	64.8	62.8	1.66
11	99.3	95.0	90.7	85.7	79.0	89.4	85.8	82.2	78.7	66.1	62.5	58.9	57.1	2.00
12	91.0	87.1	83.1	78.6	72.4	81.9	78.7	75.4	72.2	60.6	57.3	54.0	52.4	2.38
13	84.0	80.4	76.7	72.5	66.8	75.6	72.6	69.6	66.6	55.9	52.9	49.9	48.3	2.80
14	78.0	74.6	71.3	67.3	62.1	70.2	67.4	64.6	61.9	51.9	49.1	46.3	44.9	3.24
15	72.8	69.6	66.5	62.9	57.9	65.5	62.9	60.3	57.7	48.5	45.8	43.2	41.9	3.72
16	68.2	65.3	62.4	58.9	54.3	61.4	59.0	56.5	54.1	45.4	43.0	40.5	39.3	4.24
17	64.2	61.5	58.7	55.5	51.1	57.8	55.5	53.2	50.9	42.8	40.4	38.1	37.0	4.78
18	60.7	58.0	55.4	52.4	48.3	54.6	52.4	50.3	48.1	40.4	38.2	36.0	34.9	5.36
19	57.5	55.0	52.5	49.6	45.7	51.7	49.7	47.6	45.6	38.3	36.2	34.1	33.1	5.98
20	54.6	52.2	49.9	47.1	43.4	49.2	47.2	45.2	43.3	36.3	34.4	32.4	31.4	6.62
21	52.0	49.7	47.5	44.9	41.4	46.8	44.9	43.1	41.2	34.6	32.7	30.9	29.9	7.30
22	49.6	47.5	45.3	42.9	39.5	44.7	42.9	41.1	39.4	33.0	31.3	29.5	28.6	8.01
23	47.5	45.4	43.4	41.0	37.8	42.7	41.0	39.3	37.7	31.6	29.9	28.2	27.3	8.76
24	45.5	43.5	41.6	39.3	36.2	41.0	39.3	37.7	36.1	30.3	28.6	27.0	26.2	9.53
25	43.7	41.8	39.9	37.7	34.8	39.3	37.8	36.2	34.6	29.1	27.5	25.9	25.1	10.35
26	42.0	40.2	38.4	36.3	33.4	37.8	36.3	34.8	33.3	28.0	26.4	24.9	24.2	11.19
27	40.4	38.7	37.0	34.9	32.2	36.4	35.0	33.5	32.1	26.9	25.5	24.0	23.3	12.07
28	39.0	37.3	35.6	33.7	31.0	35.1	33.7	32.3	30.9	26.0	24.6	23.2	22.4	12.98
29	37.6	36.0	34.4	32.5	30.0	33.9	32.5	31.2	29.9	25.1	23.7	22.4	21.7	13.92
30	36.4	34.8	33.3	31.4	29.0	32.8	31.5	30.2	28.9	24.2	22.9	21.6	20.9	14.90
31	35.2	33.7	32.2	30.4	28.0	31.7	30.4	29.2	27.9	23.4	22.2	20.9	20.3	15.91
32	34.1	32.6	31.2	29.5	27.2	30.7	29.5	28.3	27.1	22.7	21.5	20.3	19.6	16.95
33	33.1	31.7	30.2	28.6	26.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	18.03
34	32.1	30.7	29.3	27.7	25.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	19.13
35	31.2	29.8	28.5	26.9	24.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	20.28
36	30.3	29.0	27.7	26.2	24.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	21.45
37	29.5	28.2	27.0	25.5	23.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	22.66
38	28.7	27.5	26.3	24.8	22.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	23.90

Loads above the upper heavy lines will cause maximum allowable shears in webs. See, also, paragraphs in text and foot-note with same, page 567, relating to web-buckling in beams

Loads below the lower broken lines will cause excessive deflections

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table IV* (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Steel I Beams

Maximum bending stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Span, ft	Depth and weight of sections													Coefficient of deflection
	15-in	12-in							10-in					
	36 lb	55 lb	50 lb	45 lb	40 lb	35 lb	31½ lb	27½ lb	40 lb	35 lb	30 lb	25 lb	22 lb	
..	...	197.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	149.8	120.4	...	...	...	...
3	...	190.2	167.8	138.2	...	104.6	...	...	112.8	104.1	91.0	...	...	0.15
4	...	142.7	134.8	127.0	110.4	101.5	84.0	...	84.6	78.1	71.6	62.0	...	0.27
5	...	114.1	107.9	101.6	95.6	81.2	76.7	...	67.7	62.5	57.2	52.1	...	0.41
..	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	61.2	...	...	...	...	46.4	...
6	86.7	95.1	89.9	84.7	79.7	67.6	63.9	59.1	56.4	52.1	47.7	43.4	40.5	0.60
7	82.3	81.5	77.0	72.6	68.3	58.0	54.8	50.7	48.4	44.6	40.9	37.2	34.7	0.81
8	72.0	71.3	67.4	63.5	59.8	50.7	48.0	44.4	42.3	39.0	35.8	32.6	30.4	1.06
9	64.0	63.4	59.9	56.4	53.1	45.1	42.6	39.4	37.6	34.7	31.8	28.9	27.0	1.34
10	57.6	57.1	53.9	50.8	47.8	40.6	38.4	35.5	33.9	31.2	28.6	26.0	24.3	1.66
11	52.4	51.9	49.0	46.2	43.5	36.9	34.9	32.3	30.8	28.4	26.0	23.7	22.1	2.00
12	48.0	47.6	44.9	42.3	39.8	33.8	32.0	29.6	28.2	26.0	23.9	21.7	20.2	2.38
13	44.3	43.9	41.5	39.1	36.8	31.2	29.5	27.3	26.0	24.0	22.0	20.0	18.7	2.80
14	41.2	40.8	38.5	36.3	34.2	29.0	27.4	25.3	24.2	22.3	20.4	18.6	17.4	3.24
15	38.4	38.0	36.0	33.9	31.9	27.1	25.6	23.7	22.6	20.8	19.1	17.4	16.2	3.72
16	36.0	35.7	33.7	31.7	29.9	25.4	24.0	22.2	21.2	19.5	17.9	16.3	15.2	4.24
17	33.9	33.6	31.7	29.9	28.1	23.9	22.6	20.9	19.9	18.4	16.8	15.3	14.3	4.78
18	32.0	31.7	30.0	28.2	26.6	22.5	21.3	19.7	18.8	17.4	15.9	14.5	13.5	5.36
19	30.3	30.0	28.4	26.7	25.2	21.4	20.2	18.7	17.8	16.4	15.1	13.7	12.8	5.98
20	28.8	28.5	27.0	25.4	23.9	20.3	19.2	17.7	16.9	15.6	14.3	13.0	12.1	6.62
21	27.4	27.2	25.7	24.2	22.8	19.3	18.3	16.9	16.1	14.9	13.6	12.4	11.6	7.30
22	26.2	25.9	24.5	23.1	21.7	18.4	17.4	16.1	15.4	14.2	13.0	11.8	11.0	8.01
23	25.1	24.8	23.4	22.1	20.8	17.6	16.7	15.4	...	...	...	...	...	8.76
24	24.0	23.8	22.5	21.2	19.9	16.9	16.0	14.8	...	...	...	...	...	9.53
25	23.0	22.8	21.6	20.3	19.1	16.2	15.3	14.2	...	...	...	...	...	10.35
26	22.2	21.9	20.7	19.5	18.4	15.6	14.8	13.6	...	...	...	...	...	11.19
27	21.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.07
28	20.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.98
29	19.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13.92
30	19.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	14.90
31	18.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	15.91
32	18.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	16.95

Loads above the upper heavy lines will cause maximum allowable shears in webs. See, also, paragraphs in text and foot-note with same, page 567, relating to web-buckling in beams.

Loads below the lower broken lines will cause excessive deflections

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* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table IV* (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Steel I Beams

Maximum bending stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Span, ft	Depth and weight of sections												Coefficient of deflection
	9-in				8-in					7-in			
	35 lb	30 lb	25 lb	21 lb	25½ lb	23 lb	20½ lb	18 lb	17½ lb	20 lb	17½ lb	15 lb	
..	131.8	102.4	73.1	...	86.6	71.8	57.1	...	...	64.1	49.4	...	......
3	88.3	80.5	72.6	52.2	60.8	57.3	53.9	43.2	...	42.9	39.8	35.0	0.15
4	66.2	60.4	54.5	50.3	45.6	43.0	40.4	37.9	33.6	32.1	29.9	27.6	0.27
5	53.0	48.3	43.6	40.3	36.5	34.4	32.3	30.3	31.1	25.7	23.9	22.1	0.41
6	44.2	40.2	36.3	33.6	30.4	28.7	26.9	25.3	25.9	21.4	19.9	18.4	0.60
7	37.9	34.5	31.1	28.8	26.1	24.6	23.1	21.7	22.2	18.4	17.1	15.8	0.81
8	33.1	30.2	27.2	25.2	22.8	21.5	20.2	19.0	19.4	16.1	14.9	13.8	1.06
9	29.4	26.8	24.2	22.4	20.3	19.1	18.0	16.9	17.3	14.3	13.3	12.3	1.34
10	26.5	24.1	21.8	20.1	18.2	17.2	16.2	15.2	15.6	12.9	11.9	11.0	1.66
11	24.1	22.0	19.8	18.3	16.6	15.6	14.7	13.8	14.1	11.7	10.9	10.0	2.00
12	22.1	20.1	18.2	16.8	15.2	14.3	13.5	12.6	13.0	10.7	10.0	9.2	2.38
13	20.4	18.6	16.8	15.5	14.0	13.2	12.4	11.7	12.0	9.9	9.2	8.5	2.80
14	18.9	17.2	15.6	14.4	13.0	12.3	11.5	10.8	11.1	9.2	8.5	7.9	3.24
15	17.7	16.1	14.5	13.4	12.2	11.5	10.8	10.1	10.4	8.6	8.0	7.4	3.72
16	16.6	15.1	13.6	12.6	11.4	10.8	10.1	9.5	9.7	8.0	7.5	6.9	4.24
17	15.6	14.2	12.8	11.8	10.7	10.1	9.5	8.9	9.2	...	...	...	4.78
18	14.7	13.4	12.1	11.2	10.1	9.6	9.0	8.4	8.6	...	...	...	5.36
19	13.9	12.7	11.5	10.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5.98
20	13.3	12.1	10.9	10.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6.62

Span, ft	Depth and weight of sections													Coefficient of deflection
	6-in			5-in			4-in				3-in			
	17¼ lb	14¾ lb	12¼ lb	14¾ lb	12¼ lb	9¾ lb	10½ lb	9½ lb	8½ lb	7½ lb	7½ lb	6½ lb	5½ lb	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	..	..	..	21.7	..	..	......
1	57.0	...	...	50.4	35.7	...	32.8	27.0	21.0	..	20.7	15.8	10.2	0.02
2	46.6	42.2	27.6	32.3	29.1	21.0	19.0	18.0	16.9	15.2	10.4	9.6	8.8	0.07
3	31.0	28.4	25.8	21.5	19.4	17.2	12.7	12.0	11.3	10.6	6.9	6.4	5.9	0.15
4	23.3	21.3	19.4	16.2	14.5	12.9	9.5	9.0	8.5	8.0	5.2	4.8	4.4	0.27
5	18.6	17.1	15.5	12.9	11.6	10.3	7.6	7.2	6.8	6.4	4.1	3.8	3.5	0.41
6	15.5	14.2	12.9	10.8	9.7	8.6	6.3	6.0	5.6	5.3	3.5	3.2	2.9	0.60
7	13.3	12.2	11.1	9.2	8.3	7.4	5.4	5.1	4.8	4.5	3.0	2.7	2.5	0.81
8	11.6	10.7	9.7	8.1	7.3	6.4	4.8	4.5	4.2	4.0	2.6	2.4	2.2	1.06
9	10.3	9.5	8.6	7.2	6.5	5.7	4.2	4.0	3.8	3.5	..	..	..	1.34
10	9.3	8.5	7.7	6.5	5.8	5.2	3.8	3.6	3.4	3.2	..	..	..	1.66
11	8.5	7.8	7.0	5.9	5.3	4.7	...	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.00
12	7.8	7.1	6.5	5.4	4.8	4.3	...	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.38
13	7.2	6.6	6.0	...	...	...	...	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.80
14	6.7	6.1	5.5	...	...	...	...	..	..	..	..	..	..	3.24

Loads above the upper heavy lines will cause maximum allowable shears in webs. See, also, paragraphs in text and foot-note with same, page 567, relating to web-buckling in beams

Loads below the lower broken lines will cause excessive deflections

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* **From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.**

Table V.* Safe Uniform Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Steel Channels

Maximum bending stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Span, ft	Depth and weight of sections												Coefficient of deflection
	15-in						13-in						
	55 lb	50 lb	45 lb	40 lb	35 lb	33 lb	50 lb	45 lb	40 lb	37 lb	35 lb	32 lb	
....	245.4	216.0	186.0	...	...	...	205.7	176.3	...	...	...	...	....
3	204.0	190.9	177.8	157.2	127.8	120.0	171.6	160.3	146.9	123.2	117.5	97.5	0.15
4	153.0	143.2	133.4	123.6	113.8	111.1	128.7	120.2	111.7	106.6	103.2	97.5	0.27
5	122.4	114.5	106.7	98.9	91.0	88.9	103.0	96.2	89.4	85.3	82.6	78.0	0.41
6	102.0	95.4	88.9	82.4	75.8	74.1	85.8	80.2	74.5	71.1	68.8	65.0	0.60
7	87.4	81.8	76.2	70.6	65.0	63.5	73.6	68.7	63.8	60.9	59.0	55.7	0.81
8	76.5	71.6	66.7	61.8	56.9	55.6	64.4	60.1	55.9	53.3	51.6	48.7	1.06
9	68.0	63.6	59.3	54.9	50.6	49.4	57.2	53.4	49.7	47.4	45.9	43.3	1.34
10	61.2	57.3	53.3	49.4	45.5	44.5	51.5	48.1	44.7	42.7	41.3	39.0	1.66
11	55.6	52.1	48.5	44.9	41.4	40.4	46.8	43.7	40.6	38.8	37.5	35.4	2.00
12	51.0	47.7	44.5	41.2	37.9	37.0	42.9	40.1	37.2	35.5	34.4	32.5	2.38
13	47.1	44.1	41.0	38.0	35.0	34.2	39.6	37.0	34.4	32.8	31.8	30.0	2.80
14	43.7	40.9	38.1	35.3	32.5	31.8	35.8	34.4	31.9	30.5	29.5	27.9	3.24
15	40.8	38.2	35.6	33.0	30.3	29.6	34.3	32.1	29.8	28.4	27.5	26.0	3.72
16	38.2	35.8	33.3	30.9	28.4	27.8	32.2	30.1	27.9	26.7	25.8	24.4	4.24
17	36.0	33.7	31.4	29.1	26.8	26.1	30.3	28.3	26.3	25.1	24.3	22.9	4.78
18	34.0	31.8	29.6	27.5	25.3	24.7	28.6	26.7	24.8	23.7	22.9	21.7	5.36
19	32.2	30.1	28.1	26.0	23.9	23.4	27.1	25.3	23.5	22.4	21.7	20.5	5.98
20	30.6	28.6	26.7	24.7	22.8	22.3	25.7	24.0	22.3	21.3	20.6	19.5	6.62
21	29.1	27.3	25.4	23.5	21.7	21.2	24.5	22.9	21.3	20.3	19.7	18.6	7.30
22	27.8	26.0	24.3	22.5	20.7	20.2	23.4	21.9	20.3	19.4	18.8	17.7	8.01
23	26.6	24.9	23.2	21.5	19.8	19.3	22.4	20.9	19.4	18.5	18.0	17.0	8.76
24	25.5	23.9	22.2	20.6	19.0	18.5	21.5	20.0	18.6	17.8	17.2	16.2	9.53
25	24.5	22.9	21.3	19.8	18.2	17.8	20.6	19.2	17.9	17.1	16.5	15.6	10.35
26	23.5	22.0	20.5	19.0	17.5	17.1	19.8	18.5	17.2	16.4	15.9	15.0	11.19
27	22.7	21.2	19.8	18.3	16.9	16.5	19.1	17.8	16.6	15.8	15.3	14.4	12.07
28	21.9	20.5	19.1	17.7	16.3	15.9	18.4	17.2	16.0	15.2	14.7	13.9	12.98
29	21.1	19.7	18.4	17.0	15.7	15.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	13.92
30	20.4	19.1	17.8	16.5	15.2	14.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	14.90
31	19.7	18.5	17.2	15.9	14.7	14.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	15.91
32	19.1	17.9	16.7	15.4	14.2	13.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	16.95

Loads above the upper heavy lines will cause maximum allowable shears in webs. See, also, paragraphs in text and foot-note with same, page 567, relating to web-buckling in beams

Loads below the lower broken lines will cause excessive deflections

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* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table V[*] (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Steel Channels

Maximum bending stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Span, ft	Depth and weight of sections										Coefficient of deflection
	12-in					10-in					
	40 lb	35 lb	30 lb	25 lb	20½ lb	35 lb	30 lb	25 lb	20 lb	15 lb	
....	181.9	....	....	....	....	164.6	135.2	105.8	....	....	....
2	175.1	152.6	123.1	93.6	....	123.2	110.1	97.0	76.4	48.0	0.07
3	116.7	106.2	95.8	85.3	67.2	82.1	73.4	64.7	56.0	47.6	0.15
4	87.5	79.7	71.8	64.0	56.9	61.6	55.1	48.5	42.0	35.7	0.27
5	70.0	63.7	57.5	51.2	45.5	49.3	44.0	38.8	33.6	28.5	0.41
6	58.4	53.1	47.9	42.7	38.0	41.1	36.7	32.3	28.0	23.8	0.60
7	50.0	45.5	41.1	36.6	32.5	35.2	31.5	27.7	24.0	20.4	0.81
8	43.8	39.8	35.9	32.0	28.5	30.8	27.5	24.3	21.0	17.8	1.06
9	38.9	35.4	31.9	28.4	25.3	27.4	24.5	21.6	18.7	15.9	1.34
10	35.0	31.9	28.7	25.6	22.8	24.6	22.0	19.4	16.8	14.3	1.66
11	31.8	29.0	26.1	23.3	20.7	22.4	20.0	17.6	15.3	13.0	2.00
12	29.2	26.6	23.9	21.3	19.0	20.5	18.4	16.2	14.0	11.9	2.38
13	26.9	24.5	22.1	19.7	17.5	19.0	16.9	14.9	12.9	11.0	2.80
14	25.0	22.8	20.5	18.3	16.3	17.6	15.7	13.9	12.0	10.2	3.24
15	23.3	21.2	19.2	17.1	15.2	16.4	14.7	12.9	11.2	9.5	3.72
16	21.9	19.9	18.0	16.0	14.2	15.4	13.8	12.1	10.5	8.9	4.24
17	20.6	18.7	16.9	15.1	13.4	14.5	13.0	11.4	9.9	8.4	4.78
18	19.5	17.7	16.0	14.2	12.7	13.7	12.2	10.8	9.3	7.9	5.36
19	18.4	16.8	15.1	13.5	12.0	13.0	11.6	10.2	8.8	7.5	5.98
20	17.5	15.9	14.4	12.8	11.4	12.3	11.0	9.7	8.4	7.1	6.62
21	16.7	15.2	13.7	12.2	10.8	11.7	10.5	9.2	8.0	6.8	7.30
22	15.9	14.5	13.1	11.6	10.4	11.2	10.0	8.8	7.6	6.5	8.01
23	15.2	13.9	12.5	11.1	9.9	....	....	....	....	....	8.76
24	14.6	13.3	12.0	10.7	9.5	....	....	....	....	....	9.53
25	14.0	12.8	11.5	10.2	9.1	....	....	....	....	....	10.35
26	13.5	12.3	11.1	9.8	8.8	....	....	....	....	....	11.19

Loads above the upper heavy lines will cause maximum allowable shears in webs. See, also, paragraphs in text and foot-note with same, page 567, relating to web-buckling in beams.

Loads below the lower broken lines will cause excessive deflections

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[*] From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table V* (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Steel Channels

Maximum bending stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Span, ft	Depth and weight of sections														Coefficient of deflection
	9-in				8-in					7-in					
	25 lb	20 lb	15 lb	13¼ lb	21¼ lb	18¾ lb	16¼ lb	13¾ lb	11¼ lb	19¾ lb	17¼ lb	14¾ lb	12¼ lb	9¾ lb	
....	110.7	81.4	..	..	93.1	78.4	63.8	49.1	..	88.6	73.9	59.2	44.5	..	....
2	83.8	72.0	51.8	41.4	63.7	58.5	53.2	48.0	35.2	50.6	46.0	41.4	36.8	29.4	0.07
3	55.9	48.0	40.2	37.4	42.5	39.0	35.5	32.0	28.7	33.7	30.7	27.6	24.6	21.4	0.15
4	41.9	36.0	30.1	28.0	31.8	29.2	26.6	24.0	21.5	25.3	23.0	20.7	18.4	16.1	0.27
5	33.5	28.8	24.1	22.4	25.5	23.4	21.3	19.2	17.2	20.2	18.4	26.6	14.7	12.9	0.41
6	27.9	24.0	20.1	18.7	21.2	19.5	17.7	16.0	14.4	16.9	15.3	13.8	12.3	10.7	0.60
7	23.9	20.6	17.2	16.0	18.2	16.7	15.2	13.7	12.3	14.4	13.1	11.8	10.5	9.2	0.81
8	20.9	18.0	15.1	14.0	15.9	14.6	13.3	12.0	10.8	12.6	11.5	10.4	9.2	8.0	1.06
9	18.6	16.0	13.4	12.5	14.2	13.0	11.8	10.7	9.6	11.2	10.2	9.2	8.2	7.1	1.34
10	16.8	14.4	12.1	11.2	12.7	11.7	10.6	9.6	8.6	10.1	9.2	8.3	7.4	6.4	1.66
11	15.2	13.1	11.0	10.2	11.6	10.6	9.7	8.7	7.8	9.2	8.4	7.5	6.7	5.8	2.00
12	14.0	12.0	10.1	9.3	10.6	9.7	8.9	8.0	7.2	8.4	7.7	6.9	6.1	5.4	2.38
13	12.9	11.1	9.3	8.6	9.8	9.0	8.2	7.4	6.6	7.8	7.1	6.4	5.7	4.9	2.80
14	12.0	10.3	8.6	8.0	9.1	8.4	7.6	6.9	6.2	7.2	6.6	5.9	5.3	4.6	3.24
15	11.2	9.6	8.0	7.5	8.5	7.8	7.1	6.4	5.7	6.7	6.1	5.5	4.9	4.3	3.72
16	10.5	9.0	7.5	7.0	8.0	7.3	6.7	6.0	5.4	6.3	5.7	5.2	4.6	4.0	4.24
17	9.9	8.5	7.1	6.6	7.5	6.9	6.3	5.6	5.1	..	..	..	..	..	4.78
18	9.3	8.0	6.7	6.2	7.1	6.5	5.9	5.3	4.8	..	..	..	..	..	5.36
19	8.8	7.6	6.3	5.9	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5.98
20	8.4	7.2	6.0	5.6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6.62

Span, ft	Depth and weight of sections													Coefficient of deflection
	6-in				5-in			4-in			3-in			
	15½ lb	13 lb	10½ lb	8 lb	11½ lb	9 lb	6½ lb	7¼ lb	6¼ lb	5¼ lb	6 lb	5 lb	4 lb	
....	...	...	...	...	47.7	...	..	26.0	..	..	21.7	15.8	..	......
1	67.6	59.8	38.2	24.0	44.4	33.0	19.0	24.4	20.2	14.4	14.7	13.1	10.2	0.02
2	34.7	30.8	26.9	23.1	22.2	18.9	15.8	12.2	11.1	10.1	7.4	6.6	5.8	0.07
3	23.2	20.5	17.9	15.4	14.8	12.6	10.5	8.1	7.4	6.7	4.9	4.4	3.9	0.15
4	17.4	15.4	13.4	11.6	11.1	9.5	7.9	6.1	5.6	5.1	3.7	3.3	2.9	0.27
5	13.9	12.3	10.8	9.2	8.9	7.6	6.3	4.9	4.5	4.1	2.9	2.6	2.3	0.41
6	11.6	10.3	9.0	7.7	7.4	6.3	5.3	4.1	3.7	3.4	2.5	2.2	1.9	0.60
7	9.9	8.8	7.7	6.6	6.3	5.4	4.5	3.5	3.2	2.9	2.1	1.9	1.7	0.81
8	8.7	7.7	6.7	5.8	5.5	4.7	4.0	3.0	2.8	2.5	1.8	1.6	1.5	1.06
9	7.7	6.8	6.0	5.1	4.9	4.2	3.5	2.7	2.5	2.2	..	..	..	1.34
10	6.9	6.2	5.4	4.6	4.4	3.8	3.2	2.4	2.2	2.0	..	..	..	1.66
11	6.3	5.6	4.9	4.2	4.0	3.4	2.9	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.00
12	5.8	5.1	4.5	3.9	3.7	3.2	2.6	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.38
13	5.3	4.7	4.1	3.6	...	...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.80
14	5.0	4.4	3.8	3.3	...	...	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3.24

Loads above the upper heavy lines will cause maximum allowable shears in webs. See, also, paragraphs in text and foot-note with same, page 567, relating to web-buckling in beams

Loads below the lower broken lines will cause excessive deflections

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* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table VI.* Safe Uniform Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Steel H Beams

Maximum bending stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Span, ft	Depth and weight of sections				Coefficients of deflection
	8-in 34.0-lb	6-in 23.8-lb	5-in 18.7-lb	4-in 13.6-lb	
....	....	....	....	25.0	....
3	....	....	31.3	19.0	0.15
4	....	37.6	25.4	14.3	0.27
5	....	32.1	20.3	11.4	0.41
....	60.0	....	....	....	....
6	51.3	26.7	16.9	9.5	0.60
7	44.0	22.9	14.5	8.1	0.81
8	38.5	20.1	12.7	7.1	1.06
9	34.2	17.8	11.3	6.3	1.34
10	30.8	16.0	10.1	5.7	1.66
11	28.0	14.6	9.2	....	2.00
12	25.6	13.4	8.5	....	2.38
13	23.7	12.3	....	....	2.80
14	22.0	11.5	....	....	3.24
15	20.5	....	....	....	3.72
16	19.2	....	....	....	4.24
17	18.1	....	....	....	4.78
18	17.1	....	....	....	5.36

Table VII.† Safe Uniform Loads in Pounds for Small Steel Channels, or Grooved Steel

Computed for a fiber-stress of 16 000 lb per sq in

For dimensions of sections, see Table IX, page 360

Section-number	Depth, in	Weight per foot, lb	Span in feet							
			2	2.5	3	3.5	4	4.5	5	6
1	2¼	3.80	3 785	3 028	2 523	2 163	1 892	1 682	1 514	1 261
2	2	2.90	2 560	2 048	1 706	1 463	1 280	1 138	1 024	853
3	2	3.60	2 880	2 304	1 920	1 643	1 440	1 280	1 152	960
4	2	3.60	3 120	2 496	2 080	1 783	1 560	1 386	1 248	1 040
5	2	2.60	2 256	1 804	1 504	1 289	1 128	1 000	902	752
6	2	2.00	1 418	1 134	945	810	709	630	567	472
7	1¾	1.13	907	726	605	518	454	403	363	302
8	1½	1.32	768	614	512	439	384	341	307	256
9	1½	1.46	868	694	578	496	434	386	347	289
10	1¼	0.94	475	380	316	271	237	211	190	....
11	1⅛	1.12	469	375	313	268	234	208	188	....
12	1⅛	1.00	437	350	291	250	218	194	175	....
13	1	0.83	336	268	224	192	168	....	....	....
14	1	0.68	266	212	177	152	133	....	....	....
15	⅞	0.67	224	180	149	128	112	....	....	....
16	⅞	0.69	229	183	152	130	....	....	....	....
17	¾	0.53	133	106	88	.....	....	....	....	....

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

† Compiled by F. E. Kidder. See note on page 570.

Table VIII.* Safe Uniform Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Steel Angles with Equal Legs

Neutral Axis Parallel to Either Leg

Maximum bending stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Size, in	Thickness, in	1-ft span	Maximum span, 360 × deflection	
		Safe load	Safe load	Length, ft
8×8	1⅛	186.99	8.31	22.5
8×8	1 1/16	177.81	7.87	22.6
8×8	1	168.53	7.43	22.7
8×8	15/16	159.15	6.98	22.8
8×8	⅞	149.55	6.53	22.9
8×8	13/16	139.84	6.08	23.0
8×8	¾	130.03	5.63	23.1
8×8	11/16	120.00	5.18	23.2
8×8	⅝	109.87	4.73	23.2
8×8	9/16	99.63	4.28	23.3
8×8	½	89.28	3.82	23.4
6×6	1	91.41	5.48	16.7
6×6	15/16	86.51	5.16	16.8
6×6	⅞	81.39	4.84	16.8
6×6	13/16	76.27	4.51	16.9
6×6	¾	71.04	4.18	17.0
6×6	11/16	65.81	3.85	17.1
6×6	⅝	60.37	3.51	17.2
6×6	9/16	54.83	3.17	17.3
6×6	½	49.17	2.83	17.4
6×6	7/16	43.41	2.48	17.5
6×6	⅜	37.65	2.14	17.6
5×5	1	61.87	4.55	13.6
5×5	15/16	58.56	4.28	13.7
5×5	⅞	55.15	4.00	13.8
5×5	13/16	51.73	3.73	13.9
5×5	¾	48.32	3.45	14.0
5×5	11/16	44.80	3.18	14.1
5×5	⅝	41.17	2.90	14.2
5×5	9/16	37.44	2.62	14.3
5×5	½	33.60	2.34	14.4
5×5	7/16	29.76	2.06	14.5
5×5	⅜	25.81	1.78	14.5
4×4	13/16	32.11	2.95	10.9
4×4	¾	29.97	2.73	11.0
4×4	11/16	27.84	2.51	11.1
4×4	⅝	25.60	2.29	11.2
4×4	9/16	23.36	2.07	11.3
4×4	½	21.01	1.85	11.4
4×4	7/16	18.67	1.63	11.4
4×4	⅜	16.21	1.41	11.5
4×4	5/16	13.76	1.19	11.6
4×4	¼	11.20	0.96	11.7

Size, in	Thickness, in	1-ft span	Maximum span, 360 × deflection	
		Safe load	Safe load	Length, ft
3½×3½	13/16	24.00	2.55	9.4
3½×3½	¾	22.51	2.37	9.5
3½×3½	11/16	20.91	2.18	9.6
3½×3½	⅝	19.31	2.00	9.7
3½×3½	9/16	17.60	1.81	9.7
3½×3½	½	15.89	1.62	9.8
3½×3½	7/16	14.08	1.42	9.9
3½×3½	⅜	12.27	1.23	10.0
3½×3½	5/16	10.45	1.04	10.1
3½×3½	¼	8.43	0.83	10.2
3 ×3	⅝	13.87	1.69	8.2
3 ×3	9/16	12.69	1.53	8.3
3 ×3	½	11.41	1.37	8.3
3 ×3	7/16	10.13	1.21	8.4
3 ×3	⅜	8.85	1.04	8.5
3 ×3	5/16	7.57	0.88	8.6
3 ×3	¼	6.19	0.71	8.7
2½×2½	½	7.79	1.15	6.8
2½×2½	7/16	6.93	1.01	6.9
2½×2½	⅜	6.08	0.87	7.0
2½×2½	5/16	5.12	0.72	7.1
2½×2½	¼	4.16	0.58	7.2
2½×2½	3/16	3.20	0.44	7.3
2½×2½	⅛	2.13	0.29	7.4
2 ×2	7/16	4.27	0.79	5.4
2 ×2	⅜	3.73	0.68	5.5
2 ×2	5/16	3.20	0.57	5.6
2 ×2	¼	2.67	0.46	5.7
2 ×2	3/16	2.03	0.35	5.8
2 ×2	⅛	1.39	0.24	5.8
1¾×1¾	7/16	3.20	0.68	4.7
1¾×1¾	⅜	2.77	0.60	4.7
1¾×1¾	5/16	2.45	0.51	4.8
1¾×1¾	¼	2.03	0.41	4.9
1¾×1¾	3/16	1.49	0.30	5.0
1¾×1¾	⅛	1.07	0.21	5.1
1½×1½	⅜	2.03	0.51	4.0
1½×1½	5/16	1.71	0.42	4.1
1½×1½	¼	1.39	0.33	4.2
1½×1½	3/16	1.07	0.25	4.3
1½×1½	⅛	0.77	0.17	4.4
1¼×1¼	5/16	1.17	0.36	3.3
1¼×1¼	¼	0.97	0.29	3.4
1¼×1¼	3/16	0.76	0.22	3.5
1¼×1¼	⅛	0.52	0.14	3.6
1 ×1	¼	0.60	0.22	2.6
1 ×1	3/16	0.47	0.17	2.7
1 ×1	⅛	0.33	0.12	2.8

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table IX.* Safe Uniform Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Steel Angles with Unequal Legs

Neutral Axis Parallel to Shorter Leg

Maximum bending stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Size, in	Thickness, in	1-ft span	Maximum span, 360 × deflection	
		Safe load	Safe load	Length, ft
8×6	1	161.17	7.49	21.5
8×6	15/16	152.21	7.04	21.6
8×6	7/8	143.04	6.59	21.7
8×6	13/16	133.87	6.14	21.8
8×6	3/4	124.48	5.68	21.9
8×6	11/16	114.88	5.22	22.0
8×6	5/8	105.28	4.76	22.1
8×6	9/16	95.47	4.30	22.2
8×6	1/2	85.55	3.84	22.3
8×6	7/16	75.41	3.37	22.4
8×3½	1	146.03	7.53	19.4
8×3½	15/16	138.03	7.08	19.5
8×3½	7/8	129.92	6.63	19.6
8×3½	13/16	121.60	6.17	19.7
8×3½	3/4	113.17	5.72	19.8
8×3½	11/16	104.58	5.23	19.9
8×3½	5/8	95.79	4.78	20.0
8×3½	9/16	86.93	4.32	20.1
8×3½	1/2	77.97	3.86	20.2
8×3½	7/16	68.80	3.39	20.3
7×3½	1	112.85	6.52	17.3
7×3½	15/16	106.67	6.13	17.4
7×3½	7/8	100.48	5.75	17.5
7×3½	13/16	94.08	5.36	17.6
7×3½	3/4	87.68	4.97	17.6
7×3½	11/16	81.07	4.58	17.7
7×3½	5/8	74.35	4.18	17.8
7×3½	9/16	67.52	3.77	17.9
7×3½	1/2	60.59	3.37	18.0
7×3½	7/16	53.44	2.96	18.1
7×3½	3/8	46.19	2.54	18.2
6×4	1	85.55	5.56	15.4
6×4	15/16	80.96	5.22	15.5
6×4	7/8	76.27	4.89	15.6
6×4	13/16	71.47	4.55	15.7
6×4	3/4	66.67	4.22	15.8
6×4	11/16	61.65	3.88	15.9
6×4	5/8	56.64	3.54	16.0
6×4	9/16	51.52	3.20	16.1
6×4	1/2	46.19	2.85	16.2
6×4	7/16	40.85	2.51	16.3
6×4	3/8	35.41	2.16	16.4
6×3½	1	83.52	5.57	15.0
6×3½	15/16	79.04	5.24	15.1
6×3½	7/8	74.45	4.90	15.2
6×3½	13/16	69.87	4.57	15.3
6×3½	3/4	65.07	4.23	15.4
6×3½	11/16	60.27	3.89	15.5
6×3½	5/8	55.36	3.55	15.6
6×3½	9/16	50.35	3.21	15.7
6×3½	1/2	45.23	2.86	15.8
6×3½	7/16	40.00	2.52	15.9
6×3½	3/8	34.67	2.17	16.0
6×3½	5/16	29.23	1.83	16.0
5×4.	7/8	53.23	4.00	13.3
5×4	13/16	50.03	3.73	13.4
5×4	3/4	46.61	3.46	13.5
5×4	11/16	43.20	3.19	13.5
5×4	5/8	39.79	2.92	13.6
5×4	9/16	36.16	2.64	13.7
5×4	1/2	32.53	2.36	13.8
5×4	7/16	28.80	2.07	13.9
5×4	3/8	24.96	1.78	14.0
5×3½	7/8	52.05	4.04	12.9
5×3½	13/16	48.85	3.76	13.0
5×3½	3/4	45.65	3.49	13.1
5×3½	11/16	42.35	3.21	13.2
5×3½	5/8	38.93	2.93	13.3
5×3½	9/16	35.41	2.64	13.4
5×3½	1/2	31.89	2.36	13.5
5×3½	7/16	28.16	2.07	13.6
5×3½	3/8	24.43	1.79	13.7
5×3½	5/16	20.69	1.51	13.7
5×3	13/16	47.47	3.77	12.6
5×3	3/4	44.37	3.49	12.7
5×3	11/16	41.17	3.22	12.8
5×3	5/8	37.87	2.94	12.9
5×3	9/16	34.45	2.65	13.0
5×3	1/2	31.04	2.37	13.1
5×3	7/16	27.52	2.09	13.2
5×3	3/8	23.89	1.80	13.3
5×3	5/16	20.16	1.51	13.4

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* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table IX* (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Steel Angles with Unequal Legs

Neutral Axis Parallel to Shorter Leg

Maximum bending stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Size, in	Thickness, in	1-ft span	Maximum span, 360 × deflection		Size, in	Thickness, in	1-ft span	Maximum span, 360 × deflection	
		Safe load	Safe load	Length, ft			Safe load	Safe load	Length ft
4½×3	13/16	38.61	3.36	11.5	3 ×2½	9/16	12.27	1.53	8.0
4½×3	¾	36.05	3.11	11.6	3 ×2½	½	11.09	1.37	8.1
4½×3	11/16	33.49	2.87	11.7	3 ×2½	7/16	9.92	1.22	8.1
4½×3	⅝	30.83	2.62	11.8	3 ×2½	⅜	8.64	1.06	8.2
4½×3	9/16	28.16	2.38	11.8	3 ×2½	5/16	7.36	0.89	8.3
4½×3	½	25.28	2.13	11.9	3 ×2½	¼	5.97	0.71	8.4
4½×3	7/16	22.40	1.87	12.0					
4½×3	⅜	19.52	1.61	12.1	3 ×2	½	10.67	1.39	7.7
4½×3	5/16	16.43	1.35	12.2	3 ×2	7/16	9.49	1.22	7.8
4 ×3½	13/16	31.15	2.94	10.6	3 ×2	⅜	8.32	1.05	7.9
4 ×3½	¾	29.23	2.73	10.7	3 ×2	5/16	7.04	0.88	8.0
4 ×3½	11/16	27.20	2.52	10.8	3 ×2	¼	5.76	0.71	8.1
4 ×3½	⅝	25.07	2.30	10.9					
4 ×3½	9/16	22.93	2.08	11.0	2½×2	½	7.47	1.15	6.5
4 ×3½	½	20.69	1.86	11.1	2½×2	7/16	6.72	1.02	6.6
4 ×3½	7/16	18.35	1.64	11.2	2½×2	⅜	5.87	0.88	6.7
4 ×3½	⅜	16.00	1.41	11.3	2½×2	5/16	5.01	0.74	6.8
4 ×3½	5/16	13.44	1.18	11.4	2½×2	¼	4.05	0.59	6.9
4 ×3	13/16	30.61	2.97	10.3	2½×2	3/16	3.09	0.44	7.0
4 ×3	¾	28.59	2.75	10.4	2½×2	⅛	2.13	0.30	7.1
4 ×3	11/16	26.56	2.53	10.5					
4 ×3	⅝	24.53	2.31	10.6	2½×1½	5/16	4.69	0.73	6.4
4 ×3	9/16	22.40	2.09	10.7	2½×1½	¼	3.84	0.59	6.5
4 ×3	½	20.16	1.87	10.8	2½×1½	3/16	2.99	0.45	6.6
4 ×3	7/16	17.92	1.64	10.9					
4 ×3	⅜	15.57	1.42	11.0	2¼×1½	½	5.76	1.02	5.6
4 ×3	5/16	13.12	1.19	11.0	2¼×1½	7/16	5.12	0.90	5.7
4 ×3	¼	10.67	0.96	11.1	2¼×1½	⅜	4.48	0.77	5.8
3½×3	13/16	23.47	2.57	9.1	2¼×1½	5/16	3.84	0.65	5.9
3½×3	¾	21.87	2.38	9.2	2¼×1½	¼	3.20	0.53	6.0
3½×3	11/16	20.37	2.19	9.3	2¼×1½	3/16	2.45	0.40	6.0
3½×3	⅝	18.77	2.00	9.4					
3½×3	9/16	17.17	1.81	9.5	2 ×1½	⅜	3.63	0.70	5.2
3½×3	½	15.47	1.62	9.5	2 ×1½	5/16	3.09	0.58	5.3
3½×3	7/16	13.76	1.43	9.6	2 ×1½	¼	2.56	0.47	5.4
3½×3	⅜	12.05	1.24	9.7	2 ×1½	3/16	1.92	0.35	5.5
3½×3	5/16	10.24	1.05	9.8	2 ×1½	⅛	1.39	0.24	5.6
3½×3	¼	8.32	0.84	9.9	2 ×1¼	¼	2.45	0.47	5.2
3½×2½	11/16	19.73	2.19	9.0	2 ×1¼	3/16	1.92	0.36	5.3
3½×2½	⅝	18.24	2.00	9.1					
3½×2½	9/16	16.64	1.82	9.1	1¾×1¼	¼	1.92	0.42	4.6
3½×2½	½	15.04	1.63	9.2	1¾×1¼	3/16	1.49	0.32	4.7
3½×2½	7/16	13.44	1.44	9.3	1¾×1¼	⅛	1.00	0.21	4.8
3½×2½	⅜	11.73	1.24	9.4	1½×1¼	5/16	1.71	0.44	3.9
3½×2½	5/16	9.92	1.04	9.5	1½×1¼	¼	1.39	0.35	4.0
3½×2½	¼	8.00	0.83	9.6	1½×1¼	3/16	1.07	0.26	4.1

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* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table X.[*] Safe Uniform Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Steel Angles with Unequal Legs

Neutral Axis Parallel to Longer Leg

Maximum bending stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Size, in	Thickness, in	1-ft span	Maximum span, 360 × deflection		Size, in	Thickness, in	1-ft span	Maximum span, 360 × deflection	
		Safe load	Safe load	Length, ft			Safe load	Safe load	Length, ft
8×6	1	95.15	5.44	17.5	6×3½	1	30.93	3.09	10.0
8×6	15/16	89.92	5.11	17.6	6×3½	15/16	29.23	2.90	10.1
8×6	7/8	84.69	4.79	17.7	6×3½	7/8	27.63	2.71	10.2
8×6	13/16	79.36	4.45	17.8	6×3½	13/16	25.92	2.52	10.3
8×6	3/4	73.92	4.13	17.9	6×3½	3/4	24.21	2.33	10.4
8×6	11/16	68.37	3.80	18.0	6×3½	11/16	22.51	2.14	10.5
8×6	5/8	62.72	3.48	18.0	6×3½	5/8	20.69	1.95	10.6
8×6	9/16	56.96	3.15	18.1	6×3½	9/16	18.88	1.76	10.7
8×6	1/2	51.09	2.81	18.2	6×3½	1/2	16.96	1.57	10.8
8×6	7/16	45.12	2.47	18.3	6×3½	7/16	15.04	1.38	10.9
					6×3½	3/8	13.12	1.19	11.0
8×3½	1	32.21	3.10	10.4	6×3½	5/16	11.09	1.00	11.1
8×3½	15/16	30.40	2.90	10.5					
8×3½	7/8	28.69	2.71	10.6					
8×3½	13/16	26.88	2.52	10.7	5×4	7/8	35.31	3.15	11.2
8×3½	3/4	25.07	2.33	10.8	5×4	13/16	33.17	2.93	11.3
8×3½	11/16	23.15	2.13	10.9	5×4	3/4	30.93	2.71	11.4
8×3½	5/8	21.33	1.94	11.0	5×4	11/16	28.69	2.50	11.5
8×3½	9/16	19.41	1.74	11.1	5×4	5/8	26.45	2.28	11.6
8×3½	1/2	17.49	1.57	11.2	5×4	9/16	24.11	2.16	11.7
8×3½	7/16	15.57	1.38	11.3	5×4	1/2	21.76	1.84	11.8
					5×4	7/16	19.31	1.62	11.9
7×3½	1	31.57	3.10	10.2	5×4	3/8	16.75	1.40	12.0
7×3½	15/16	29.87	2.90	10.3					
7×3½	7/8	28.16	2.71	10.4	5×3½	7/8	26.88	2.71	9.9
7×3½	13/16	26.45	2.52	10.5	5×3½	13/16	25.28	2.53	10.0
7×3½	3/4	24.64	2.33	10.6	5×3½	3/4	23.68	2.34	10.1
7×3½	11/16	22.83	2.14	10.7	5×3½	11/16	21.97	2.15	10.2
7×3½	5/8	21.01	1.95	10.8	5×3½	5/8	20.27	1.97	10.3
7×3½	9/16	19.20	1.76	10.9	5×3½	9/16	18.45	1.78	10.4
7×3½	1/2	17.28	1.57	11.0	5×3½	1/2	16.64	1.60	10.4
7×3½	7/16	15.36	1.38	11.1	5×3½	7/16	14.83	1.41	10.5
7×3½	3/8	13.44	1.19	11.2	5×3½	3/8	12.91	1.22	10.6
					5×3½	5/16	10.88	1.02	10.7
6×4	1	40.43	3.55	11.4					
6×4	15/16	38.29	3.33	11.5					
6×4	7/8	36.16	3.12	11.6	5×3	13/16	18.56	2.16	8.6
6×4	13/16	33.92	2.90	11.7	5×3	3/4	17.39	2.00	8.7
6×4	3/4	31.68	2.69	11.8	5×3	11/16	16.11	1.83	8.8
6×4	11/16	29.44	2.47	11.9	5×3	5/8	14.83	1.67	8.9
6×4	5/8	27.09	2.26	12.0	5×3	9/16	13.55	1.51	9.0
6×4	9/16	24.64	2.05	12.0	5×3	1/2	12.27	1.35	9.1
6×4	1/2	22.19	1.84	12.1	5×3	7/16	10.88	1.18	9.2
6×4	7/16	19.73	1.62	12.2	5×3	3/8	9.49	1.02	9.3
6×4	3/8	17.07	1.39	12.3	5×3	5/16	8.00	0.85	9.4

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[*] From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table X* (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Steel Angles with Unequal Legs

Neutral Axis Parallel to Longer Leg

Maximum bending stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Size, in	Thickness, in	1-ft span	Maximum span, 360 × deflection		Size, in	Thickness, in	1-ft span	Maximum span, 360 × deflection	
		Safe load	Safe load	Length, ft			Safe load	Safe load	Length, ft
4½×3	13/16	18.24	2.15	8.5	3 ×2½	9/16	8.75	1.25	7.0
4½×3	¾	17.07	1.99	8.6	3 ×2½	½	7.89	1.12	7.0
4½×3	11/16	15.89	1.83	8.7	3 ×2½	7/16	7.04	0.99	7.1
4½×3	⅝	14.61	1.67	8.8	3 ×2½	⅜	6.19	0.85	7.2
4½×3	9/16	13.33	1.51	8.8	3 ×2½	5/16	5.23	0.72	7.3
4½×3	½	12.05	1.35	8.9	3 ×2½	¼	4.27	0.58	7.4
4½×3	7/16	10.77	1.19	9.0					
4½×3	⅜	9.39	1.03	9.1	3 ×2	½	5.01	0.88	5.7
4½×3	5/16	8.00	0.87	9.2	3 ×2	7/16	4.48	0.77	5.8
4 ×3½	13/16	24.53	2.56	9.6	3 ×2	⅜	3.95	0.67	5.9
4 ×3½	¾	22.93	2.37	9.7	3 ×2	5/16	3.41	0.57	6.0
4 ×3½	11/16	21.33	2.18	9.8	3 ×2	¼	2.77	0.46	6.1
4 ×3½	⅝	19.63	1.98	9.9					
4 ×3½	9/16	17.92	1.79	10.0	2½×2	½	4.91	0.89	5.5
4 ×3½	½	16.21	1.60	10.1	2½×2	7/16	4.37	0.78	5.6
4 ×3½	7/16	14.40	1.41	10.2	2½×2	⅜	3.84	0.67	5.7
4 ×3½	⅜	12.59	1.22	10.3	2½×2	5/16	3.31	0.57	5.8
4 ×3½	5/16	10.67	1.03	10.4	2½×2	¼	2.67	0.46	5.9
4 ×3	13/16	17.92	2.15	8.3	2½×2	3/16	2.13	0.35	6.0
4 ×3	¾	16.75	1.99	8.4	2½×2	⅛	1.49	0.23	6.1
4 ×3	11/16	15.57	1.83	8.5	2½×1½	5/16	1.81	0.41	4.4
4 ×3	⅝	14.40	1.67	8.6	2½×1½	¼	1.49	0.33	4.5
4 ×3	9/16	13.12	1.51	8.7	2½×1½	3/16	1.17	0.25	4.6
4 ×3	½	11.84	1.35	8.8					
4 ×3	7/16	10.56	1.19	8.9	2¼×1½	½	2.77	0.67	4.1
4 ×3	⅜	9.28	1.03	8.9	2¼×1½	7/16	2.45	0.58	4.2
4 ×3	5/16	7.89	0.87	9.0	2¼×1½	⅜	2.13	0.50	4.3
4 ×3	¼	6.40	0.70	9.1	2¼×1½	5/16	1.81	0.41	4.4
3½×3	13/16	17.60	2.17	8.1	2¼×1½	¼	1.49	0.33	4.5
3½×3	¾	16.43	2.01	8.2	2¼×1½	3/16	1.17	0.25	4.6
3½×3	11/16	15.36	1.85	8.3					
3½×3	⅝	14.19	1.69	8.4	2 ×1½	⅜	2.13	0.51	4.2
3½×3	9/16	12.91	1.52	8.5	2 ×1½	5/16	1.81	0.42	4.3
3½×3	½	11.73	1.36	8.6	2 ×1½	¼	1.49	0.34	4.4
3½×3	7/16	10.45	1.20	8.7	2 ×1½	3/16	1.17	0.26	4.5
3½×3	⅜	9.07	1.04	8.7	2 ×1½	⅛	0.80	0.17	4.6
3½×3	5/16	7.68	0.87	8.8	2 ×1¼	¼	1.04	0.28	3.7
3½×3	¼	6.19	0.70	8.9	2 ×1¼	3/16	0.80	0.21	3.8
3½×2½	11/16	10.56	1.51	7.0					
3½×2½	⅝	9.81	1.39	7.1	1¾×1¼	¼	1.01	0.28	3.6
3½×2½	9/16	8.96	1.26	7.1	1¾×1¼	3/16	0.80	0.22	3.7
3½×2½	½	8.11	1.13	7.2	1¾×1¼	⅛	0.56	0.15	3.8
3½×2½	7/16	7.25	0.99	7.3					
3½×2½	⅜	6.29	0.85	7.4	1½×1¼	5/16	1.17	0.34	3.4
3½×2½	5/16	5.33	0.71	7.5	1½×1¼	¼	0.99	0.28	3.5
3½×2½	¼	4.37	0.58	7.6	1½×1¼	3/16	0.78	0.22	3.6

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XI.* Safe Uniform Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Steel Tees with Neutral Axis Parallel to Flange

Maximum bending stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

EQUAL FLANGE AND STEM

Size		Weight per foot, lb	1-ft span	Maximum span, 360 × deflection		Size		Weight per foot, lb	1-ft span	Maximum span, 360 × deflection	
Flnge in	Stem in		Safe load	Safe load	L'gth ft	Flnge in	Stem in		Safe load	Safe load	L'gth ft
4	4	13.5	21.55	1.89	11.4	2¼	2¼	4.1	3.41	0.53	6.4
4	4	10.5	16.85	1.45	11.6	2	2	4.3	3.31	0.59	5.6
3½	3½	11.7	16.32	1.65	9.9	2	2	3.56	2.77	0.49	5.7
3½	3½	9.2	12.69	1.27	10.0	1¾	1¾	3.09	2.03	0.41	4.9
3	3	9.9	11.73	1.41	8.3	1½	1½	2.47	1.49	0.36	4.1
3	3	8.9	10.45	1.24	8.4	1½	1½	1.94	1.17	0.27	4.3
3	3	7.8	9.17	1.08	8.5	1¼	1¼	2.02	1.01	0.30	3.4
3	3	6.7	7.89	0.92	8.6	1¼	1¼	1.59	0.78	0.22	3.5
2½	2½	6.4	6.29	0.90	7.0	1	1	1.25	0.49	0.18	2.7
2½	2½	5.5	5.33	0.75	7.1	1	1	0.89	0.35	0.12	2.9
2¼	2¼	4.9	4.37	0.69	6.3	....	....	......	....	...	....

UNEQUAL FLANGE AND STEM

Size		Weight per foot, lb	1-ft span	Maximum span, 360 × deflection		Size		Weight per foot, lb	1-ft span	Maximum span, 360 × deflection	
Flnge in	Stem in		Safe load	Safe load	L'gth ft	Flnge in	Stem in		Safe load	Safe load	L'gth ft
5	3	13.4	11.41	1.25	9.1	3½	3	10.8	12.05	1.42	8.5
5	2½	10.9	8.96	1.20	7.5	3½	3	8.5	9.49	1.09	8.7
4½	3½	15.7	22.72	2.37	9.6	3½	3	7.5	9.07	1.04	8.7
4½	3	9.8	9.71	1.07	9.1	3	4	11.7	20.69	1.92	10.8
4½	3	8.4	8.32	0.90	9.2	3	4	10.5	18.35	1.68	10.9
4½	2½	9.2	6.72	0.87	7.7	3	4	9.2	16.11	1.47	11.0
4½	2½	7.8	5.76	0.74	7.8	3	3½	10.8	15.89	1.66	9.6
4	5	15.3	33.39	2.40	13.9	3	3½	9.7	14.19	1.46	9.7
4	5	11.9	25.92	1.84	14.1	3	3½	8.5	12.37	1.26	9.8
4	4½	14.4	27.09	2.15	12.6	3	2½	7.1	6.40	0.89	7.2
4	4½	11.2	21.12	1.65	12.8	3	2½	6.1	5.55	0.76	7.3
4	3	9.2	9.60	1.08	8.9	2½	3	7.1	8.96	1.08	8.3
4	3	7.8	8.21	0.90	9.1	2½	3	6.1	7.68	0.91	8.4
4	2½	8.5	6.61	0.87	7.6	2½	1¼	2.87	0.93	0.25	3.7
4	2½	7.2	5.65	0.73	7.7	2	1½	3.09	1.60	0.36	4.4
4	2	7.8	4.27	0.70	6.1	1½	2	2.45	2.03	0.37	5.5
4	2	6.7	3.63	0.59	6.2	1½	1¼	1.25	0.57	0.15	3.7
3½	4	12.6	21.12	1.90	11.1	1¼	⅝	0.88	0.14	0.07	1.9
3½	4	9.8	16.53	1.46	11.3	....	....	......	....	...	....

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[*] From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Bethlehem I Beams.* BETHLEHEM I BEAMS from 8 to 24 in in depth, inclusive, have the same strength, or section-modulus, as STANDARD BEAMS of the same depth. Bethlehem beams, due to the proportions of the sections, weigh generally 10% less than standard beams of the same depth and strength. For example (Table VI, page 357), a Bethlehem 15-in I beam, weighing 54 lb per ft, has a section-modulus of 81.3. The corresponding standard section (Table IV, page 354) is a 15-in I beam weighing 60 lb per ft, with a section-modulus of 81.2. Therefore, for equal strength, the Bethlehem beam weighs 6 lb per ft less than the standard beam, or a saving of 10% in weight. Similar comparisons with other sizes of the standard beams previously rolled by the mills of this country show that the Bethlehem I beams afford an equal carrying capacity, but with practically 10% less weight of metal.

Thickness of Webs and Flanges. It is claimed that the WEBS of standard beams are much thicker than required for a scientifially proportioned section. It is impossible to reduce the WEB-THICKNESS in the ordinary mill, but with the Grey Mill webs of the desired thickness can be produced. By adding to the FLANGES part of the metal thus saved, the strength of the beam is maintained, thereby affording a lighter section of the same strength. The WIDE FLANGES give increased lateral stiffness, which commends the use of such beams in many cases, where the NARROW FLANGES and lack of sufficient lateral rigidity prevent the use of ordinary standard beams.

Depth and Weight of Bethlehem Beams. Formerly the heaviest beams rolled in this country were 24 in deep, weighed 115 lb per ft, and had a section-modulus of 246.3. Whenever greater strength was required, a riveted girder was necessary. Bethlehem beams are rolled to a maximum depth of 30 in, weigh 200 lb per ft, and have a section-modulus of 610, or two and one-half times the strength of the largest beam previously rolled. The opportunity for using ROLLED BEAMS instead of BUILT-UP RIVETED GIRDERS is, therefore, greatly increased. These rolled beams and girders afford a saving in WEIGHT OF METAL and also a large economy in COST OF FABRICATION, as they do not require the punching, assembling and riveting necessary for building a riveted girder.

Bethlehem Girder Beams.* BETHLEHEM GIRDER BEAMS, from 8 to 24 in in depth, inclusive, have a strength, or section-modulus, equal to that of two minimum-weight STANDARD I BEAMS of the same depth. The girder beam, however, weighs generally 12½% less than the combined weight of the two standard beams, not considering the saving in weight of separators needed for assembling the standard beams into a girder. For example, a Bethlehem 15-in girder beam, weighing 73 lb per ft has a section-modulus of 117.8 (Table VII, page 358). Two standard 15-in I beams, each weighing 42 lb per ft, have together a like section-modulus of 117.8 (Table IV, page 354). Thus, for equal depth and strength, the girder beam weighs 11 lb per ft less than the two standard beams. This is a saving of 13% in weight, not including separators, which would add at least 2½ lb per ft more to the weight of the assembled girder. In this case a total saving of 16% in weight is afforded by the Bethlehem girder beam, besides the saving in the cost of assembling the standard beams into a girder.

Safe Uniformly Distributed Loads for Bethlehem I Beams and Girder Beams. Tables XII * and XIII,* pages 594 to 602, give the SAFE UNIFORMLY DISTRIBUTED LOADS in tons of 2 000 lb, on Bethlehem girder beams and I beams for a maximum fiber-stress of 16 000 lb per sq in. The tabular loads include the weight of the beam, which must be deducted to obtain the net load a beam will support. Safe loads for INTERMEDIATE or HEAVIER WEIGHTS of beams can be obtained from the separate COLUMN OF CORRECTIONS, given for each size. This last column of the table states the increase in safe load for each pound of increase in weight per foot of beam. If the load is CONCENTRATED AT THE MIDDLE OF THE SPAN, the safe load is one-half the safe uniformly distributed load for the same span. The SAFE LOADS ON SHORT SPANS may be limited by the shearing strength of the web, instead of by the maximum fiber-stress allowed in the flanges. This limit is indicated in the tables by the heavy horizontal lines. The loads given above these lines are greater than the SAFE CRIPPLING or BUCKLING STRENGTH OF THE WEB, and must not be used unless the webs are stiffened.* In such cases it will generally be advisable to select a heavier beam with a thicker web. To use these tables for other spans, or for other distribution of the loading, see explanation, page 566. To use these tables for beams not secured against YIELDING LATERALLY, see Lateral Deflection, pages 566 and 670.

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* Adapted by permission from the Catalogue of Bethlehem Structural Shapes, Bethlehem Steel Company, South Bethlehem, Pa.

* See paragraphs and accompanying foot-note, page 567, relating to web-buckling of beams.

Table XII. Safe Uniform Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Bethlehem Girder Beams

Beams secured against yielding sidewise

Span, ft	30-in G		Add for each lb increase in weight	28-in G		Add for each lb increase in weight	26-in G		Add for each lb increase in weight
	G30 a	G30		G28 a	G28		G26 a	G26	
	200 lb	180 lb		180 lb	165 lb		160 lb	150 lb	
18	180.75	161.87	0.44	153.75	138.89	0.41	128.11	117.47	0.38
19	171.24	153.35	0.41	145.66	131.58	0.39	121.37	111.29	0.36
20	162.68	145.68	0.39	138.38	125.00	0.37	115.30	105.72	0.34
21	154.93	138.74	0.37	131.79	119.05	0.35	109.81	100.69	0.32
22	147.89	132.44	0.36	125.80	113.64	0.33	104.82	96.11	0.31
23	141.46	126.68	0.34	120.33	108.70	0.32	100.26	91.93	0.30
24	135.56	121.40	0.33	115.31	104.17	0.31	96.08	88.10	0.28
25	130.14	116.55	0.31	110.70	100.00	0.29	92.24	84.58	0.27
26	125.14	112.06	0.30	106.44	96.16	0.28	88.69	81.32	0.26
27	120.50	107.91	0.29	102 50	92.60	0.27	85.41	78.31	0.25
28	116.20	104.06	0.28	98.84	89.29	0.26	82.36	75.52	0.24
29	112.19	100.47	0.27	95.43	86.21	0.25	79.52	72.91	0.23
30	108.45	97.12	0.26	92.25	83.34	0.24	76.87	70.48	0.23
31	104.95	93.99	0.25	89.27	80.65	0.24	74.39	68.21	0.22
32	101.67	91.05	0.25	86.48	78.13	0.23	72.06	66.08	0.21
33	98.59	88.29	0.24	83.86	75.76	0.22	69.88	64.07	0.21
34	95.69	85.70	0.23	81.40	73.53	0.22	67.82	62.19	0.20
35	92.96	83.25	0.22	79.07	71.43	0.21	65.88	60.41	0.19
36	90.38	80.93	0.22	76.88	69.45	0.20	64.05	58.73	0.19
37	87.93	78.75	0.21	74.80	67.57	0.20	62.32	57.15	0.18
38	85.62	76.67	0.21	72.83	65.79	0.19	60.68	55.64	0.18
39	83.42	74.71	0.20	70.96	64.10	0.19	59.13	54.22	0.17
40	81.34	72.84	0.20	69.19	62.50	0.18	57.65	52.86	0.17
41	79.35	71.05	0.19	67.50	60.98	0.18	56.24	51.57	0.17
42	77.47	69.37	0.19	65.89	59.53	0.17	54.90	50.34	0.16
43	75.66	67.76	0.18	64.36	58.14	0.17	53.63	49.17	0.16
44	73.94	66.22	0.18	62.90	56.82	0.17	52.41	48.06	0.15
45	72.30	64.75	0.17	61.50	55.56	0.16	51.24	46.99	0.15
46	70.73	63.34	0.17	60.16	54.35	0.16	50.13	45.97	0.15
47	69.22	61.99	0.17	58.88	53.19	0.16	49.06	44.99	0.14
48	67.78	60.70	0.16	57.66	52.09	0.15	48.04	44.05	0.14

Safe loads given include weight of beam
Maximum fiber-stress, 16 000 lb per sq in
The section-numbers are given for convenience in identification and ordering

Table XII (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Bethlehem Girder Beams

Beams secured against yielding sidewise

Span, ft	24-in G		Add for each lb increase in weight	20-in G		Add for each lb increase in weight	18-in G	Add for each lb increase in weight
	G24 a	G24		G20 a	G20		G18	
	140 lb	120 lb		140 lb	112 lb		92 lb	
12	115.61	133.60	0.52	130.43	104.09	0.44	78.59	0.39
13	143.64	123.33	0.48	120.40	96.09	0.40	72.54	0.36
14	133.38	114.52	0.45	111.80	89.23	0.37	67.36	0.34
15	124.48	106.88	0.42	104.34	83.28	0.35	62.87	0.31
16	116.71	100.20	0.39	97.82	78.07	0.33	58.94	0.29
17	109.84	94.31	0.37	92.07	73.48	0.31	55.47	0.28
18	103.74	89.07	0.35	86.95	69.40	0.29	52.39	0.26
19	98.28	84.38	0.33	82.38	65.74	0.28	49.63	0.25
20	93.37	80.16	0.31	78.26	62.46	0.26	47.15	0.24
21	88.92	76.35	0.30	74.53	59.48	0.25	44.91	0.22
22	84.88	72.88	0.29	71.14	56.78	0.24	42.87	0.21
23	81.19	69.71	0.27	68.05	54.31	0.23	41.00	0.20
24	77.80	66.80	0.26	65.22	52.05	0.22	39.29	0.20
25	74.69	64.15	0.25	62.61	49.97	0.21	37.72	0.19
26	71.82	61.66	0.24	60.20	48.04	0.20	36.27	0.18
27	69.16	59.38	0.23	57.97	46.26	0.19	34.93	0.17
28	66.69	57.26	0.22	55.90	44.61	0.19	33.68	0.17
29	64.39	55.29	0.22	53.97	43.07	0.18	32.52	0.16
30	62.24	53.44	0.21	52.17	41.64	0.17	31.43	0.16
31	60.24	51.72	0.20	50.49	40.30	0.17	30.42	0.15
32	58.35	50.10	0.20	48.91	39.04	0.16	29.47	0.15
33	56.58	48.58	0.19	47.43	37.85	0.16	28.58	0.14
34	54.92	47.15	0.18	46.04	36.74	0.15	27.74	0.14
35	53.35	45.81	0.18	44.72	35.69	0.15	26.94	0.13
36	51.87	44.54	0.17	43.48	34.70	0.15	26.20	0.13
37	50.47	43.33	0.17	42.30	33.76	0.14	25.49	0.13
38	49.14	42.19	0.17	41.19	32.87	0.14	24.82	0.12
39	47.88	41.11	0.16	40.13	32.03	0.13	24.18	0.12
40	46.68	40.08	0.16	39.13	31.23	0.13	23.58	0.12

Safe loads given include weight of beam. Maximum fiber-stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Loads given above the heavy lines are greater than safe loads for web-crippling. See paragraphs and accompanying foot-note, page 567, relating to web-buckling of beams

Safe loads given below the lower, broken line cause deflections exceeding 1/360 of the span

The section-numbers are given for convenience in identification and ordering

Table XII (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Bethlehem Girder Beams

Beams secured against yielding sidewise

Span, ft	15-in G			Add for each lb increase in weight	12-in G		Add for each lb increase in weight
	G15 b	G15 a	G15		G12 a	G12	
	140 lb	104 lb	73 lb		70 lb	55 lb	
10	113.26	86.76	62.83	0.39	47.89	38.40	0.31
11	102.96	78.88	57.12	0.36	43.54	34.91	0.29
12	94.38	72.30	52.36	0.33	39.91	32.00	0.26
13	87.12	66.74	48.33	0.30	36.84	29.54	0.24
14	80.90	61.97	44.88	0.28	34.21	27.43	0.22
15	75.51	57.84	41.89	0.26	31.93	25.60	0.21
16	70.79	54.23	39.27	0.25	29.93	24.00	0.20
17	66.62	51.04	36.96	0.23	28.17	22.59	0.19
18	62.92	48.20	34.91	0.22	26.61	21.33	0.18
19	59.61	45.67	33.07	0.21	25.21	20.21	0.17
20	56.63	43.38	31.42	0.20	23.95	19.20	0.16
21	53.93	41.32	29.92	0.19	22.81	18.28	0.15
22	51.48	39.44	28.56	0.18	21.77	17.45	0.14
23	49.24	37.72	27.32	0.17	20.82	16.69	0.14
24	47.19	36.15	26.18	0.16	19.95	16.00	0.13
25	45.30	34.71	25.13	0.16	19.16	15.36	0.13
26	43.56	33.37	24.17	0.15	18.42	14.77	0.12
27	41.95	32.13	23.27	0.15	17.74	14.22	0.12
28	40.45	30.99	22.44	0.14	17.10	13.71	0.11
29	39.05	29.92	21.67	0.14	16.51	13.24	0.11
30	37.75	28.92	20.94	0.13	15.96	12.80	0.10
31	36.54	27.99	20.27	0.13	15.45	12.39	0.10
32	35.39	27.11	19.63	0.12	14.97	12.00	0.10
33	34.32	26.29	19.04	0.12	14.51	11.64	0.10
34	33.31	25.52	18.48	0.12	14.09	11.29	0.09
35	32.36	24.79	17.95	0.11	13.68	10.97	0.09

Safe loads given include weight of beam. Maximum fiber-stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Load given above the heavy line is greater than a safe load for web-crippling. See paragraphs and accompanying foot-note, page 567, relating to web-buckling of beams.

Safe loads given below the lower, broken lines cause deflections exceeding $1/360$ of the span.

The section-numbers are given for convenience in identification and ordering

Table XII (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Bethlehem Girder Beams

Beams secured against yielding sidewise

Span, ft	10-in-G	Add for each lb increase in weight	Span, ft	9-in G	Add for each lb increase in weight	8-in G	Add for each lb increase in weight
	G10			G9		G8	
	44 lb			38 lb		32.5 lb	
10	26.05	0.26	5	40.50	0.47	30.51	0.42
11	23.68	0.24	6	33.75	0.39	25.42	0.35
12	21.71	0.22	7	28.93	0.34	21.79	0.30
13	20.04	0.20	8	25.31	0.29	19.07	0.26
14	18.61	0.19	9	22.50	0.26	16.95	0.23
15	17.37	0.17	10	20.25	0.23	15.25	0.21
16	16.28	0.16	11	18.41	0.21	13.87	0.19
17	15.32	0.15	12	16.88	0.20	12.71	0.17
18	14.47	0.15	13	15.58	0.18	11.73	0.16
19	13.71	0.14	14	14.47	0.17	10.90	0.15
20	13.03	0.13	15	13.50	0.16	10.17	0.14
21	12.40	0.12	16	12.66	0.15	9.53	0.13
22	11.84	0.12	17	11.91	0.14	8.97	0.12
23	11.33	0.11	18	11.25	0.13	8.47	0.12
24	10.85	0.11	19	10.66	0.12	8.03	0.11
25	10.42	0.10	20	10.13	0.12	7.63	0.10
26	10.02	0.10	21	9.64	0.11	7.26	0.10
27	9.65	0.10	22	9.21	0.11	6.93	0.09
28	9.30	0.09	23	8.80	0.10	6.63	0.09
29	8.98	0.09	24	8.44	0.10	6.36	0.08
30	8.68	0.09	25	8.10	0.09	6.10	0.08
31	8.40	0.08	26	7.79	0.09	....	....
32	8.14	0.08	27	7.50	0.09	....	....
33	7.89	0.08	28	7.23	0.08	....	....
34	7.66	0.08	29	6.98	0.08	....	....
35	7.44	0.07	30	6.75	0.07	....	....

Safe loads given include weight of beam. Maximum fiber-stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Loads given above the heavy lines are greater than safe loads for web-crippling. See paragraphs and accompanying foot-note, page 567, relating to web-buckling of beams

Safe loads given below the lower, broken lines cause deflections exceeding 1/360 of the span.

The section-numbers are given for convenience in identification and ordering

Table XIII. Safe Uniform Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Bethlehem I Beams

Beams secured against yielding sidewise

Span, ft	30-in I	Add for each lb increase in weight	28-in I	Add for each lb increase in weight	26-in I	Add for each lb increase in weight
	B30		B28		B26	
	120 lb		105 lb		90 lb	
18	103.50	0.44	84.95	0.41	67.86	0.38
19	98.05	0.41	80.48	0.39	64.29	0.36
20	93.15	0.39	76.46	0.37	61.07	0.34
21	88.71	0.37	72.82	0.35	58.16	0.32
22	84.68	0.36	69.51	0.33	55.52	0.31
23	81.00	0.34	66.49	0.32	53.11	0.30
24	77.62	0.33	63.72	0.31	50.89	0.28
25	74.52	0.31	61.17	0.29	48.86	0.27
26	71.65	0.30	58.81	0.28	46.98	0.26
27	69.00	0.29	56.64	0.27	45.24	0.25
28	66.54	0.28	54.61	0.26	43.62	0.24
29	64.24	0.27	52.73	0.25	42.12	0.23
30	62.10	0.26	50.97	0.24	40.71	0.23
31	60.10	0.25	49.33	0.24	39.40	0.22
32	58.22	0.25	47.79	0.23	38.17	0.21
33	56.45	0.24	46.34	0.22	37.01	0.21
34	54.79	0.23	44.98	0.22	35.92	0.20
35	53.23	0.22	43.69	0.21	34.90	0.19
36	51.75	0.22	42.48	0.20	33.93	0.19
37	50.35	0.21	41.33	0.20	33.01	0.18
38	49.03	0.21	40.24	0.19	32.14	0.18
39	47.77	0.20	39.21	0.19	31.32	0.17
40	46.57	0.20	38.23	0.19	30.54	0.17
41	45.44	0.19	37.30	0.18	29.79	0.17
42	44.36	0.19	36.41	0.18	29.08	0.16
43	43.33	0.18	35.56	0.17	28.41	0.16
44	42.34	0.18	34.75	0.17	27.76	0.15
45	41.40	0.17	33.98	0.16	27.14	0.15
46	40.50	0.17	33.24	0.16	26.55	0.15
47	39.64	0.17	32.54	0.16	25.99	0.14
48	38.81	0.16	31.86	0.15	25.45	0.14

Safe loads given include weight of beam. Maximum fiber-stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

The section-numbers are given for convenience in identification and ordering

Table XIII (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Bethlehem I Beams

Beams secured against yielding sidewise

Span, ft	24-in I		Add for each lb increase in weight	20-in I					Add for each lb increase in weight
	B24 a	B24		B20 a		B20			
	84 lb	73 lb		82 lb	72 lb	69 lb	64 lb	59 lb	
12	88.22	77.45	0.52	69.33	65.18	56.40	54.32	52.10	0.44
13	81.43	71.49	0.48	63.99	60.17	52.06	50.14	48.09	0.40
14	75.62	66.38	0.45	59.42	55.87	48.34	46.56	44.65	0.37
15	70.58	61.96	0.42	55.46	52.14	45.12	43.45	41.68	0.35
16	66.16	58.08	0.39	51.99	48.88	42.30	40.74	39.07	0.33
17	62.27	54.67	0.37	48.94	46.01	39.81	38.34	36.77	0.31
18	58.81	51.63	0.35	46.22	43.45	37.60	36.21	34.73	0.29
19	55.72	48.91	0.33	43.78	41.17	35.62	34.31	32.90	0.28
20	52.93	46.47	0.31	41.60	39.11	33.84	32.59	31.26	0.26
21	50.41	44.26	0.30	39.61	37.25	32.23	31.04	29.77	0.25
22	48.12	42.24	0.29	37.81	35.55	30.76	29.63	28.42	0.24
23	46.03	40.41	0.27	36.17	34.01	29.42	28.34	27.18	0.23
24	44.11	38.72	0.26	34.66	32.59	28.20	27.16	26.05	0.22
25	42.35	37.17	0.25	33.28	31.29	27.07	26.07	25.01	0.21
26	40.72	35.74	0.24	32.00	30.08	26.03	25.07	24.04	0.20
27	39.21	34.42	0.23	30.81	28.97	25.07	24.14	23.15	0.19
28	37.81	33.19	0.22	29.71	27.93	24.17	23.28	22.33	0.19
29	36.50	32.05	0.22	28.69	26.97	23.34	22.48	21.56	0.18
30	35.29	30.98	0.21	27.73	26.07	22.56	21.73	20.84	0.17
31	34.15	29.98	0.20	26.84	25.23	21.83	21.03	20.17	0.17
32	33.08	29.04	0.20	26.00	24.44	21.15	20.37	19.54	0.16
33	32.08	28.16	0.19	25.21	23.70	20.51	19.75	18.94	0.16
34	31.14	27.33	0.19	24.47	23.00	19.90	19.17	18.39	0.15
35	30.25	26.55	0.18	23.77	22.35	19.34	18.62	17.86	0.15
36	29.41	25.82	0.17	23.11	21.73	18.80	18.11	17.37	0.15
37	28.61	25.12	0.17	22.48	21.14	18.29	17.62	16.90	0.14
38	27.86	24.46	0.17	21.89	20.58	17.81	17.15	16.45	0.14
39	27.14	23.83	0.16	21.33	20.06	17.35	16.71	16.03	0.13
40	26.47	23.23	0.16	20.80	19.55	16.92	16.30	15.63	0.13

Safe loads given include weight of beam. Maximum fiber-stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Loads given above the heavy lines are greater than safe loads for web-crippling. See paragraphs and accompanying foot-note, page 567, relating to web-buckling of beams

The section-numbers are given for convenience in identification and ordering

Table XIII (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Bethlehem I Beams

Beams secured against yielding sidewise

Span, ft	18-in I			Add for each lb increase in weight	15-in I					Add for each lb increase in weight
	B18				B15 b	B15 a	B15			
	59 lb	54 lb	48.5 lb		71 lb	54 lb	46 lb	41 lb	38 lb	
12	43.62	41.58	39.42	0.39	47.18	36.15	28.73	27.06	26.23	0.33
13	40.26	38.38	36.39	0.36	43.55	33.37	26.52	24.98	24.21	0.30
14	37.39	35.64	33.79	0.34	40.44	30.99	24.62	23.19	22.48	0.28
15	34.90	33.26	31.54	0.31	37.75	28.92	22.98	21.65	20.98	0.25
16	32.71	31.18	29.56	0.29	35.39	27.11	21.55	20.30	19.67	0.26
17	30.79	29.35	27.83	0.28	33.30	25.52	20.28	19.10	18.51	0.23
18	29.08	27.72	26.28	0.26	31.45	24.10	19.15	18.04	17.49	0.22
19	27.55	26.26	24.90	0.25	29.80	22.83	18.14	17.09	16.56	0.21
20	26.17	24.95	23.65	0.24	28.31	21.69	17.24	16.24	15.74	0.20
21	24.93	23.76	22.53	0.22	26.96	20.66	16.42	15.46	14.99	0.19
22	23.79	22.68	21.50	0.21	25.74	19.72	15.67	14.76	14.31	0.18
23	22.76	21.70	20.57	0.21	24.62	18.86	14.99	14.12	13.68	0.17
24	21.81	20.79	19.71	0.20	23.59	18.07	14.36	13.53	13.11	0.16
25	20.94	19.96	18.92	0.19	22.65	17.35	13.79	12.99	12.59	0.16
26	20.13	19.19	18.19	0.18	21.78	16.68	13.26	12.49	12.11	0.15
27	19.39	18.48	17.52	0.17	20.97	16.07	12.77	12.03	11.66	0.15
28	18.69	17.82	16.89	0.17	20.22	15.49	12.31	11.60	11.24	0.14
29	18.05	17.21	16.31	0.16	19.52	14.96	11.89	11.20	10.85	0.14
30	17.45	16.63	15.77	0.16	18.87	14.46	11.49	10.82	10.49	0.13
31	16.88	16.10	15.26	0.15	18.26	13.99	11.12	10.47	10.15	0.13
32	16.36	15.59	14.78	0.15	17.69	13.56	10.77	10.15	9.84	0.12
33	15.86	15.12	14.33	0.14	17.16	13.15	10.45	9.84	9.54	0.12
34	15.40	14.68	13.91	0.14	16.65	12.76	10.14	9.55	9.26	0.12
35	14.96	14.26	13.52	0.13	16.18	12.39	9.85	9.28	8.99	0.11
36	14.54	13.86	13.14	0.13	15.73	12.05	9.58	9.02	8.74	0.11
37	14.15	13.49	12.78	0.13	15.30	11.72	9.32	8.78	8.51	0.11
38	13.77	13.13	12.45	0.12	14.90	11.42	9.07	8.55	8.28	0.10
39	13.42	12.79	12.13	0.12	14.52	11.12	8.84	8.33	8.07	0.10
40	13.09	12.47	11.83	0.12	14.15	10.84	8.62	8.12	7.87	0.10

Safe loads given include weight of beam. Maximum fiber-stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Load given above the heavy line is greater than safe load for web-crippling. See paragraphs and accompanying foot-note, page 567, relating to web-buckling of beams

Safe loads given below the broken lines cause deflections exceeding 1/360 of the span

The section-numbers are given for convenience in identification and ordering

Table XIII (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Bethlehem I Beams

Beams secured against yielding sidewise

Span, ft	12-in I			Add for each lb increase in weight	10-in I		Add for each lb increase in weight
	B12 a	B12			B10		
	36 lb	32 lb	28.5 lb		28.5 lb	23.5 lb	
9	26.59	22.57	21.36	0.35	15.95	14.57	0.29
10	23.93	20.31	19.22	0.31	14.35	13.11	0.26
11	21.76	18.46	17.47	0.29	13.05	11.92	0.24
12	19.94	16.92	16.02	0.26	11.96	10.92	0.22
13	18.41	15.62	14.79	0.24	11.04	10.08	0.20
14	17.09	14.51	13.73	0.22	10.25	9.36	0.19
15	15.95	13.54	12.81	0.21	9.57	8.74	0.17
16	14.96	12.69	12.01	0.20	8.97	8.19	0.16
17	14.08	11.95	11.31	0.19	8.44	7.71	0.15
18	13.30	11.28	10.68	0.17	7.97	7.28	0.15
19	12.60	10.69	10.12	0.17	7.55	6.90	0.14
20	11.97	10.15	9.61	0.16	7.18	6.55	0.13
21	11.40	9.67	9.15	0.15	6.84	6.24	0.12
22	10.88	9.23	8.74	0.14	6.52	5.96	0.12
23	10.41	8.83	8.36	0.14	6.24	5.70	0.11
24	9.97	8.46	8.01	0.13	5.98	5.46	0.11
25	9.57	8.12	7.69	0.13	5.74	5.24	0.10
26	9.20	7.81	7.39	0.12	5.52	5.04	0.10
27	8.86	7.52	7.12	0.12	5.32	4.86	0.10
28	8.55	7.25	6.86	0.11	5.13	4.68	0.09
29	8.25	7.00	6.63	0.11	4.95	4.52	0.09
30	9.98	6.77	6.41	0.11	4.78	4.37	0.09
31	7.72	6.55	6.20	0.10	....	....	....
32	7.48	6.35	6.01	0.10	....	....	....
33	7.25	6.15	5.82	0.10	....	....	....
34	7.04	5.97	5.65	0.09	....	....	....
35	6.84	5.80	5.49	0.09	....	....	....

Safe loads given include weight of beam. Maximum fiber-stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Safe loads given below the broken lines cause deflections exceeding 1/360 of the span

The section-numbers are given for convenience in identification and ordering

Table XIII (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Bethlehem I Beams

Beams secured against yielding sidewise

Span, ft	9-in I		Add for each lb increase in weight	8-in I		Add for each lb increase in weight
	B9			B8		
	24 lb	20 lb		19.5 lb	17.5 lb	
5	21.83	20.18	0.47	16.16	15.30	0.42
6	18.19	16.81	0.39	13.46	12.75	0.35
7	15.60	14.41	0.34	11.54	10.93	0.30
8	13.65	12.61	0.29	10.10	9.57	0.26
9	12.13	11.21	0.26	8.98	8.50	0.23
10	10.92	10.09	0.24	8.08	7.65	0.21
11	9.92	9.17	0.21	7.34	6.96	0.19
12	9.10	8.41	0.20	6.73	6.38	0.17
13	8.40	7.76	0.18	6.21	5.89	0.16
14	7.80	7.21	0.17	5.77	5.47	0.15
15	7.28	6.73	0.16	5.39	5.10	0.14
16	6.82	6.31	0.15	5.05	4.78	0.13
17	6.42	5.93	0.14	4.75	4.50	0.12
18	6.07	5.61	0.13	4.49	4.25	0.12
19	5.75	5.31	0.13	4.25	4.03	0.11
20	5.46	5.04	0.12	4.04	3.83	0.11
21	5.20	4.80	0.11	3.85	3.64	0.10
22	4.96	4.59	0.11	3.67	3.48	0.10
23	4.75	4.39	0.10	3.51	3.33	0.09
24	4.55	4.20	0.10	3.37	3.19	0.09
25	4.37	4.04	0.10	3.23	3.06	0.08
26	4.20	3.88	0.09	....	....	....
27	4.04	3.74	0.09	....	....	....
28	3.90	3.60	0.09	....	....	....
29	3.76	3.48	0.08	....	....	....
30	3.64	3.36	0.08	....	....	....

Safe loads given include weight of beam. Maximum fiber-stress, 16 000 lb per sq in

Safe loads given below the broken lines cause deflections exceeding $1/360$ of the span

The section-numbers are given for convenience in identification and ordering

Riveted Single-Beam and Double-Beam Girders.[*] Where a SINGLE ROLLED BEAM is insufficient to carry a load, the required capacity may be secured by fabrication in various ways. TWO BEAMS can be used, connected by bolts and separators. The total strength of these is twice that of the SINGLE BEAM of the same depth and weight. Care should be taken, however, to see that the loads are apportioned to them equally, and where it is necessary for the beams to act as a unit, the separators should consist of plates and angles and not be made of cast iron. If the loading is not uniformly distributed over the two beams, the strength of each must be computed separately. The use of a SINGLE-BEAM GIRDER with plates at top and bottom to sustain a given load is often more economical in material than the use of TWO BEAMS connected by bolts and separators. The beam girders in Table XIV, pages 605–6, have about twice the carrying capacity of the single beams of which they are built.

Tables XIV and XV give the SAFE LOADS for the SINGLE AND DOUBLE-BEAM GIRDERS commonly used. The values given in the tables are founded upon the moments of inertia of the various sections, deductions being made for the rivet-holes in both flanges. In Table XIV, taken by permission from Carnegie's Pocket Companion, the safe loads are based upon a fiber-stress for flange-bending of 16 000 lb per sq in, and in Table XV, retained from the former edition of Kidder's Pocket-Book, upon a fiber-stress of 13 000 lb per sq in. For other fiber-stresses, as 14 000 or 15 000 lb per sq in, the safe loads in Tables XIV or XV may be decreased or increased by PROPORTION as the LOADS vary as the FIBER-STRESSES.[†]

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[*] For tables of riveted plate girders, see Chapter XX.

[†] The editors decided to retain Table XV for the safe uniformly distributed loads for riveted steel-beam box girders, based upon a bending fiber-stress of 13 000 lb per sq in. To use this table for fiber-stresses of 14 000, 15 000 or 16 000 lb per sq in, divide the tabular loads by 13 and multiply the quotients by 14, 15 or 16, respectively, for the safe load at the required fiber-stress. In regard to Table XV, Mr. Kidder said, in the preceding editions of this pocket-book, "in order to amply compensate for the deterioration of the metal around the rivet-holes from punching, and also because these girders are more often used to support permanent loads, such as brick or stone walls, the maximum fiber-stress [for riveted double-beam girders] was limited to 13 000 lb per sq in, although it is but right to state that most of the latest handbooks of the steel-manufacturers give tables of safe loads for such girders based upon a fiber-stress of 15 000 lb per sq in. The author advises that for loads of masonry, which usually come very close to the estimated loads, and which are constantly applied, the girders be not loaded beyond the values given in the following tables (that is, based upon 13 000 lb per sq in), while for ordinary floor-loads, which seldom reach the estimated loads, an addition of ⅙th may be added to the values given in the tables."

Girders fabricated of single steel I beams and plates riveted to the upper and lower flanges, as shown in Table XIV, are not often used to support masonry walls, because of their relatively narrow flange-width and lack of lateral stiffness. In case they are used to support masonry walls and are not thoroughly braced laterally, it is recommended that the safe loads be reduced as explained, from those given in Table XIV, to agree with a fiber-stress of 13 000 or 14 000 lb per sq in, according to the span, bracing, character of loading, etc. It is recommended, also, that for girders fabricated of two steel I beams and plates riveted to the flanges, as shown in Table XV, and carrying masonry walls, the safe loads, given in this table and computed for a fiber-stress of 13 000 lb per sq in, be used, or, if increased, that the fiber-stress be taken not greater than 14 000 lb per sq in.

Recent handbooks have contained tables of safe uniformly distributed loads for fabricated steel girders computed from safe unit fiber-stresses, in pounds per square inch, for flange-bending as follows. For RIVETED SINGLE-BEAM GIRDERS: Carnegie Steel Company, 1903 Edition, no tables; Carnegie, 1915 Edition, 16 000, based upon the section-modulus of the gross area of the cross-section; Cambria Steel Company, 1912 Edition, no tables; (former) Passaic Steel Company, 1903 Edition, no tables; Kidder's Pocket-Book, previous editions, no tables. For RIVETED DOUBLE-BEAM GIRDERS: Car-

Example 21. A 13-in brick wall, 15 ft high, is to be built over an opening of 24 ft. What is the size of the double-beam girder required?

Solution. Assuming 25 ft as the distance, center to center of bearings and 121 lb per cu ft as the weight of brickwork, the weight of the wall is 25 × 15 × 121 = 45 375 lb, or about 22.68 tons. From Table XV, page 610, a girder composed of two 12-in steel beams, each weighing 31.5 lb per ft, and two 14 by ½-in flange-plates will carry safely, for a span of 25 ft, a uniformly distributed load of 23.23 tons, including its own weight. Deducting the latter, 1.42 tons, given in the next column, the result is 21.81 tons for the safe net load, which is 0.87 ton less than required. From the following column of the table it is seen that by increasing the thickness of the flange-plates 1⁄16 in it is safe to add 1.52 tons to the allowable load. This will more than make up the difference. Hence the required DOUBLE-BEAM GIRDER will be composed of two 12-in 31.5-lb beams, and two 14 by 9⁄16-in steel flange-plates.

A SINGLE-BEAM GIRDER (according to Table XIV, page 606), composed of one 15-in 42-lb I beam and two 8 by ½-in flange-plates will carry, at 16 000 lb per sq ft, 49 000 lb over a span of 25 ft, and as it is lighter, weighing but 69.2 lb per ft to the others 113.6 lb, it would be more economical. The DOUBLE-BEAM GIRDER is, however, more suitable in this particular case, as the 13-in wall should have a wider bearing than 8 in, and, also, the safe load should be decreased from the tabular load to correspond to a fiber-stress of 13 000 or 14 000 lb per sq in because of the nature of the loading, the long span, etc., or, what amounts to the same thing, the strength of the girder should be increased to correspond to the decreased fiber-stress. (See foot-note, page 603.) A 49 000-lb load at 16 000 lb per sq in fiber-stress corresponds to a 49 000 × 16⁄13 = 60 307-lb load at 13 000 fiber-stress, as far as selecting a corresponding girder from table is concerned. A SINGLE-BEAM GIRDER (Table XIV) composed of one 15-in 60-lb I beam and two 9 by ⅝-in flange-plates will carry 68 000 lb and weighs only 98.3 lb per ft. Therefore, as far as strength is concerned, to suit the conditions of loading, this would be the proper SINGLE-BEAM GIRDER to use, and it would also be cheaper than the DOUBLE-BEAM GIRDER determined by Table XV; but the width of bearing for the 13-in wall is still only 9 in compared to 14 in with the DOUBLE-BEAM GIRDER.

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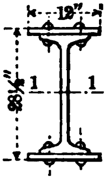
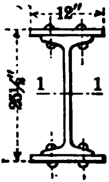
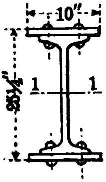
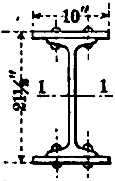
negie, 1903, 15 000, 13⁄16-in rivet-holes deducted; Carnegie, 1915, no tables; Cambria, 15 000, 13⁄16-in rivet-holes deducted; Passaic, 15 000, 13⁄16 or 15⁄16-in rivet-holes deducted; Kidder, previous and new editions, 13 000, 15⁄16-in rivet-holes deducted. For RIVETED SINGLE-WEB, PLATE-AND-ANGLE GIRDERS (see Chapter XX): Carnegie, 1903, 15 000, 13⁄16-in rivet-holes deducted; Carnegie, 1915, 16 000, based upon section-modulus of the gross area of cross-section; Cambria, 15 000, 13⁄16 or 15⁄16-in rivet-holes deducted; Passaic, 15 000, 13⁄16 or 15⁄16-in rivet-holes deducted; Kidder, previous editions, 12 000 and 13 000 for flanges, 13⁄16 or 15⁄16-in rivet-holes deducted (also contained the Passaic tables). For RIVETED MULTIPLE-WEB, PLATE-AND-ANGLE GIRDERS (see Chapter XX): Carnegie, 1903, 15 000, 13⁄16-in rivet-holes deducted; Carnegie, 1915, 16 000, based upon section-modulus of the gross area of cross-section (the elements, only, of these girders, and not the loads, are given); Cambria, no tables; Passaic, 15 000, 13⁄16 or 15⁄16-in rivet-holes deducted; Kidder, previous editions, same as for single-web plate-and-angle girders.

For fabricated steel girders the building laws (1913) of New York City and Chicago respectively specify fiber-stresses of 14 000 and 15 000 lb per sq in computed for the net flange-sections.

The revised edition of Kidder's Pocket-Book uses, by permission, the Carnegie, 1915, tables for all but the riveted double-beam girders, for which the old Kidder tables are retained. The limiting conditions of use are fully explained in the text and foot-notes. Editor-in-chief.

Table XIV.* Safe Uniform Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Riveted Steel-Beam Girders

Maximum bending stress, 16 000† lb per sq in

Span, ft									Co-efficients of de-flection
	27-in 83-lb beam 12 by ¾-in plates		24-in 80-lb beam 12 by ¾-in plates		24-in 80-lb beam 10 by ⅝-in plates		20-in 80-lb beam 10 by ¾-in plates		
	Safe loads	Increase in safe loads for 1/16-in increase in thickness of flange-plates	Safe loads	Increase in safe loads for 1/16-in increase in thickness of flange-plates	Safe loads	Increase in safe loads for 1/16-in increase in thickness of flange-plates	Safe loads	Increase in safe loads for 1/16-in increase in thickness of flange-plates	
15	317	15.2	270	12.3	224	10.1	204	8.4	3.72
16	297	14.3	253	11.5	210	9.5	191	7.9	4.24
17	280	13.4	238	10.9	198	9.0	180	7.4	4.78
18	264	12.7	225	10.3	187	8.4	170	7.0	5.36
19	250	12.0	213	9.7	177	8.0	161	6.6	5.98
20	238	11.4	203	9.2	168	7.6	153	6.3	6.62
21	227	10.9	193	8.8	160	7.2	146	6.0	7.30
22	216	10.4	184	8.4	153	6.9	139	5.7	8.01
23	207	9.9	176	8.0	146	6.6	133	5.5	8.76
24	198	9.5	169	7.7	140	6.3	127	5.3	9.53
25	190	9.1	162	7.4	135	6.1	122	5.0	10.35
26	183	8.8	156	7.1	129	5.9	118	4.8	11.19
27	176	8.4	150	6.8	125	5.6	113	4.7	12.07
28	170	8.1	148	6.6	120	5.4	109	4.5	12.98
29	164	7.9	140	6.4	116	5.2	105	4.3	13.92
30	159	7.6	135	6.2	112	5.1	102	4.2	14.90
31	153	7.4	131	6.0	109	4.9	99	4.1	15.91
32	149	7.1	127	5.8	105	4.8	96	3.9	16.95
33	144	6.9	123	5.6	102	4.6	93	3.8	18.03
34	140	6.7	119	5.4	99	4.5	90	3.7	19.13
35	136	6.5	116	5.3	96	4.3	87	3.6	20.28
Area	42.41 in²		41.32 in²		35.82 in²		38.73 in²		....
I/c_{1-1}‡	446.0 in³		380.0 in³		315.5 in³		286.7 in³		....
Wgt	144.2 lb per ft		141.2 lb per ft		122.5 lb per ft		131.0 lb per ft		....

Safe loads above the heavy, horizontal lines exceed the resistance of the web, and girders should be provided with stiffeners; for limiting conditions, see explanatory notes on page 567. See Pocket Companion, 1915 for 13 and 14-ft spans

Weights given for girders do not include stiffeners, rivet-heads or other details

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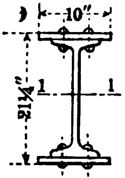
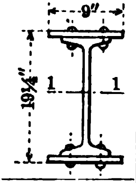
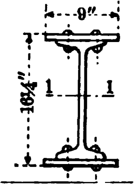
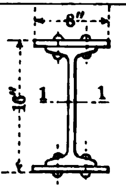
* From Pocket Companion, 1913 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

† See paragraph on Riveted Single-Beam and Double-Beam Girders, page 603, and the foot-note for same regarding fiber-stresses.

‡ I/c is the section-modulus or section-factor of the cross-section with reference to the axis 1-1.

Table XIV* (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Units of 1 000 Pounds for Riveted Steel-Beam Girders

Maximum bending stress, 16 000† lb per sq in

Span, ft	 20-in 65-lb beam, 10 by ⅝-in plates		 18-in 55-lb beam, 9 by ⅝-in plates		 15-in 60-lb beam, 9 by ⅝-in plates		 15-in 42-lb beam, 8 by ½-in plates		Coefficients of deflection
	Safe loads	Increase in safe loads for 1/16-in increase in thickness of flange-plates	Safe loads	Increase in safe loads for 1/16-in increase in thickness of flange-plates	Safe loads	Increase in safe loads for 1/16-in increase in thickness of flange-plates	Safe loads	Increase in safe loads for 1/16-in increase in thickness of flange-plates	
10	251	12.7	196	10.3	170	8.5	123	7.6	1.66
11	228	11.6	178	9.4	155	7.7	112	6.9	2.00
12	209	10.6	164	8.6	142	7.1	102	6.4	2.38
13	193	9.8	151	7.9	131	6.5	95	5.9	2.80
14	179	9.1	140	7.4	122	6.1	88	5.5	3.24
15	167	8.5	131	6.9	113	5.7	82	5.1	3.72
16	157	8.0	123	6.5	106	5.3	77	4.8	4.24
17	148	7.5	115	6.1	100	5.0	72	4.5	4.78
18	139	7.1	109	5.7	95	4.7	68	4.2	5.36
19	132	6.7	103	5.4	90	4.5	65	4.0	5.98
20	125	6.4	98	5.2	85	4.3	61	3.8	6.62
21	119	6.1	93	4.9	81	4.0	59	3.6	7.30
22	114	5.8	89	4.7	77	3.9	56	3.5	8.01
23	109	5.5	85	4.5	74	3.7	53	3.3	8.76
24	105	5.3	82	4.3	71	3.5	51	3.2	9.53
25	100	5.1	79	4.1	68	3.4	49	3.1	10.35
26	97	4.9	76	4.0	65	3.3	47	2.9	11.19
27	93	4.7	73	3.8	63	3.1	46	2.8	12.07
28	90	4.6	70	3.7	61	3.0	44	2.7	12.98
29	87	4.4	68	3.6	59	2.9	42	2.6	13.92
30	84	4.2	65	3.4	57	2.8	41	2.5	14.90
Area	31.58 in²		27.18 in²		28.92 in²		20.48 in²		....
I/c_{1-1}‡	235.2 in³		184.1 in³		159.5 in³		115.3 in³		....
Wgt	107.5 lb per ft		93.3 lb per ft		98.3 lb per ft		69.2 lb per ft		....

Safe loads above the heavy, horizontal lines exceed the resistance of the web, and girders should be provided with stiffeners; for limiting conditions, see explanatory notes on page 567. See Pocket Companion, 1915 for 9-ft. span

Weights given for girders do not include stiffeners, rivet-heads or other details

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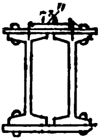
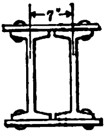
* From Pocket Companion, 1913 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

† See paragraph on Riveted Single-Beam and Double-Beam Girders, page 603, and the foot-note for same regarding fiber-stresses.

‡ I/c is the section-modulus or section-factor of the cross-section with reference to the axis 1–1.

Table XV. Safe Uniform Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Riveted Steel-Beam Box Girders

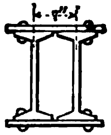
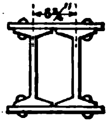
Two 20-in steel I beams and two 16 by ¾-in steel plates

Distance, center to center of bearings, ft	Two steel plates, 16 by ¾ in  Two 20-in beams, 80.0 lb per ft			Two steel plates, 16 by ¾ in  Two 20-in beams, 65.0 lb per ft			Increase in weight of girder for 1/16-in increase in thickness of flange-plates
	Safe loads, uniformly distributed (including weight of girder), in tons of 2 000 lb	Weight of girder (including rivet-heads), in tons of 2 000 lb	Increase in safe loads for 1/16-in increase in thickness of flange-plates	Safe loads, uniformly distributed (including weight of girder), in tons of 2 000 lb	Weight of girder (including rivet-heads), in tons of 2 000 lb	Increase in safe loads for 1/16-in increase in thickness of flange-plates	
10	199.67	1.22	7.22	176.72	1.06	7.34	0.03
11	181.51	1.34	6.56	160.66	1.16	6.68	0.04
12	166.39	1.46	6.02	147.26	1.27	6.12	0.04
13	153.60	1.58	5.56	135.95	1.37	5.65	0.04
14	142.64	1.70	5.16	126.24	1.48	5.25	0.05
15	133.12	1.83	4.81	117.82	1.58	4.90	0.05
16	124.80	1.95	4.51	110.45	1.69	4.59	0.05
17	117.47	2.07	4.25	103.96	1.79	4.32	0.06
18	110.94	2.19	4.01	98.18	1.90	4.08	0.06
19	105.10	2.31	3.80	93.01	2.01	3.86	0.06
20	99.83	2.43	3.61	88.36	2.11	3.67	0.07
21	95.08	2.56	3.44	84.15	2.22	3.50	0.07
22	90.77	2.68	3.28	80.33	2.32	3.34	0.07
23	86.82	2.80	3.14	76.84	2.43	3.19	0.08
24	83.20	2.92	3.01	73.64	2.53	3.06	0.08
25	79.87	3.04	2.89	70.69	2.64	2.94	0.08
26	76.80	3.16	2.78	67.97	2.75	2.82	0.09
27	73.96	3.29	2.68	65.46	2.85	2.72	0.09
28	71.32	3.41	2.58	63.12	2.96	2.62	0.09
29	68.86	3.53	2.49	60.94	3.06	2.53	0.10
30	66.56	3.65	2.41	58.91	3.17	2.45	0.10
31	64.41	3.77	2.33	57.01	3.27	2.37	0.10
32	62.41	3.89	2.26	55.22	3.38	2.29	0.11
33	60.51	4.02	2.19	53.56	3.48	2.22	0.11
34	58.73	4.14	2.12	51.98	3.59	2.16	0.11
35	57.05	4.26	2.06	50.50	3.70	2.10	0.12
36	55.46	4.38	2.01	49.09	3.80	2.04	0.12
37	53.96	4.50	1.95	47.77	3.91	1.98	0.12
38	52.54	4.62	1.90	46.51	4.01	1.93	0.13
39	51.20	4.75	1.85	45.32	4.12	1.88	0.13

The above values are based on a maximum fiber-stress of 13 000 lb per sq in, rivet-holes in both flanges deducted. See paragraph on Riveted Single-Beam and Double-Beam Girders, page 603, and the foot-note for same regarding fiber-stresses. Weights of girders correspond to lengths, center to center of bearings.

Table XV (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Riveted Steel-Beam Box Girders

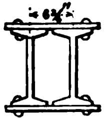
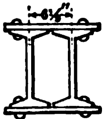
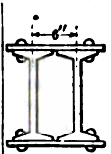
Two 18-in steel I beams and two 16 by ¾-in steel plates

Distance, center to center of bearings, ft	 Two 18-in beams, 70 lb per ft Two 16 by ¾-in steel plates			Two 18-in beams, 55 lb per ft  Two 16 by ¾-in steel plates				Add to weight of girder for 1/16-in increase in thickness of plates
	Safe loads in tons, including weight of girder	Weight of girder, lb	Add to safe loads for 1/16-in increase in thickness of plates	Safe loads in tons, including weight of girder	Weight of girder, lb	Add to safe loads for 5 pounds increase in weight of beam	Add to safe loads for 1/16-in increase in thickness of plates	
12	132.2	2 712	5.43	123.0	2 352	2.81	5.43	82
13	122.0	2 933	5.01	113.5	2 548	2.61	5.01	88
14	113.3	3 164	4.66	105.3	2 744	2.43	4.66	95
15	105.7	3 390	4.35	98.3	2 940	2.27	4.35	102
16	99.1	3 616	4.07	92.2	3 136	2.12	4.07	109
17	93.3	3 842	3.83	86.8	3 332	2.00	3.83	116
18	88.1	4 068	3.62	82.0	3 528	1.90	3.62	122
19	83.5	4 294	3.43	77.6	3 724	1.80	3.43	129
20	79.3	4 520	3.26	73.8	3 920	1.70	3.26	136
21	75.5	4 746	3.10	70.2	4 116	1.62	3.10	143
22	72.1	4 972	2.96	67.0	4 312	1.54	2.96	150
23	69.0	5 198	2.83	64.1	4 508	1.47	2.83	156
24	66.1	5 424	2.72	61.5	4 704	1.41	2.72	163
25	63.5	5 650	2.61	59.0	4 900	1.36	2.61	170
26	61.0	5 876	2.51	56.7	5 096	1.30	2.51	177
27	58.8	6 102	2.41	54.6	5 292	1.26	2.41	184
28	56.6	6 328	2.33	52.7	5 488	1.21	2.33	190
29	54.7	6 554	2.25	50.9	5 684	1.17	2.25	197
30	52.9	6 780	2.17	49.2	5 880	1.13	2.17	204
31	51.8	7 006	2.10	47.6	6 076	1.10	2.10	211
32	49.6	7 232	2.04	46.1	6 272	1.06	2.04	218
33	48.1	7 458	1.98	44.7	6 468	1.03	1.98	224
34	46.7	7 684	1.92	43.4	6 664	1.00	1.92	231
35	45.3	7 910	1.86	42.1	6 860	0.97	1.86	238
36	44.1	8 136	1.81	41.0	7 056	0.94	1.81	245
37	42.9	8 362	1.76	39.9	7 252	0.92	1.76	252
38	41.2	8 588	1.72	38.8	7 448	0.90	1.72	258

The above values are based on a maximum fiber-stress of 13 000 lb per sq in, rivet-holes in both flanges deducted. See paragraph on Riveted Single-Beam and Double-Beam Girders, page 603, and the foot-note for same regarding fiber-stresses. Weights of girders correspond to lengths, center to center of bearings.

Table XV (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Riveted Steel-Beam Box Girders

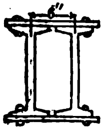
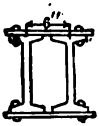
Two 15-in steel I beams and two 14 by ⅝-in steel plates

Distance, center to center of bearings, ft	Two 15-in beams, 75.0 lb per ft  Steel Plates, 14 by ⅝ in		Two 15-in beams, 60.0 lb per ft  Steel Plates, 14 by ⅝ in		 Two 15-in beams, 42.0 lb per ft Steel Plates, 14 by ⅝ in		Increase in safe load for 1/16-in increase in thickness of flange-plates	Increase in weight of girder for 1/16-in increase in thickness of flange-plates
	Safe loads, uniformly distributed (including weight of girder), in tons of 2 000 lb	Weight of girder (including rivet-heads), in tons of 2 000 lb	Safe loads, uniformly distributed (including weight of girder), in tons of 2 000 lb	Weight of girder (including rivet-heads), in tons of 2 000 lb	Safe loads, uniformly distributed (including weight of girder), in tons of 2 000 lb	Weight of girder (including rivet-heads), in tons of 2 000 lb		
10	122.33	1.06	111.01	0.91	90.29	0.72	4.63	0.03
11	111.21	1.17	100.92	1.00	82.08	0.79	4.21	0.03
12	101.95	1.27	92.51	1.09	75.24	0.86	3.86	0.03
13	94.10	1.38	85.40	1.18	69.45	0.93	3.57	0.04
14	87.38	1.48	79.30	1.27	64.50	1.00	3.31	0.04
15	81.56	1.59	74.01	1.36	60.19	1.08	3.09	0.04
16	76.46	1.70	69.38	1.45	56.43	1.15	2.90	0.05
17	71.96	1.80	65.30	1.54	53.11	1.22	2.72	0.05
18	67.96	1.91	61.67	1.63	50.16	1.29	2.57	0.05
19	64.39	2.01	58.43	1.72	47.52	1.36	2.43	0.05
20	61.17	2.12	55.50	1.81	45.14	1.44	2.32	0.06
21	58.25	2.22	52.86	1.90	42.99	1.51	2.21	0.06
22	55.60	2.33	50.46	2.00	41.04	1.58	2.11	0.06
23	53.19	2.43	48.27	2.09	39.25	1.65	2.02	0.07
24	50.97	2.54	46.25	2.18	37.62	1.72	1.93	0.07
25	48.93	2.65	44.40	2.27	36.12	1.79	1.85	0.07
26	47.05	2.76	42.70	2.36	34.72	1.87	1.78	0.08
27	45.31	2.86	41.12	2.45	33.44	1.94	1.71	0.08
28	43.69	2.96	39.65	2.54	32.25	2.01	1.66	0.08
29	42.18	3.07	38.28	2.63	31.13	2.08	1.60	0.08
30	40.78	3.17	37.00	2.72	30.09	2.15	1.54	0.09
31	39.46	3.28	35.81	2.81	29.12	2.23	1.49	0.09
32	38.23	3.38	34.69	2.80	28.21	2.30	1.45	0.09
33	37.07	3.46	33.64	2.99	27.36	2.37	1.41	0.10
34	35.98	3.60	32.65	3.08	26.55	2.44	1.37	0.10
35	34.95	3.70	31.72	3.17	25.80	2.51	1.33	0.10
36	33.98	3.81	30.84	3.27	25.08	2.58	1.29	0.10
37	33.06	3.91	30.00	3.36	24.40	2.66	1.25	0.11
38	32.20	4.02	29.21	3.45	23.76	2.73	1.22	0.11
39	31.37	4.13	28.47	3.54	23.15	2.80	1.19	0.11

The above values are based on a maximum fiber-stress of 13 000 lb per sq in, rivet-holes in both flanges deducted. See paragraph on Riveted Single-Beam and Double-Beam Girders, **page 603, and the foot-note for same regarding fiber-stresses.** Weights of girders **correspond to lengths, center to center of bearings.**

Table XV (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Riveted Steel-Beam Box Girders

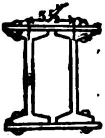
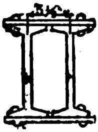
Two 12-in steel I beams and two 14 by ½-in steel plates

Distance, center to center of bearings, ft	 Two 12-in beams, 40.0 lb per ft Two steel plates, 14 by ½ in			 Two 12-in beams, 31.5 lb per ft Two steel plates, 14 by ½ in			Increas in weigh of girder for 1/16-in increase in thickness of flange-plates
	Safe loads, uniformly distributed (including weight of girder), in tons of 2 000 lb	Weight of girder (including rivet-heads), in tons of 2 000 lb	Increase in safe loads for 1/16-in increase in thickness of flange-plates	Safe loads, uniformly distributed (including weight of girder), in tons of 2 000 lb	Weight of girder (including rivet-heads), in tons of 2 000 lb	Increase in safe loads for 1/16-in increase in thickness of flange-plates	
10	64.94	0.65	3.75	58.08	0.57	3.81	0.03
11	59.02	0.71	3.40	52.80	0.63	3.45	0.03
12	54.12	0.78	3.12	48.40	0.68	3.17	0.03
13	49.95	0.84	2.88	44.68	0.74	2.93	0.04
14	46.39	0.91	2.68	41.48	0.80	2.72	0.04
15	43.29	0.97	2.50	38.72	0.85	2.53	0.04
16	40.59	1.04	2.34	36.30	0.91	2.38	0.05
17	38.20	1.10	2.21	34.16	0.97	2.24	0.05
18	36.08	1.17	2.08	32.27	1.03	2.11	0.05
19	34.18	1.23	1.97	30.57	1.08	2.00	0.05
20	32.47	1.30	1.87	29.04	1.14	1.90	0.06
21	30.93	1.36	1.78	27.66	1.20	1.81	0.06
22	29.52	1.43	1.70	26.40	1.25	1.73	0.06
23	28.23	1.49	1.63	25.25	1.31	1.65	0.07
24	27.06	1.56	1.56	24.20	1.37	1.58	0.07
25	25.98	1.62	1.50	23.23	1.42	1.52	0.07
26	24.98	1.69	1.44	22.34	1.48	1.46	0.08
27	24.05	1.75	1.38	21.51	1.54	1.41	0.08
28	23.19	1.82	1.34	20.74	1.60	1.36	0.08
29	22.39	1.88	1.29	20.03	1.65	1.31	0.08
30	21.65	1.95	1.25	19.36	1.71	1.27	0.09
31	20.95	2.01	1.21	18.73	1.77	1.23	0.09
32	20.29	2.08	1.17	18.15	1.82	1.19	0.09
33	19.68	2.14	1.14	17.60	1.88	1.15	0.10
34	19.10	2.21	1.10	17.08	1.94	1.12	0.10
35	18.55	2.27	1.07	16.59	1.99	1.09	0.10
36	18.04	2.34	1.04	16.13	2.05	1.06	0.10
37	17.55	2.40	1.01	15.70	2.11	1.03	0.11
38	17.09	2.47	0.99	15.28	2.17	1.00	0.11
39	16.65	2.53	0.96	14.89	2.22	0.98	0.11

The above values are based on a maximum fiber-stress of 13 000 lb per sq in, rivet-hol in both flanges deducted. See paragraph on Riveted Single-Beam and Double-Bea Girders, page 603, and the foot-note for same regarding fiber-stresses. Weights of girde correspond to lengths, center to center of bearings.

Table XV (Continued). Safe Uniform Loads in Tons of 2 000 Pounds for Riveted Steel-Beam Box Girders

Two 10-in steel I Beams and two 12 by ½-in steel plates

Distance, center to center of bearings, ft	 Two 10-in beams, 35.0 lb per ft Two steel plates, 12 by ½ in			 Two 10-in beams, 25.0 lb per ft Two steel plates, 12 by ½ in			Increase in weight of girder for 1/16-in increase in thickness of flange-plates
	Safe loads, uniformly distributed (including weight of girder), in tons of 2 000 lb	Weight of girder (including rivet-heads), in tons of 2 000 lb	Increase in safe loads for 1/16-in increase in thickness of flange-plates	Safe loads, uniformly distributed (including weight of girder), in tons of 2 000 lb	Weight of girder (including rivet-heads), in tons of 2 000 lb	Increase in safe loads for 1/16-in increase in thickness of flange-plates	
10	44.35	0.55	2.59	39.23	0.47	2.64	0.02
11	40.32	0.60	2.36	35.66	0.52	2.40	0.03
12	36.96	0.65	2.16	32.69	0.56	2.20	0.03
13	34.12	0.71	1.99	30.18	0.61	2.03	0.03
14	31.68	0.76	1.85	28.02	0.66	1.89	0.03
15	29.57	0.82	1.73	26.15	0.71	1.76	0.04
16	27.72	0.87	1.62	24.52	0.75	1.65	0.04
17	26.09	0.93	1.52	23.08	0.80	1.55	0.04
18	24.64	0.98	1.44	21.79	0.85	1.47	0.04
19	23.34	1.04	1.36	20.65	0.89	1.39	0.05
20	22.18	1.09	1.30	19.62	0.94	1.32	0.05
21	21.12	1.15	1.23	18.68	0.99	1.26	0.05
22	20.16	1.20	1.18	17.83	1.04	1.20	0.05
23	19.28	1.26	1.13	17.06	1.08	1.15	0.06
24	18.48	1.31	1.08	16.35	1.13	1.10	0.06
25	17.74	1.36	1.04	15.69	1.18	1.06	0.06
26	17.06	1.42	1.00	15.09	1.22	1.02	0.06
27	16.43	1.47	0.96	14.53	1.27	0.98	0.07
28	15.84	1.53	0.93	14.01	1.32	0.94	0.07
29	15.29	1.58	0.89	13.53	1.37	0.91	0.07
30	14.78	1.64	0.86	13.08	1.41	0.88	0.07
31	14.31	1.69	0.84	12.65	1.46	0.85	0.08
32	13.86	1.75	0.81	12.26	1.51	0.82	0.08
33	13.44	1.80	0.78	11.89	1.55	0.80	0.08
34	13.04	1.86	0.76	11.54	1.60	0.78	0.08
35	12.67	1.91	0.74	11.21	1.65	0.75	0.09
36	12.32	1.96	0.72	10.90	1.70	0.73	0.09
37	11.99	2.02	0.70	10.60	1.74	0.71	0.09
38	11.67	2.07	0.68	10.32	1.79	0.69	0.09
39	11.37	2.13	0.66	10.06	1.84	0.67	0.10

The above values based on a maximum fiber-stress of 13 000 lb per sq in, rivet-holes in both flanges deducted. See paragraph on Riveted Single-Beam and Double-Beam Girders, page 603, and the foot-note for same regarding fiber-stresses. Weights of girders correspond to lengths, center to center of bearings.

Beams Supporting Brick Walls. In calculating the size of a girder to support a brick wall, the structure of the wall should be carefully considered. If the wall is without openings and does not support floor-beams, only that part of the wall included within the dotted lines, Fig. 10, need be considered as being supported by the girder. The beams in that case, however, should be made very stiff, so as to have little deflection. If there are several openings above the girder, and especially if there is a pier over the middle part of it, as shown in Fig. 11, then the manner in which the loading is distributed should be carefully considered. In a case of this kind, only the dead weight included between the dotted lines *AA* and *BB* should be considered as coming upon the girder, and proper allowance made for the concentration of the greater part of the load at or near the middle. If, however, the lower windows are two-thirds their total width, or more, above the girder, then it is more reasonable to suppose that the wall included between the lines *CC* rests upon the girder, and also to consider that this load is uniformly distributed over it. When beams extend under the entire length of a wall which is more than 16 or 18 ft long, the weight of the entire wall rather than the weight of a triangular part of it should be taken as coming upon the beams; for, if they should bend, the wall would settle, and might push out the supports and cause the whole structure to fall. (See, also, page 318.)

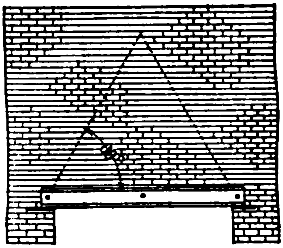


Fig. 10. Triangular Loading of Beams under Brick Walls

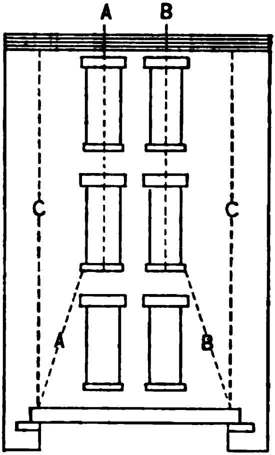


Fig. 11. Loading of Beams under Walls with Openings

5. Framing and Connecting Steel Beams and Girders

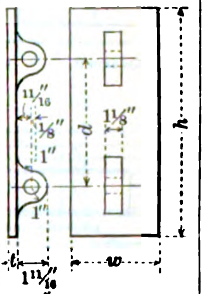
Standard Separators. When beams are used to support walls, or as girders to carry floor-beams, they are often placed side by side; and should in such cases be connected by means of bolts and cast-iron separators fitting closely between the flanges of the beams. The office of these separators is, in a measure, to hold in position the compression-flanges of the beams by preventing side deflection or buckling, and also to unite the beams so as to cause them to act in unison as regards vertical deflection. Separators should be provided at the supports, at points where heavy concentrated loads are imposed, and at regular intervals of from 5 to 6 ft between. The illustrations, dimensions, etc., given in Table XVI, are for the standard separators in common use.

Table XVI.* Separators for Steel Beams

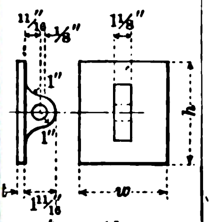
AMERICAN BRIDGE COMPANY STANDARD

Beams			Separators						¾-in bolts		
Weight per foot, lb	Center to center of beams, in	Out to out of flanges, in	Dimensions				Weight, lb	Increase in weight for 1" add. width	Length, in	Weight, hex. head and nut, lb	Increase in weight for 1" add. length
			w in	h in	d in	t in					
115-110-105	8¾	16¾	8	20	12	⅝	31	3.6	10½	3.4	0.25
100	8	15½	7¼	20	12	⅝	28	3.6	10	3.2	0.25
95 and 90	8	15¼	7¼	20	12	⅝	28	3.6	10	3.2	0.25
85	8	15¼	7½	20	12	⅝	29	3.6	9½	3.1	0.25
80	8	15	7½	20	12	⅝	29	3.6	9½	3.1	0.25
100 and 95	8	15¼	7	16	12	⅝	22	2.9	10	3.2	0.25
90	7½	14¾	6¾	16	12	⅝	22	2.9	9½	3.1	0.25
85 and 80	7½	14½	6¾	16	12	⅝	22	2.9	9	3.0	0.25
75	7½	14	6¾	16	12	⅝	22	2.9	9	3.0	0.25
70	7	13½	6½	16	12	⅝	21	2.9	9	3.0	0.25
65	7	13¼	6½	16	12	⅝	21	2.9	8½	3.0	0.25
90	8	15¼	7	14	9	⅝	20	2.5	10	3.2	0.25
85 and 80	8	15⅛	7¼	14	9	⅝	21	2.5	10	3.2	0.25
75	8	15	7½	14	9	⅝	21	2.5	10	3.2	0.25
70 and 65	7	13¼	6¼	14	9	⅝	18	2.5	9	3.0	0.25
60	7	13¼	6½	14	9	⅝	19	2.5	8½	3.0	0.25
55	7	13	6½	14	9	⅝	19	2.5	8½	3.0	0.25
75	7	13¼	6	11	7½	½	12	1.6	9	3.0	0.25
70 and 65	7	13¼	6¼	11	7½	½	12	1.6	9	3.0	0.25
60	6½	12½	5¾	11	7½	½	11	1.6	8	2.7	0.25
55	6½	12¼	5¾	11	7½	½	11	1.6	8	2.7	0.25
50 and 45	6½	12¼	6	11	7½	½	12	1.6	8	2.7	0.25
42	6½	12	6	11	7½	½	12	1.6	8	2.7	0.25
55	6	11¾	5¼	8¾	5	½	9	1.3	8	2.7	0.25
50	6	11½	5¼	8¾	5	½	9	1.3	8	2.7	0.25
45	6	11¼	5¼	8¾	5	½	9	1.3	7½	2.6	0.25
40 and 35	6	11¼	5¼	8¾	5	½	9	1.3	7½	2.6	0.25
31.5	6	11	5½	8¾	5	½	9	1.3	7½	2.6	0.25
40	5½	10¾	4¾	7½	....	½	6	1.1	7½	1.3	0.13
35	5½	10½	4¾	7½	....	½	6	1.1	7	1.3	0.13
30	5½	10½	5	7½	....	½	7	1.1	7	1.3	0.13
25	5½	10	5	7½	....	½	7	1.1	7	1.3	0.13
35	5	10	4¼	6½	....	½	5	0.9	7	1.3	0.13
30	5	9½	4¼	6½	....	½	5	0.9	6½	1.2	0.13
25	5	9⅜	4½	6½	....	½	5	0.9	6½	1.2	0.13
21	5	9¼	4½	6½	....	½	5	0.9	6½	1.2	0.13
25.5	4½	9	4	5½	....	½	4	0.8	6	1.1	0.13
23	4½	8¾	4	5½	....	½	4	0.8	6	1.1	0.13
21.5 and 18	4½	8½	4	5½	....	½	4	0.8	6	1.1	0.13
20	4½	8½	4	5	....	½	4	0.7	6	1.1	0.13
17.5	4½	8¼	4	5	....	½	4	0.7	6	1.1	0.13
15	4½	8¼	4¼	5	....	½	4	0.7	6	1.1	0.13
17.25	4	7¾	3½	4½	....	½	4	0.6	5½	1.1	0.13
14.75	4	7½	3½	4½	....	½	4	0.6	5½	1.1	0.13
12.25	4	7½	3¾	4½	....	½	4	0.6	5½	1.1	0.13

Diagrams



⅞" cored holes



⅞" cored hole

For 5-in, 4-in and 3-in beams, use 1-in gas-pipes, 3¼, 3 and 2¾-in long, respectively

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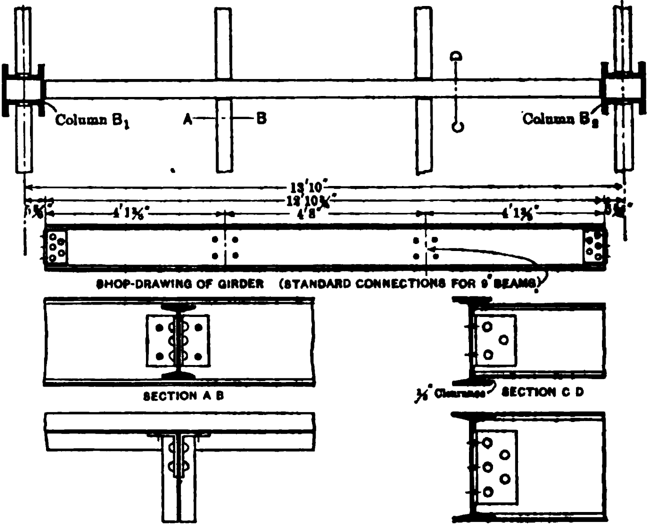
* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Gas-Pipe Separators. Separators formed of pieces of GAS-PIPE, cut to th desired lengths and slipped over the bolts are often used by contractors. (Se bottom of Table XVI.) Such separators permit the beams to act independentl of each other, and should not be used in any place where one beam is liable t receive a greater load than the other; and as this condition exists in almos every case where two or more beams are used together, it follows that "cast iron separators, made to fit the space between the beams," should be specifie in almost every instance. As noted in Table XVI, gas-pipe may sometimes b used for 5, 4 and 3-in beams. Separators with two bolts should be used fo beams 12 in or more in depth. For 12-in beams one bolt is sometimes used wher the load is light; for beams under 12 in in depth one bolt is sufficient.

FRAMING

DETAILS OF FRAMING BETWEEN COLUMNS

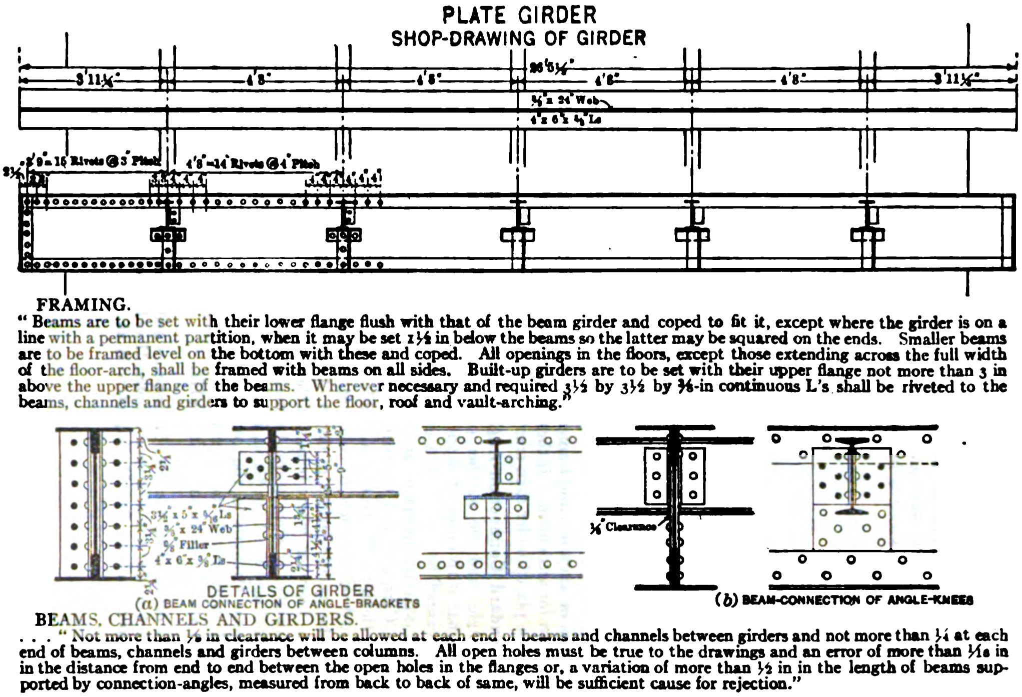

Column B₁
A
B
Column B₂
13'10"
12'10¾"
⅝"
4'1⅜"
4'8"
4'1⅜"
⅝"
SHOP-DRAWING OF GIRDER (STANDARD CONNECTIONS FOR 9" BEAMS)
SECTION A B
¾" Clearance
SECTION C D
PLAN OF ABOVE WITH UPPER FLANGES REMOVED
ELEVATION SHOWING THE COPING OF BEAMS

CONNECTIONS FOR BEAMS AND GIRDERS

"Connection-angles shall in no case be less in thickness than the web of the beam or girder to which they are fastened, nor shall the width be less than ½ the depth of the beam, except that no angle-knee shall be less than 2½" wide nor required to be more than 6" wide. Web-angles, the full depth of the web, must be used for all girder-connections."

Fig. 12. Framing of Steel I Beams and Girders

Beam-Connections. Steel beams and channels are FRAMED together by means of short pieces of angles, which are usually riveted to the floor-beam or tail-beam and bolted to the girder. The angles are always used in pairs, one on each side of the beam. If the floor-beam is framed flush, either with the top or bottom of the girder, or if two beams of the same height are framed together, the end of the beam supported should be COPED, or cut to fit the shape of the girder or supporting beam. The maximum clearance-space allowed between the end



FRAMING.

"Beams are to be set with their lower flange flush with that of the beam girder and coped to fit it, except where the girder is on a line with a permanent partition, when it may be set 1½ in below the beams so the latter may be squared on the ends. Smaller beams are to be framed level on the bottom with these and coped. All openings in the floors, except those extending across the full width of the floor-arch, shall be framed with beams on all sides. Built-up girders are to be set with their upper flange not more than 3 in above the upper flange of the beams. Wherever necessary and required 3½ by 3½ by ⅜-in continuous L's shall be riveted to the beams, channels and girders to support the floor, roof and vault-arching."

BEAMS, CHANNELS AND GIRDERS.

. . . "Not more than ⅛ in clearance will be allowed at each end of beams and channels between girders and not more than ¼ at each end of beams, channels and girders between columns. All open holes must be true to the drawings and an error of more than 1/16 in in the distance from end to end between the open holes in the flanges or, a variation of more than ½ in in the length of beams supported by connection-angles, measured from back to back of same, will be sufficient cause for rejection."

Fig. 13. Framing to Riveted Plate Girder

of the beam and the web varies from 1/16 in in the smaller beams to ⅛ in in the larger ones. Figs. 12 and 13 show various details of beams framed together and also to girders. When a floor-beam rests on top of another beam or girder, as in Fig. 15, the beam should be secured by means of a pair of wrought-iron

CLIPS, shown in Fig. 14, shaped so as to fit closely the top flange of the girder, and either bolted or riveted to the opposite sides of the lower flange of the floor-beam.

Fig. 16 shows one method of framing the ends of wooden floor-joists to steel beams, a 4 by 3 by ⅜-in angle being riveted the whole length of the steel beam, by ¾-in rivets, about 6 in apart. The joists are usually secured by iron or CLAMPS or ANCHORS, and framed about 1 in above the upper flange of the beam to allow for settlement. If these joists are over 3 ft apart, short lengths of angles may be placed under each one.*

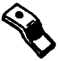


Fig. 14. Clip for Fastening Steel Beam on Top of Another

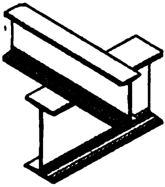


Fig. 15. Steel Beams Fastened One on the Other by Clips

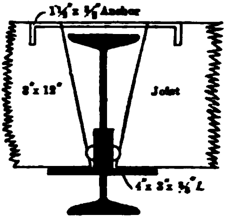


Fig. 16. Framing of Wooden Joists to Steel I Beam

Standard Connection-Angles for I Beams and Channels. The size of the angles and the number of rivets used for connecting steel beams, vary somewhat with different shops and with different structural engineers, so that there cannot be said to be a universal standard. The variations in the different STANDARDS, however, are not very great, and as the connections adopted by the Carnegie Steel Company are perhaps the most used, the author has selected them for illustration in Table XVII. The CONNECTIONS have been proportioned with a view to covering most cases occurring in ordinary practice, with the usual relations of depth of beam to length of span. In extreme instances, however, where beams of short relative span-lengths are loaded to their full capacity, or when beams frame opposite each other into another beam with web-thickness less than 5/16 in, it may be found necessary to make provision for additional strength in the connections. The LIMITING SPAN-LENGTHS, also, at and above which the standard connection-angles may be used with perfect safety, are also given in Table XVIII.

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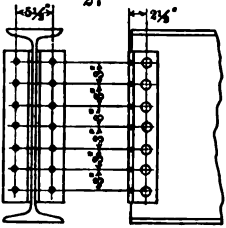
* For details of the framing of floor-beams and girders, see Chapters XXI and XXII and also Professor Nolan's revised Chapters II and VII of Kidder's Building-Construction and Superintendence, Part II, Carpenters' Work.

Table XVII.* Connections for Steel Beams

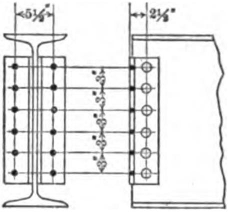
AMERICAN BRIDGE COMPANY STANDARD

27"



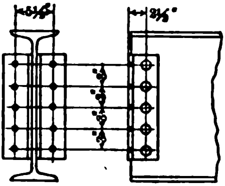
2 Ls 4"x 4"x ½"x 1' 8½"
Weight 46 lb

24"



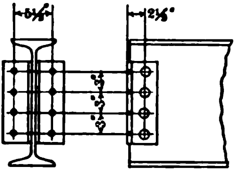
2 Ls 4"x 4"x ½"x 1' 5½"
Weight 39 lb

21"



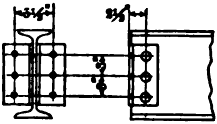
2 Ls 4"x 4"x ½"x 1' 2½"
Weight 33 lb

20", 18", 15"



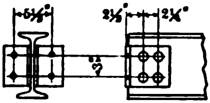
2 Ls 4"x 4"x 7/16"x 0'11½"
Weight 23 lb

12"



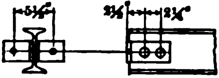
2 Ls 4"x 4"x 7/16"x 0'8½"
Weight 17 lb

10", 9", 8"



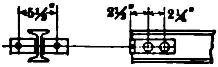
2 Ls 6"x 4"x ⅜"x 0'5½"
Weight 13 lb

7", 6", 5"



2 Ls 6"x 4"x ⅜"x 0'3"
Weight 7 lb

4", 3"



2 Ls 6"x 4"x ⅜"x 0'2"
Weight 5 lb

Rivets and bolts ¾" diameter
Weights given are for ¾" shop rivets and angle-connections; about 20 per cent should be added for field-rivets or bolts

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* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XVIII.* Limiting Values of Connections for Steel Beams

I beams		Value of web-connection	Values of outstanding legs of connection-angles					
			Field-rivets			Field-bolts		
Depth, in	Weight, lb per ft	Shop-rivets in enclosed bearing, lb	¾-in rivets or turned bolts, single shear, lb	Min. allowable span, uniform load, ft	*t*, in	¾-in rough bolts, single shear, lb	Min. allowable span, uniform load, ft	*t*, in
27	83	66 800	61 900	18.4	5/8	49 500	23.1	5/8
24	80	67 500	53 000	17.5	5/8	42 400	21.9	5/8
	69½	52 700	53 000	16.3	5/8	42 400	20.2	5/8
21	57½	40 200	44 200	15.5	9/16	35 300	17.6	5/8
20	65	45 000	35 300	17.6	5/8	28 300	22.1	5/8
18	55	41 400	35 300	13.3	5/8	28 300	16.7	5/8
	46	29 000	35 300	15.0	1/2	28 300	15.4	5/8
15	42	36 900	35 300	8.9	5/8	28 300	11.1	5/8
	36	26 000	35 300	11.1	7/16	28 300	11.1	9/16
12	31½	23 600	26 500	8.1	9/16	21 200	9.0	5/8
	27½	17 200	26 500	10.3	7/16	21 200	10.3	1/2
10	25	27 900	17 700	7.4	5/8	14 100	9.2	5/8
	22	20 900	17 700	6.9	5/8	14 100	8.6	5/8
9	21	26 100	17 700	5.7	5/8	14 100	7.1	5/8
8	18	24 300	17 700	4.3	5/8	14 100	5.4	5/8
	17½	18 900	17 700	4.4	5/8	14 100	5.5	5/8
7	15	11 300	8 800	6.2	5/8	7 100	7.8	5/8
6	12¼	10 400	8 800	4.4	5/8	7 100	5.5	5/8
5	9¾	9 500	8 800	2.9	5/8	7 100	3.6	5/8
4	7½	8 600	8 800	2.2	9/16	7 100	2.7	5/8
3	5½	7 700	8 800	1.3	1/2	7 100	1.4	5/8

ALLOWABLE UNIT STRESS IN POUNDS PER SQUARE INCH

Single shear	Rivets . . . . shop	12 000	Bearing	Rivets, enclosed . . shop 30 000
	Rivets and turned bolts . . . . field	10 000		Rivets, one side . . shop 24 000
	Rough bolts . . . . . . field	8 000		Rivets and turned bolts . . . . field 20 000
				Rough bolts . . . . . field 16 000

t = Web-thickness, in bearing, to develop maximum allowable reactions, when beams frame opposite

Connections are figured for bearing and shear (no moment considered)

The above values agree with tests made on beams under ordinary conditions of use

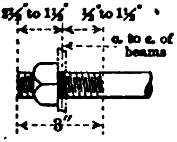
Where the web is enclosed between connection-angles (enclosed bearing), values are greater because of the increased efficiency due to friction and grip

Special connections must be used when any of the limiting conditions given above are exceeded, as when an end-reaction from a loaded beam is greater than the value of the connection of the shorter span with the beam fully loaded; or a less thickness of web when maximum allowable reactions are used

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table XIX.* Lengths and Weights of Tie-Rods and Anchors for Steel Beams

AMERICAN BRIDGE COMPANY STANDARD



¾-INCH TIE-RODS

Lengths and Weights for Various Distances Center to Center of Beams

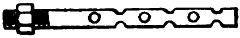
Weights include two nuts

C to C	L'th	Wgt	C to C	L'th	Wgt	C to C	L'th	Wgt	C to C	L'th	Wgt
ft in	ft in	lb	ft in	ft in	lb	ft in	ft in	lb	ft in	ft in	lb
1 0	1 3	2.30	1 3	1 6	2.67	1 6	1 9	3.05	1 9	2 0	3.42
2 0	2 3	3.80	2 3	2 6	4.17	2 6	2 9	4.55	2 9	3 0	4.92
3 0	3 3	5.30	3 3	3 6	5.67	3 6	3 9	6.05	3 9	4 0	6.42
4 0	4 3	6.80	4 3	4 6	7.17	4 6	4 9	7.55	4 9	5 0	7.92
5 0	5 3	8.30	5 3	5 6	8.67	5 6	5 9	9.05	5 9	6 0	9.42
6 0	6 3	9.80	6 3	6 6	10.17	6 6	6 9	10.55	6 9	7 0	10.92
7 0	7 3	11.30	7 3	7 6	11.67	7 6	7 9	12.05	7 9	8 0	12.42
8 0	8 3	12.80	8 3	8 6	13.17	8 6	8 9	13.55	8 9	9 0	13.92

For strength of rods, see Table II, page 388.

Anchors*

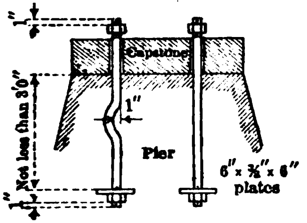
Swedge-Bolt



Weight includes nut

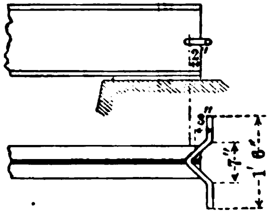
Built-In Anchor-Bolts

Diameter	Length	Weight
in	ft in	lb
¾	0 9	1.3
⅞	1 0	2.3
1	1 0	3.1
1¼	1 8	6.1



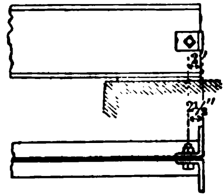
When center to center of anchors is less than width of washer, use washer with two holes

Government Anchor



¾-in rod, 1 ft 9 in long. Wt., 3 lb

Angle-Anchor



Two angles, 6 by 4 by 7/16 by 2½ in
Weight with ¾-in bolts, 7 lb

For bearing-plates, bases, etc., see Chapter XIII.

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* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

CHAPTER XVI

STRENGTH OF CAST-IRON LINTELS AND WOODEN BEAMS

By

F. H. KINDL

CORRESPONDING MEMBER AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS

1. Cast-Iron Lintels

Form of Cross-Section. Owing to the fact that the resistance of cast iron to tension is only about one-fifth of its resistance to compression, the shapes of beams most economical for wrought iron or steel would be wasteful for cast iron. The extreme brittleness of cast iron, and the danger of flaws in castings, render it an undesirable material for resisting transverse stress. About the only form in which cast-iron beams are now used in building-construction in this country is in the shape of LINTELS for supporting brick or stone walls, in places where a flat soffit is desired, and the walls are not to be plastered. CAST-IRON LINTELS are also occasionally used over store-fronts, the face of the lintel being paneled and molded for architectural effect.

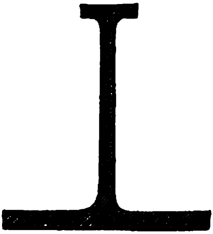


Fig. 1. Cross-section of Cast-iron Lintel of Ideal Form

Experiments on Cast-Iron Beams. Before wrought-iron I beams were manufactured, CAST-IRON BEAMS were frequently used as the only available ones, other than those of wood or stone. Early in the nineteenth century Eaton Hodgkinson, an English engineer, made a series of experiments with cast-iron beams, from which he found that the form of cross-section of a beam of that material which will resist the greatest transverse stress is that shown in Fig. 1, in which there is six times more metal in the bottom than in the top flange. The relative thicknesses of the three parts, the web, the top flange and the bottom flange, may be, with advantage, as 5, 6 and 8, respectively.

Strength of Cast-Iron Beams. If made with these proportions, the width of the top flange will be equal to one-third that of the bottom flange. As the result of his experiments, Hodgkinson gave the following rule for the breaking-weight at the middle for a cast-iron beam of this form:

$$\text{Breaking-load in tons} = \frac{\left(\begin{array}{c}\text{area of bottom flange}\\ \text{in square inches}\end{array}\right) \times \left(\begin{array}{c}\text{depth}\\ \text{in inches}\end{array}\right) \times 2.426}{\text{clear span in feet}} \qquad (1)$$

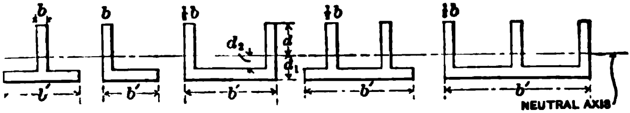
This rule, although largely empirical, agreed very well with the few experiments that were made. Structural engineers, however, use the general formulas for the strength of beams, as given in Chapter XV, except that the SECTION-MODULUS is found by dividing the MOMENT OF INERTIA by the distance of the neutral axis from the bottom of the beam, and the SAFE TENSILE STRENGTH is used in the FLEXURE-FORMULA. Thus the general formula for a beam supported at both ends and with the load uniformly distributed, as given in Chapter XV, page 560, is:

Safe load in pounds $= \frac{2}{3}\,\frac{I/c}{l} \times S_t$. As S_t, the safe tensile strength for cast iron should be taken at 3 000 lb, this formula becomes

$$\text{Safe load in pounds} = \frac{2\,000\,I/c}{l} \tag{2}$$

and, for either section given below,

$$I/c = \frac{\text{Moment of inertia}}{d_1}$$



The MOMENT OF INERTIA is computed by the formula (see page 335)

$$I = \frac{bd^3 + b'd_1^3 - (b' - b)d_2^3}{3} \tag{3}$$

in which b denotes the combined thickness of the webs, and the distances d, d_1, and d_2 are measured from the NEUTRAL AXIS, which must pass through the CENTER OF GRAVITY of the section. The center of gravity may be found by the method explained in Chapter VI. This formula may be used for any of the above sections when the depth does not exceed the width, and the thickness of each web is at least equal to the thickness of the flange. In lintels with a single web it is well to make the thickness of the web ¼ or ⅛ in greater than the thickness of the flange. For a beam with a cross-section like that shown in Fig. 1, Formula (2) agrees very closely with Formula (1), when a factor of safety of six is used.

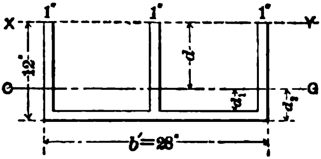


Fig. 2. Cross-section of Cast-iron Lintel with Three Webs

Example. The following example illustrates the application of Formula (2): It is required to compute the safe load for a cast-iron lintel having the section shown in Fig. 2 and a clear span of 10 ft. The load is uniformly distributed, and the thickness of the metal 1 in.

Solution. The first step is the finding of distance d, that the center of gravity, through which the neutral axis of the cross-section passes, is below the top-surface of the beam. This is found by taking the moments of the areas of the cross-sections of webs and flange about the line XY, and dividing their sum by the area of the entire section. (See page 294.) Each web-section is 11 in deep and 1 in thick; hence the area of each is 11 sq in. The MOMENTS OF THE THREE WEBS about XY will then be $3 \times 11 \times 5\frac{1}{2} = 181.5$

The MOMENT OF THE FLANGE about $XY = 28 \times 11\frac{1}{2} = \underline{322}$

503.5

The area of the entire cross-section = 61 sq in

$503.5 \div 61 = 8.25 = d$ in

Then $d = 8.25$ in $d^3 = 561.5$ $b = 3$ in

$d_1 = 3.75$ in $d_1^3 = 52.7$ $b' = 28$ in

$d_2 = 2.75$ in $d_2^3 = 20.8$

The MOMENT OF INERTIA is next found by Formula (3):

$$I = \frac{3 \times 561.5 + 28 \times 52.7 - 25 \times 20.8}{3} = 880$$

$I/c = 880/3.75$. From Formula (2) the safe load = $(2\,000 \times 234.6)/10 = 46\,920$ lb, or 23.4 tons.

Ends and Brackets of Cast-Iron Lintels. When a lintel, the cross-section of which has the shape of an inverted T (⊥), is used over a single opening, the web may be tapered towards the ends, as in Fig. 3, without affecting the strength. If the flange is more than 8 in wide, brackets should be cast in the middle, as at *A*, Fig. 3.

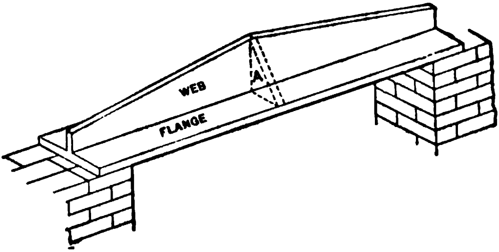


Fig. 3. Cast-iron Lintel with Tapering Web

When CONTINUOUS LINTELS are used over store-fronts or similar places, ends should be cast on the lintels, as in Fig. 4, and the ends of abutting lintels bolted together. All lintels with two or three webs should have solid ends connecting the webs.

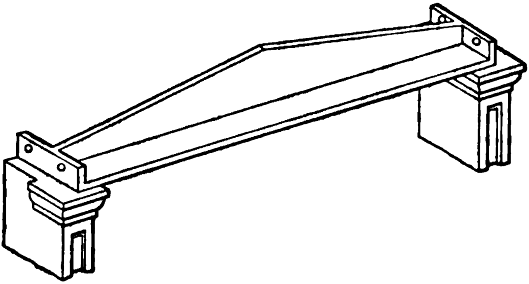


Fig. 4. Cast-iron Lintel with Ends for Bolting

Tables of Strength of Cast-Iron Lintels. The tables on the following pages have been computed in accordance with Formula (2). The weight of the lintel itself should be deducted from the safe load. In using these tables it should be remembered that the values are for loads UNIFORMLY DISTRIBUTED. If the load is CONCENTRATED AT THE MIDDLE, it should be multiplied by 2. If at some other point than the middle, the load should be multiplied by the value given on pages 566 and 632, which most nearly corresponds with the position of the load. For other spans than those given, the distributed load should be multiplied by the span, and the lintel used which has a COEFFICIENT OF STRENGTH *C* (Table I) just above the product thus obtained. (For explanation of coefficient of strength, see Chapter XV, page 556.)

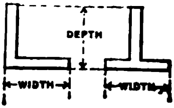
Example. It is required to support a 12-in brick wall, 10 ft high, over an opening 5 ft 6 in wide, with a cast-iron lintel. At a distance of 22 in from one support, a girder, which may bring a load of 9 600 lb on the lintel, enters the wall. What should be the dimensions of the lintel?

Solution. At 110 lb per cu ft, the wall above the lintel weighs $10 \times 5\frac{1}{2} \times 110 = 6050$ lb. As 22 in is one-third of the span, the concentrated load is multiplied by 1.78 (page 632), making the load 17 088 lb. The total equivalent distributed load is then 23 138 lb. Multiplying this by the span there results 127 259 lb, or 63.6 tons, as the least value for the coefficient of strength *C*. From the table, it is found that a 12 by 10-in lintel, 1 in thick, with one web, has a coefficient of strength of 72.2; and that a 12 by 8 by 1¼-in lintel with two webs, has a coefficient of strength of 69.9. A lintel with two webs is best for a 12-in wall, and interpolating between the values of *C* for the 1-in and 2-in thicknesses of the 12 by 8-in lintel, 65.4 is found to be the value of *C* for a thickness of 1⅛ in. This exceeds the required value by enough to more than compensate for the weight of the lintel itself; hence a 12 by 8 by 1⅛-in lintel with two webs is used.

Flaws in Castings. Owing to the liability of flaws in the castings, cast-iron beams should always be carefully inspected before being accepted.

Table I. Safe Distributed Loads in Tons for Cast-Iron Lintels

LINTELS OF



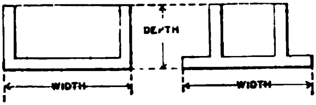
SHAPES

Loads include weights of lintels. Maximum tensile stress 3 000 lb per sq in. See remarks, pages 622 and 623.

Size, width by depth, in	Thickness of metal, in	Weight per foot, lb	C, tons	Span in feet							
				5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
6×6	¾	26.3	15.9	3.18	2.65	2.27	1.98	1.76	1.59	1.44	1.32
	1	34.4	19.0	3.80	3.16	2.71	2.37	2.11	1.90	1.72	1.58
	1¼	42.0	21.5	4.30	3.58	3.07	2.68	2.39	2.15	1.95	1.79
7×6	¾	28.6	17.8	3.56	2.96	2.54	2.22	1.98	1.78	1.61	1.48
	1	37.5	21.3	4.26	3.55	3.04	2.66	2.36	2.13	1.93	1.77
	1¼	45.9	24.0	4.80	4.00	3.43	3.00	2.66	2.40	2.18	2.00
7×7	¾	31.0	22.6	4.52	3.76	3.23	2.82	2.51	2.26	2.05	1.88
	1	40.6	27.5	5.50	4.58	3.93	3.43	3.05	2.75	2.50	2.29
	1¼	49.8	31.4	6.28	5.23	4.49	3.92	3.49	3.14	2.85	2.62
8×6	¾	31.0	19.6	3.92	3.26	2.80	2.45	2.18	1.96	1.78	1.63
	1	40.6	23.4	4.68	3.90	3.34	2.92	2.60	2.34	2.12	1.95
	1¼	49.8	26.4	5.28	4.40	3.77	3.30	2.93	2.64	2.40	2.20
8×7	¾	33.3	25.0	5.00	4.16	3.57	3.12	2.77	2.50	2.27	2.08
	1	43.7	30.3	6.06	5.05	4.33	3.79	3.36	3.03	2.75	2.52
	1¼	53.7	34.8	6.96	5.80	4.97	4.35	3.86	3.48	3.16	2.90
8×8	¾	35.6	30.6	6.12	5.10	4.37	3.82	3.40	3.06	2.78	2.55
	1	46.8	37.6	7.52	6.26	5.37	4.70	4.18	3.76	3.41	3.13
	1¼	57.6	43.4	8.68	7.23	6.20	5.42	4.82	4.34	3.94	3.61
8×9	¾	38.0	36.5	7.30	6.08	5.21	4.56	4.05	3.65	3.31	3.04
	1	50.0	45.2	9.04	7.53	6.45	5.65	5.02	4.52	4.11	3.76
	1¼	61.5	52.6	10.52	8.76	7.51	6.57	5.84	5.26	4.78	4.38
12×6	¾	40.4	26.5	5.30	4.41	3.78	3.31	2.94	2.65	2.41	2.21
	1	53.1	31.6	6.32	5.26	4.51	3.95	3.51	3.16	2.87	2.63
	1¼	65.4	34.8	6.96	5.80	4.97	4.35	3.86	3.48	3.16	2.90
12×8	¾	45.0	41.7	8.34	6.95	5.95	5.21	4.63	4.17	3.79	3.48
	1	59.4	51.2	10.24	8.53	7.31	6.40	5.69	5.12	4.65	4.26
	1¼	73.2	58.5	11.70	9.75	8.35	7.31	6.50	5.85	5.32	4.87
12×10	¾	49.8	58.0	11.60	9.66	8.28	7.25	6.44	5.80	5.27	4.83
	1	65.6	72.2	14.44	12.03	10.31	9.02	8.02	7.22	6.56	6.01
	1¼	81.0	83.8	16.76	13.96	11.97	10.47	9.31	8.38	7.62	6.98
12×12	¾	54.4	75.2	15.04	12.53	10.74	9.40	8.35	7.52	6.83	6.26
	1	71.9	94.8	18.96	15.80	13.54	11.85	10.53	9.48	8.62	7.90
	1¼	88.9	111.5	22.30	18.58	15.92	13.93	12.39	11.15	10.12	9.29

Table 1 (Continued). Safe Distributed Loads in Tons for Cast-Iron Lintels

LINTELS OF



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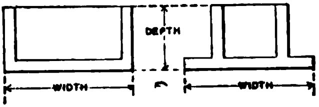
Loads include weights of lintels. Maximum tensile stress 3 000 lb per sq in. See remarks, pages 622 and 623.

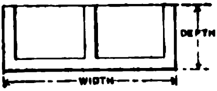
Size, width by depth, in	Thickness of metal, in	Weight per foot, lb	C, tons	Span in feet							
				5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
12 × 6	¾	52.7	31.7	6.34	5.28	4.53	3.96	3.52	3.17	2.88	2.64
	1	68.8	37.6	7.52	6.26	5.37	4.70	4.18	3.76	3.42	3.13
	1¼	84.0	43.0	8.60	7.16	6.14	5.37	4.77	4.30	3.91	3.58
12 × 8	¾	62.1	49.5	9.90	8.25	7.07	6.19	5.50	4.95	4.50	4.12
	1	81.3	60.9	12.18	10.15	8.70	7.61	6.76	6.09	5.53	5.07
	1¼	99.6	69.9	13.98	11.65	9.98	8.73	7.76	6.99	6.35	5.82
14 × 6	¾	57.4	35.5	7.10	5.91	5.07	4.43	3.94	3.55	3.22	2.96
	1	75.0	42.0	8.40	7.00	6.00	5.25	4.66	4.20	3.82	3.50
	1¼	91.8	48.0	9.60	8.00	6.85	6.00	5.33	4.80	4.36	4.00
14 × 8	¾	66.8	55.4	11.08	9.23	7.91	6.92	6.15	5.54	5.03	4.61
	1	87.5	68.1	13.62	11.35	9.73	8.51	7.56	6.81	6.19	5.67
	1¼	107.4	78.8	15.76	13.13	11.25	9.85	8.75	7.88	7.16	6.56
16 × 6	¾	62.1	39.1	7.82	6.51	5.58	4.88	4.34	3.91	3.55	3.25
	1	81.3	46.8	9.36	7.80	6.68	5.85	5.20	4.68	4.25	3.90
	1¼	99.6	52.9	10.58	8.81	7.55	6.61	5.88	5.29	4.81	4.40
16 × 8	¾	71.5	61.4	12.28	10.23	8.77	7.67	6.82	6.14	5.58	5.11
	1	93.8	74.6	14.92	12.43	10.65	9.32	8.29	7.46	6.78	6.21
	1¼	115.2	86.8	17.36	14.46	12.40	10.85	9.64	8.68	7.89	7.23
20 × 6	¾	71.5	47.2	9.44	7.86	6.74	5.90	5.24	4.72	4.29	3.93
	1	93.8	55.1	11.02	9.18	7.87	6.88	6.12	5.51	5.01	4.59
	1¼	115.2	62.0	12.40	10.33	8.85	7.75	6.88	6.20	5.63	5.16
20 × 8	¾	80.8	72.6	14.52	12.10	10.37	9.07	8.06	7.26	6.60	6.05
	1	106.2	89.5	17.90	14.91	12.78	11.18	9.94	8.95	8.13	7.45
	1¼	130.8	102.5	20.50	17.08	14.64	12.81	11.39	10.25	9.31	8.54
20 × 10	¾	90.2	100.5	20.10	16.75	14.35	12.56	11.16	10.05	9.13	8.37
	1	118.8	125.4	25.08	20.90	17.91	15.67	13.93	12.54	11.40	10.45
	1¼	146.5	146.8	29.36	24.46	20.97	18.35	16.31	14.68	13.34	12.23
20 × 12	¾	99.6	122.6	24.52	20.43	17.51	15.32	13.62	12.26	11.14	10.21
	1	131.3	158.0	31.60	26.33	22.57	19.75	17.55	15.80	14.36	13.16
	1¼	162.1	189.5	37.90	31.58	27.07	23.68	21.05	18.95	17.22	15.79
24 × 8	¾	90.2	83.4	16.68	13.90	11.91	10.42	9.26	8.34	7.58	6.95
	1	118.8	102.4	20.48	17.06	14.63	12.80	11.37	10.24	9.31	8.53
	1¼	146.5	117.0	23.40	19.50	16.71	14.62	13.00	11.70	10.63	9.75

Table I (Continued). Safe Distributed Loads in Tons for Cast-Iron Lintels

LINTELS OF  SHAPES

Loads include weights of lintels. Maximum tensile stress 3 000 lb per sq in. See remarks, pages 622 and 623.

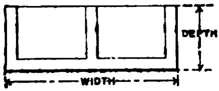
Size, width by depth, in	Thickness of metal, in	Weight per foot, lb	C, tons	Span in feet							
				5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
24×10	¾	99.6	116.0	23.20	19.33	16.57	14.50	12.88	11.60	10.54	9.66
	1	131.3	144.4	28.88	24.06	20.63	18.05	16.04	14.44	13.12	12.03
	1¼	162.1	167.6	33.52	27.93	23.94	20.95	18.62	16.76	15.23	13.96
24×12	¾	109.0	150.4	30.08	25.06	21.48	18.80	16.71	15.04	13.67	12.53
	1	143.8	189.6	37.92	31.60	27.08	23.70	21.06	18.96	17.23	15.80
	1¼	177.7	223.0	44.60	37.16	31.85	27.87	24.77	22.30	20,27	18.58
28× 8	¾	99.6	95.5	19.10	15.91	13.64	11.93	10.61	9.55	8.68	7.98
	1	131.3	115.0	23.00	19.16	16.43	14.37	12.77	11.50	10.45	9.58
	1¼	162.1	130.5	26.10	21.75	18.64	16.31	14.50	13.05	11.86	10.87
28×10	¾	109.0	130.0	26.00	21.67	18.57	16.25	14.44	13.00	11.82	10.83
	1	143.8	164.8	32.96	27.46	23.54	20.60	18.31	16.48	14.98	13.73
	1¼	177.7	188.5	37.70	31.41	26.93	23.56	20.94	18.85	17.14	15.70
28×12	¾	118.3	162.5	32.50	27.08	23.21	20.31	18.06	16.25	14.77	13.54
	1	156.3	211.8	42.36	35.30	30.26	26.48	23.53	21.18	19.25	17.65
	1¼	193.3	252.0	50.40	42.00	36.00	31.50	28.00	25.20	22.91	21.00

LINTELS OF  SHAPES

Size, width by depth, in	Thickness of metal, in	Weight per foot, lb	C, tons	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
16× 6	¾	74.4	43.3	8.66	7.21	6.18	5.41	4.81	4.33	3.93	3.60
	1	96.9	52.4	10.48	8.73	7.48	6.55	5.82	5.24	4.76	4.36
	1¼	118.1	59.3	11.86	9.88	8.47	7.41	6.59	5.93	5.39	4.94
16× 8	¾	88.5	68.1	13.62	11.35	9.73	8.51	7.56	6.81	6.19	5.67
	1	115.6	83.9	16.75	13.98	11.98	10.48	9.32	8.39	7.62	6.99
	1¼	141.6	97.0	19.40	16.16	13.85	12.12	10.77	9.70	8.81	8.08
20× 8	¾	97.8	80.2	16.04	13.36	11.45	10.02	8.91	8.02	7.29	6.68
	1	128.1	98.7	19.74	16.45	14.10	12.33	10.96	9.87	8.97	8.22
	1¼	157.2	113.9	22.78	18.98	16.27	14.23	12.65	11.39	10.35	9.49

Table I (Continued). Safe Distributed Loads in Tons for Cast-Iron Lintels

LINTELS OF



SHAPES

Loads include **weights of lintels. Maximum tensile stress** 3 000 lb per sq in. See remarks, pages 622 and 623.

Size, width by depth, in	Thickness of metal, in	Weight per foot, lb	C, tons	Span in feet							
				5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	¾	111.9	112.0	22.40	18.66	16.00	14.00	12.44	11.20	10.18	9.33
20×10	1	146.9	139.7	27.94	23.28	19.95	17.46	15.52	13.97	12.70	11.64
	1¼	180.7	163.5	32.70	27.25	23.35	20.43	18.16	16.35	14.86	13.62
	¾	126.0	146.7	29.34	24.45	20.95	18.33	16.30	14.67	13.33	12.22
20×12	1	165.6	184.8	36.96	30.80	26.40	23.10	20.53	18.48	16.80	15.40
	1¼	204.1	218.8	43.76	36.46	31.25	27.35	24.31	21.88	19.89	18.24
	¾	107.2	91.9	18.38	15.31	13.12	11.49	10.21	9.19	8.35	7.66
24× 8	1	140.6	112.8	22.56	18.80	16.11	14.10	12.53	11.28	10.25	9.40
	1¼	172.6	130.2	26.04	21.70	18.57	16.27	14.47	13.02	11.83	10.85
	¾	121.3	127.8	25.56	21.30	18.25	15.97	14.20	12.78	11.61	10.65
24×10	1	159.4	159.5	31.90	26.58	22.78	19.94	17.72	15.95	14.50	13.29
	1¼	196.3	183.6	36.72	30.60	26.23	22.95	20.40	18.36	16.69	15.30
	¾	135.3	166.6	33.32	27.76	23.80	20.82	18.51	16.66	15.14	13.88
24×12	1	178.1	209.3	41.86	34.88	29.90	26.16	23.25	20.93	19.02	17.44
	1¼	219.7	247.7	49.54	41.28	35.39	30.96	27.52	24.77	22.51	20.64
	¾	130.7	141.4	28.28	23.57	20.20	17.67	15.71	14.14	12.85	11.78
28×10	1	171.9	177.4	35.48	29.57	25.34	22.17	19.71	17.74	16.12	14.78
	1¼	211.9	207.8	41.56	34.63	29.68	25.97	23.09	20.78	18.89	17.31
	¾	144.7	186.0	37.20	31.00	26.57	23.25	20.66	18.60	16.91	15.50
28×12	1	190.6	234.6	46.92	39.10	33.51	29.32	26.06	23.46	21.32	19.55
	1¼	235.3	277.9	55.58	46.31	39.70	34.74	30.88	27.79	25.26	23.16

2. Sections, Stresses, Buckling and Deflection of Wooden Beams

Sections and Fiber-Stresses. The cross-sections of wooden beams are almost invariably SQUARE OR RECTANGULAR, and those shapes only are considered in the following rules and formulas. Beams should have such a cross-section, that the maximum fiber-stress due to transverse bending, the maximum horizontal shear and the compression across the grain at the end-bearings, do not exceed the AVERAGE ALLOWABLE UNIT STRESSES as set forth in Table XVI, page 647.

Buckling. Beams should be braced laterally to prevent BUCKLING when the ratio of length to breadth exceeds twenty, or designed with a reduced fiber-stress from that allowable, where this ratio is exceeded. The PERCENTAGE OF REDUCTION should be as follows:

Ratio of length to width.....	20 to 30	30 to 40	40 to 50	50 to 60
Percentage of reduction......	25	34	42	50

Deflection. It is also important that beams carry the loads without DEFLECTING beyond a limit fixed by the use to which the structure is applied; this limit is generally taken at 1/30 of an inch per foot of span for plastered ceilings.

3. Constants and Coefficients for Beams

Value of the Constant, A. The letter A in the following formulas (4) to (16), denotes the SAFE LOAD for a UNIT BEAM, 1 in square in section and 1 ft in span, loaded at the middle of the span. This is also one-eighteenth of the ALLOWABLE FIBER-STRESS in pounds per square inch. (See Table I, on page 557.) The following are the values of A, obtained by dividing by eighteen the RECOMMENDED UNIT STRESSES for TRANSVERSE BENDING, and those given in the building laws of New York, Chicago, Baltimore, Boston, Cincinnati and the District of Columbia and in the recommendations of the Board of Fire Underwriters.

Table II.*[*] Coefficients Recommended for Iron, Steel and Wooden Beams. Values of A

Materials	New York†	Chicago	Baltimore	Boston	Recommended
Cast iron.........	167	167	167	167	167
Wrought iron.....	667	667	667	667	667
Steel.............	889	889	889	889	889
Yellow pine......	67	72	100	83	67
White pine.......	44	44	56	56	39
Spruce...........	44	44	75	56	39
Hemlock.........	33	33	....	....	33
Chestnut.........	44	....	....	....	44
Oak..............	56	67	83	56	67

* For safe allowable working unit stresses for other woods, see Table XVI, page 647. From these values, A may be determined by dividing them by eighteen. See Table XVII, page 648, for other stresses for woods, taken from various building laws. See Tables XVIII and XIX, pages 650 and 651, for the ultimate strength of various woods.

† New York, Cincinnati, District of Columbia and the Board of Fire Underwriters use identical values.

Table III. Coefficients Recommended for Stone ‡ and Concrete Beams. Values of A

Materials	Values of A	Materials	Values of A
Granite..................	10	Bluestone................	17
Limestone................	8	Slate.....................	22
Marble....................	7	Concrete 1 : 2 : 4..........	1.7
Sandstone................	6	Concrete 1 : 2 : 5..........	1.1

‡ Values of A for STONE BEAMS as recommended are identical with those of the Building Laws of New York and the Board of Fire Underwriters. For temporary structures the above recommended values of A may be increased 30%.

4. Flexural Strength of Wooden Beams

Section-Modulus. For beams with a rectangular cross-section, the formulas for strength can be simplified by substituting for the SECTION-MODULUS its value $\frac{1}{6}bd^2$, where b is the breadth and d the depth of the section.

Substituting this value in the general formulas for beams with rectangular cross-sections and of any material, the following formulas result:

Beams Fixed at One End and Loaded at the Other (Fig. 5).

$$\text{Safe load, in pounds} = \frac{\text{breadth} \times \text{square of depth} \times A^*}{4 \times \text{length in feet}} \tag{4}$$

or

$$\text{Breadth, in inches} = \frac{4 \times \text{load} \times \text{length in feet}}{\text{square of depth} \times A^*} \tag{5}$$

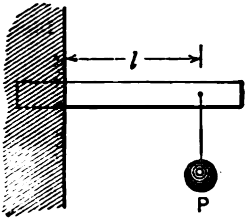


Fig. 5. Cantilever Beam. Load near Free End

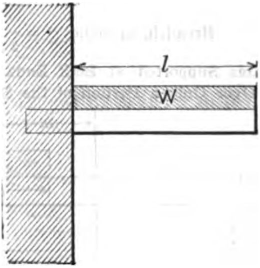


Fig. 6. Cantilever Beam. Distributed Load over Entire Span

Beams Fixed at One End and Loaded with a Uniformly Distributed Load (Fig. 6).

$$\text{Safe load, in pounds} = \frac{\text{breadth} \times \text{square of depth} \times A^*}{2 \times \text{length in feet}} \tag{6}$$

or

$$\text{Breadth, in inches} = \frac{2 \times \text{load} \times \text{length in feet}}{\text{square of depth} \times A^*} \tag{7}$$

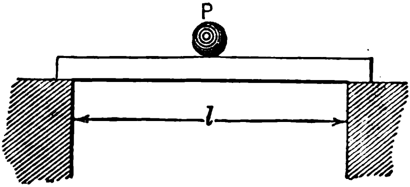


Fig. 7. Simple Beam. Load at Middle of Span

Beams Supported at Both Ends and Loaded at the Middle (Fig. 7).

$$\text{Safe load, in pounds} = \frac{\text{breadth} \times \text{square of depth} \times A^*}{\text{span in feet}} \tag{8}$$

or

$$\text{Breadth, in inches} = \frac{\text{span in feet} \times \text{load}}{\text{square of depth} \times A^*} \tag{9}$$

* For values of A, see Tables II and III.

Beams Supported at Both Ends and Loaded with a Uniformly Distributed Load Over Entire Span (Fig. 8).

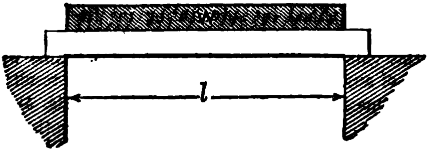


Fig. 8. Simple Beam. Distributed over Entire Span

$$\text{Safe load, in pounds} = \frac{2 \times \text{breadth} \times \text{square of depth} \times A^{*}}{\text{span in feet}} \qquad (10)$$

or

$$\text{Breadth, in inches} = \frac{\text{span in feet} \times \text{load}}{2 \times \text{square of depth} \times A^{*}} \qquad (11)$$

Beams Supported at Both Ends and Loaded with a Uniformly Distributed Load Over Only a Portion of the Span (Fig. 9).

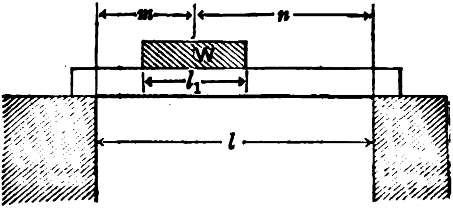


Fig. 9. Simple Beam. Distributed Load over Part of Span

In this case the dimensions of the beam required to carry the load can be accurately determined only by computing the MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT, as explained in Chapter IX, and substituting the value thus found in Formula (16), following. If, however, the length l_1 is very short in comparison with l, then the load may be considered as CONCENTRATED at the middle of the span and the breadth of the beam may be found by Formula (9). Formula (13) is used if the load is at one side of the middle. The error will be on the safe side.

Beams Supported at Both Ends and Loaded with Concentrated Load, not at the Middle of the Span (Fig. 10).

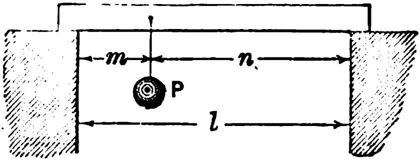


Fig. 10. Simple Beam. Concentrated Load at Any Point

$$\text{Safe load, in pounds} = \frac{\text{breadth} \times \text{square of depth} \times \text{span} \times A^{*}}{4 \times m \times n} \qquad (12)$$

or

$$\text{Breadth, in inches} = \frac{4 \times \text{load} \times m \times n}{\text{square of depth} \times \text{span} \times A^{*}} \qquad (13)$$

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* For values of *A*, see Tables II and III.

Beams Supported at Both Ends and Loaded with P Pounds at a Distance m, from each End (Fig. 11).

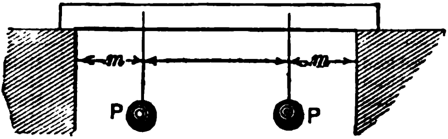

Fig. 11. Simple Beam. Two Equal Concentrated Loads Symmetrically Placed

$$\left.\begin{array}{c}\text{Safe load, } P\text{, in pounds}\\ \text{at each point}\end{array}\right\} = \frac{\text{breadth} \times \text{square of depth} \times A^*}{4 \times m} \qquad (14)$$

or

$$\text{Breadth, in inches} = \frac{4 \times \text{load at one point} \times m}{\text{square of depth} \times A^*} \qquad (15)$$

Note. In the last two cases the lengths denoted by *m* and *n* should be in feet, as the spans are in feet.

5. Application of Formulas for Flexural Strength of Wooden Beams

Example 1. What load, 6 ft out from the wall, will an 8 by 14-in long-leaf yellow pine beam, securely fastened at one end into a brick wall, sustain with safety?

Solution. The safe load in pounds (Formula 4) $= \frac{8 \times 196 \times 67}{4 \times 6} = 4\,377$ lb

Example 2. It is desired to suspend two loads of 10 000 lb each, 4 ft from each end of an oak beam, 20 ft long. What should be the size of the beam?

Solution. Let the depth of the beam be assumed to be 16 in. Then (Formula 15)

$$\text{The breadth} = \frac{4 \times 10\,000 \times 4}{256 \times 67} = 9.3 \text{ in, nearly}$$

The beam, therefore, should be 10 by 16 in in cross-section.

Beam with Several Loads. It is required, next, to determine the size of a beam which is supported at both ends, and which will safely support several concentrated loads, or a distributed load and one or more concentrated loads. The correct method of finding the least size of a beam that will safely support a combination of loads, is to first find the MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT, as explained in Chapter IX, page 329, and then substitute the value thus found for this BENDING MOMENT in the following formula:

$$\text{Breadth, in inches} = \frac{4 \times \text{maximum bending moment in ft-lb}}{\text{square of depth} \times A} \qquad (16)$$

A shorter and easier method is to find the EQUIVALENT DISTRIBUTED LOAD for each concentrated load, and then find the size of a beam required to support the total equivalent distributed load thus found. The equivalent distributed loads for concentrated loads applied at different proportions of the span from either end, may be obtained by multiplying the concentrated loads by the following FACTORS:

---

* For values of *A*, see Tables II and III.

Table IV. Factors for Equivalent Distributed Loads

	Position of load	Factor
For a concentrated load	Applied at middle of span	Multiply by 2.
For a concentrated load	Applied at one-third the span	Multiply by 1.78
For a concentrated load	Applied at one-fourth the span	Multiply by 1.5
For a concentrated load	Applied at one-fifth the span	Multiply by 1.28
For a concentrated load	Applied at one-sixth the span	Multiply by 1⅙
For a concentrated load	Applied at one-seventh the span	Multiply by 0.98
For a concentrated load	Applied at one-eighth the span	Multiply by ⅞
For a concentrated load	Applied at one-ninth the span	Multiply by 0.79
For a concentrated load	Applied at one-tenth the span	Multiply by 0.72

(See, also, Chapter XV, Safe Loads for Steel Beams, page 566.)

Thus, a concentrated load of 900 lb, applied at one-sixth the span from one support, will result in the same maximum bending moment as a distributed load of 900 × 1⅙, or 1 000 lb.

The above method for finding the size of a beam for a combination of several loads gives a larger beam than the correct method, by Formula (16), for the reason that the maximum bending moment will not be equal to the sum of the individual bending moments. Hence, when there are several heavy loads to be supported, it is economical to compute the maximum bending moment by the GRAPHIC METHOD explained in Chapter IX, page 329.

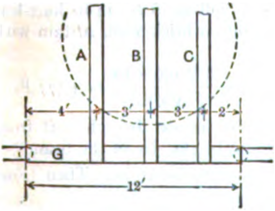

Fig. 12. Girder with Three Concentrated Loads

Example 3. The girder *G*, Fig. 12, supports the rafters of a flat roof, and also three heavy beams, *A*, *B* and *C*, blocked up above the roof and supporting a large tank filled with water. The timber is to be long-leaf yellow pine. The weight of the roof and allowance for snow is 7 500 lb. Each of the beams *A*, *B* and *C*, impose a load on the girder, due to the weight of the tank and its contents, of 3 000 lb. What should be the size of the girder?

Solution. The roof-load may be considered to be uniformly distributed. The load from beam, *A*, is applied at one-third the span from one end; the load from *B*, five-twelfths the span from the other end; and the load from *C*, one-sixth the span. The fraction five-twelfths is the mean of one-half and one-third; hence the load from *B* should be multiplied by 1.89. Multiplying the concentrated loads by their proper factors, the equivalent distributed load is found to be as follows:

Roof-load, distributed,	=	7 500
Load from *A*, 3 000 × 1.78	=	5 340
Load from *B*, 3 000 × 1.89	=	5 670
Load from *C*, 3 000 × 1⅑	=	3 333
Equivalent distributed load	=	21 843 lb

Assuming 16 in as the depth of the beam, and using Formula (11),

$$\text{The breadth} = \frac{12 \times 21\,843}{2 \times 256 \times 67} = 7.6 \text{ in}$$

Assuming 14 in for the depth, 10 in is obtained for the breadth; hence, the girder must be 10 by 14 in, or 8 by 16 in in cross-section.

Strut-Beams and Tie-Beams. A STRUT-BEAM is a beam that is subject to both a transverse and a compressive stress. A TIE-BEAM is one that is subject to direct tension in addition to the transverse stress. To find the strength of either, first find the size of a beam required to resist the transverse stress, and then the size of a timber, of the same depth as the beam, to resist the direct tension or compression, and add the two breadths together.

Example 4. A spruce tie-beam, 10 ft long between joints, sustains a ceiling-load of 2 000 lb and a direct tensile stress of 40 000 lb. What should be the dimensions of the beam?

Solution. As a ceiling-load is uniformly distributed, the size of the beam is determined by Formula (11), page 630. Assuming the depth to be 10 in

$$\text{The breadth} = \frac{10 \times 2\,000}{2 \times 100 \times 39}, \quad \text{or} \quad 2\tfrac{1}{2} \text{ in, nearly}$$

The resistance of spruce to tension (see Table XVI, page 647) is 800 lb per sq in. 40 000/800 = 50 sq in, which is equivalent to a 5 by 10-in section. It will require, therefore, a beam 7½ by 10 in in cross-section to resist both the transverse stress and the direct tension. If the tie-beam is cut in any way so as to reduce the section, except over a support, the dimensions must be increased accordingly.

Example 5. A strut-beam of white pine, 10 ft long, supports a distributed roof-load of 6 000 lb, and is also subject to a direct compression of 64 000 lb. What should be the size of the beam?

Solution. Assuming 14 in for the depth, the breadth for the transverse load is found by Formula (11), page 630

$$\text{The breadth} = \frac{10 \times 6\,000}{2 \times 196 \times 39} = 3.9 \text{ in, nearly}$$

Using Formula (4), page 450, from which is computed Table IV, page 452, giving the safe loads for white-pine posts, it is found that a 7½ by 14-in post, 10 ft long will safely carry the compressive stress, 64 000 lb. Hence it will require a 7½ by 14-in beam to resist the compressive stress, and a 4 by 14-in beam to resist the transverse load. The beam, therefore, should be 12 by 14 in in cross-section to resist them both.

6. Relative Strengths of Beams

Relative Strengths of Rectangular Beams. From an inspection of the foregoing formulas it is found that the RELATIVE STRENGTHS of beams of rectangular cross-sections, for the different cases is as shown in Table V.

Strengths of Beams of Any Constant Cross-Section. The STRENGTH-RATIOS given in Table V are true for beams of any constant cross-section of whatever form.

Beam on Edge. When a beam of square cross-section is supported on its edge, that is, when one of its diagonals is vertical, it will bear about seven-tenths as great a breaking-load as it will when it is supported on one side.

Table V. Relative Strengths of Rectangular Beams

Kind of load	Position of load	Strength ratios
Beam supported at both ends		
Uniformly distributed	Over entire span	1
Concentrated	At middle of span	1/2
Concentrated	At one-third the span	9/16
Concentrated	At one-fourth the span	2/3
Concentrated	At one-fifth the span	25/32
Concentrated	At one-sixth the span	9/10
Concentrated	At one-seventh the span	49/48
Concentrated	At one-eighth the span	8/7
Concentrated	At one-ninth the span	81/64
Concentrated	At one-tenth the span	25/18
Beam fixed at one end, or cantilever beams		
Uniformly distributed	Over entire span	1/4
Concentrated	At the free end	1/8
Beam supported at one end and fixed at the other end		
Uniformly distributed	Over entire span	1
Concentrated	Near the middle of span	13/20
Beam fixed at both ends		
Uniformly distributed	Over entire span	1 1/2
Concentrated	At middle of span	1

The Strongest Beam Cut From a Cylindrical Log is one in which the breadth is to the depth as 5 is to 7, very nearly, and the dimensions of such a beam can be found graphically, as shown in Fig. 13. Any diagonal, as *ab*, is drawn and divided into three equal parts by the points *c* and *d*; from these points lines perpendicular to *ab* are drawn, and the points *e* and *f* connected with *a* and *b*, as shown.

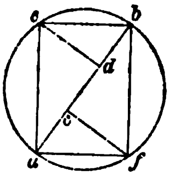

Fig. 13. Strongest Beam of Rectangular Section Cut from Log

Cylindrical Beams. A CYLINDRICAL BEAM is only ten-seventeenths as strong as a beam with a square cross-section, the side of the square being equal to the diameter of the circular section of the cylindrical beam. Hence, to find the safe load for a cylindrical beam, first find the proper load for the corresponding square-section beam, and divide this load by 1.7.

The Bearing of the Ends of a Beam on a wall beyond a certain distance does not strengthen the beam. In general, a beam should have a bearing of 4 in, or if it is very long, 6 in.

The Weight of the Beam Itself. The formulas given for the strength of beams do not take into account the WEIGHT OF THE BEAMS THEMSELVES, and hence the safe loads of the formulas include both the external loads and the weights of the material in the beams. In small wooden beams, the weight of each beam is generally so small, compared with the external load, that it need not be taken into account. But for larger wooden beams, and for metal and stone beams, the weight of the beam should be subtracted from the safe load if the load is distributed; and if the load is applied at the middle, one-half the weight of the beam should be subtracted.

The Weight of Timber. The weight per cubic foot for different kinds of timber may be found in the table in Part III, pages 1415 to 1422, giving the Weights of Various Substances.

7. Tables for Strength and Stiffness of Wooden Beams

Tables VII to XV for the Strength and Stiffness of Wooden Beams are given on pages 638 to 646, for BEAMS ONE INCH IN BREADTH. To find the strength for any other breadth, multiply the proper tabular value by the breadth of the beam in inches. To obtain the required breadth for any load, divide the given load in pounds by the proper tabular value. In heading the tables, prominence has been given to the values used for S, and the corresponding values of A, so that those who prefer to use for any wood a value different from that recommended, need only to look up the table based on the value they desire to employ. For certain cases and in some cities, the building laws specify 1 300, 1 500 and 1 800 pounds as values of S to be used for long-leaf yellow pine; hence Tables XIII, XIV and XV, based on these values, are added.

Since timber is very weak in SHEARING in comparison with its strength in TENSION and COMPRESSION, the safe load a beam of short span can carry is governed, not by its resistance to CROSS-BREAKING, but by its RESISTANCE to SHEARING along the NEUTRAL SURFACE. Wooden beams and joists, therefore, should be dimensioned to safely withstand this SHEARING ACTION. The ratio of the SHEARING to the FLEXURAL STRENGTH is not exactly the same for different kinds of wood, but for practical use and in the tables it has been assumed to be one-twelfth of the WORKING UNIT FIBER-STRESS. As it can be shown * that the ratio of the span to the depth of a rectangular beam, uniformly loaded, is directly proportional to its CROSS-BREAKING STRESS and SHEARING WORKING STRESS, the tabular loads are figured for the PERMISSIBLE UNIT FIBER-STRESS, where the length of the span is twelve or more times the depth of the beam; while for shorter lengths, the tabular loads are governed by the SHEAR. To determine the safe load on beams for a deflection not exceeding 1/360 of the span, tabular values have been placed directly underneath the safe loads for strength. These values are based on the MODULUS OF ELASTICITY, E, given in the tables.

The FORMULA FOR FLEXURE used in determining the safe uniformly distributed loads in the tables is (see Formulas (1), page 333 and (2)′, page 557)

$$M = \frac{SI}{c} = \frac{Sbd^2}{6} = \frac{Wl}{8}$$

Hence $$W = \frac{4}{3}\frac{bd^2S}{l}\text{, in which } l \text{ is the span in inches}$$

The FORMULA FOR SHEAR is

$$W = \frac{4\,bdS_s}{3}$$

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* Materials of Construction, J. B. Johnson, page 55.

The FORMULA FOR DEFLECTION is (see, also, Formulas (1) to (17) and Table I, Chapter XVIII)

$W = \frac{Ed^3}{8100l^2}$ in which l is the span in feet;
M = maximum bending moment in inch-pounds;
I = moment of inertia of the cross-section of the beam in biquadratic inches;
$c = d/2$ = one-half the depth of the beam in inches;
SI/c = resisting moment of the cross-section in inch-pounds;
W = total safe load in pounds, uniformly distributed;
b = breadth of the beam in inches;
d = depth of the beam in inches;
l = span, in feet or inches, as noted for the different formulas;
S = unit flexural fiber-stress in pounds per square inch;
$S_s = S/12$ = horizontal unit shearing-stress, in pounds per square inch, along the neutral surface;
E = modulus of elasticity in pounds per square inch.

Example 6. What is the safe, uniformly distributed load, corresponding to a fiber-stress of 1 200 lb per sq in, for an 8 by 14-in long-leaf yellow-pine beam, supported at both ends, and having a 24-ft clear span?

Solution. From Table XII, the load for a 1-in thickness is 1 090 lb. Hence, 1 090 × 8 = 8 720 lb, the total load for the beam. If the deflection of this beam should not be more than 1/360 of the span, the safe load for a 1-in thickness should not exceed 882 lb. Hence, 882 × 8 = 7 056 lb, is the maximum load to be used in this case.

Example 7. What should be the size of a Douglas-fir beam required to carry a distributed load of 6 400 lb over a clear span of 18 ft?

Solution. From Table X, it is found that a beam 12 in deep and 1 in thick, and with an 18-ft span, will support 711 lb. Dividing the load, 6 400 lb, by 711, the result is 9 for the breadth of the beam in inches. Hence the beam should be 9 by 12 in, to carry a distributed load of 6 400 lb over a span of 18 ft. As the deflection-load of 593 lb can be increased 60% for Douglas fir, the beam is safe for deflection; if, however, cypress is used, 593 must be taken in place of 711, to determine the breadth of the beam. This would result in a beam 11 by 12 in.

Different Positions of Loads. To find the safe load, concentrated at the middle of the span of a given beam, find the safe distributed load, as in Example 6, and divide this load by 2. To find the safe load concentrated at some point other than the middle of the span, find the safe distributed load for the given span, and divide this load by the proper factor taken from Table IV, page 632. To find the size of a beam to support a given concentrated load, multiply the given load by the factor corresponding to the position of the load, as given in Table IV, and then proceed as in Example 7.

Use of Formulas. If in doubt as to the application of the tables, in special cases, use one of the formulas, from (4) to (16), applying to the case. The formulas and tables should always give the same result.

Nominal and Actual Sizes of Beams. The tables may be used for beams the dimensions of which are less than the NOMINAL DIMENSIONS. Dressed beams, and, in many localities, floor-joists carried in stock, are more or less scant of the nominal dimensions, and for such beams and joists a reduction in the safe load must be made to correspond with the reduction in size. The

DRESSED SIZES are generally ¼ in scant, up to 4 in in breadth, above which they are ½ in scant; while in depth they are all generally ½ in less than the nominal size. The safe loads may be obtained by multiplying the safe loads for the corresponding nominal sizes, as given in Tables VII to XV, by the factors given in the following table.

Table VI. Conversion Factors for Actual Sizes of Wooden Beams

Cross-sections of beams in inches	Factors	Cross-sections of beams in inches	Factors
1¾×5½	1.47	1¾×11½	1.61
2¾×5½	2.31	2¾×11½	2.53
1¾×6½	1.51	1¾×13½	1.63
2¾×6½	2.51	2¾×13½	2.56
1¾×7½	1.54	1¾×15½	1.65
2¾×7½	2.42	2¾×15½	2.58
1¾×9½	1.58	1¾×17½	1.65
2¾×9½	2.48	2¾×17½	2.60

Example 8. What is the safe load for a 2¾ by 13½-in spruce beam, with an 18-ft span?

Solution. From Table VIII, the safe load for a 1 by 14-in beam is 847 lb. Multiplying this by 2.56, we have 2 178 lb as the safe distributed load for a beam 2¾ by 13½ in in cross-section. For a full 3 by 14-in cross-section, the safe load would be 2 541 lb.

Stone Beams. The above formulas may be used for rectangular stone beams when the proper coefficients, recommended in Table III, page 628, are inserted. Sandstone beams should never be subjected to any heavy loads and sandstone lintels should be relieved by steel beams or by brick arches over them or back of them.

Concrete Beams are generally reinforced with steel rods, but when used without reinforcement, the coefficient, *A*, given in Table III, is recommended.

Use of Tables VII to XV. The safe loads given in Tables VII to XV are correct for the fiber-stresses indicated; but for greater convenience in using the tables, each figure in the units-place of each value may be made a cipher, and each figure in the tens-place may be increased by one when the unit-figure is six or greater. Thus, 505 would be 500, 506 would be 510, etc.

Table VII. Safe Distributed Loads in Pounds for Rectangular Wooden Beams Recommended for Hemlock. Maximum Fiber-Stress, $S = 600$ lb per sq in. $E = 900\,000$ lb per sq in. $A = 33$

Span in feet	The first horizontal line gives the depth of the beam in inches The loads are for beams one inch wide and supported at both ends						
	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
6	400	533	666	800	933	1 066	1 200
7	343	533	666	800	933	1 066	1 200
8	300	533	666	800	933	1 066	1 200
9	266	474	666	800	933	1 066	1 200
10	240 240	427	666	800	933	1 066	1 200
11	218 199	388	605	800	933	1 066	1 200
12	200 166	356	555	800	933	1 066	1 200
13	185 143	328	513	738	933	1 066	1 200
14	171 122	305 291	477	686	933	1 066	1 200
15	160 107	285 253	445	640	871	1 066	1 200
16	150 94	267 222	417	600	817	1 066	1 200
17	....	251 197	392 384	565	762	1 003	1 200
18	....	237 175	371 343	534	726	948	1 200
19	....	225 157	351 308	505	688	898	1 137
20	....	213 142	333 277	480 480	653	854	1 080
21	....	....	317 252	462 435	623	813	1 029
22	....	....	303 229	436 397	594	776	982
23	....	....	290 211	417 363	568	742	939
24	....	....	278 193	400 334	545 529	712	900
25	....	....	....	384 308	523 488	683	864
26	....	....	....	369 284	503 452	657	831
27	....	....	....	356 264	482 418	633 625	800
28	....	....	....	343 245	467 389	609 582	772
29	....	....	....	....	451 353	589 542	745
30	....	....	....	....	436 339	569 505	720 720

The loads above the heavy black zigzag lines are calculated for resistance to shear. Where two loads are given, the upper load is calculated for strength and the lower load for a deflection not to exceed 1/360 of the span.

Table VIII. Safe Distributed Loads in Pounds for Rectangular Wooden Beam Recommended for White Pine, Spruce and Eastern Fir. Maximum Fiber-Stress, $S = 700$ lb per sq in. $E^* = 1\,000\,000$ lb per sq in. $A = 39$

Span in feet	The first horizontal line gives the depth of the beam in inches The loads are for beams one inch wide and supported at both ends						
	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
6	467	622	777	933	1 089	1 244	1 400
7	400	622	777	933	1 089	1 244	1 400
8	350	622	777	933	1 089	1 244	1 400
9	311	552	777	933	1 089	1 244	1 400
10	280 267	497	777	933	1 089	1 244	1 400
11	255 221	453	707	933	1 089	1 244	1 400
12	233 185	415	648	933	1 089	1 244	1 400
13	216 158	383 374	598	861	1 089	1 244	1 400
14	200 136	356 323	556	800	1 089	1 244	1 400
15	187 119	332 281	518	747	1 016	1 244	1 400
16	175 104	311 247	486 482	700	952	1 244	1 400
17	....	293 219	458 427	660	897	1 172	1 400
18	....	276 195	433 381	623	847	1 107	1 400
19	....	262 175	410 342	590	802	1 048	1 326
20	....	....	389 308	560 534	762	996	1 260
21	....	....	370 280	534 484	726	948	1 200
22	....	....	354 255	509 441	692	906	1 144
23	....	....	338 234	487 403	662 641	866	1 096
24	....	....	324 215	468 371	635 588	830	1 050
25	....	....	....	448 342	610 542	796	1 008
26	....	....	....	430 316	586 502	766 750	970
27	....	....	....	415 293	565 465	738 695	934
28	....	....	....	400 272	544 432	711 646	900
29	....	....	....	....	526 403	687 602	868 856
30	....	....	....	....	508 377	664 562	840 800

[*] For first-class, dry spruce and Eastern fir, $E = 1\,200\,000$ could safely be used, making the safe deflection-loads those given in Table XI. See, also, foot-note with Table VII.

Table IX. Safe Distributed Loads in Pounds for Rectangular Wooden Beams Recommended for California Red Wood and Cedar. Maximum Fiber-Stress, $S = 750$ lb per sq in. $E = 700\,000$ lb per sq in. $A = 41.7$

Span in feet	The first horizontal line gives the depth of the beam in inches The loads are for beams one inch wide and supported at both ends						
	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
6	500	667	833	1 000	1 167	1 333	1 500
7	428 382	667	833	1 000	1 167	1 333	1 500
8	375 292	667	833	1 000	1 167	1 333	1 500
9	333 231	592 547	833	1 000	1 167	1 333	1 500
10	300 187	533 443	833	1 000	1 167	1 333	1 500
11	274 155	485 366	757 714	1 000	1 167	1 333	1 500
12	250 130	445 307	641 600	1 000	1 167	1 333	1 500
13	231 110	410 262	641 512	923 885	1 167	1 333	1 500
14	214 95	382 226	595 441	857 763	1 167	1 333	1 500
15	....	356 197	556 384	800 665	1 088 1 060	1 333	1 500
16	....	333 173	521 337	750 584	1 020 929	1 333	1 500
17	....	....	491 299	706 518	961 822	1 254 1 223	1 500
18	....	....	463 267	667 462	908 733	1 184 1 090	1 500
19	....	....	439 240	632 414	860 658	1 122 982	1 421 1 396
20	....	....	....	600 374	816 594	1 066 886	1 350 1 258
21	....	....	....	572 339	778 526	1 016 803	1 286 1 144
22	....	....	....	547 309	742 491	970 732	1 227 1 042
23	....	....	....	522 282	710 448	928 670	1 174 954
24	....	....	....	500 260	681 412	890 616	1 125 876
25	....	....	....	480 239	653 380	854 567	1 080 808
26	....	....	....	463 221	628 351	821 525	1 038 747
27	....	....	....	444 205	605 326	791 487	1 000 692
28	....	....	....	428 190	583 203	762 452	965 644
29	....	....	....	....	563 282	736 421	931 600
30	....	....	....	....	544 264	712 393	900 560

See foot-note with Table VII.

Table X. Safe Distributed Loads in Pounds for Rectangular Wooden Beams Recommended for Douglas Fir, Norway Pine, Cypress and Chestnut.
Maximum Fiber-Stress, $S = 800$ lb per sq in. $E = 900\,000$ lb per sq in. $A = 44$

Span in feet	The first horizontal line gives the depth of the beam in inches The loads are for beams one inch wide and supported at both ends						
	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
6	533	711	889	1 066	1 244	1 422	1 600
7	457	711	889	1 066	1 244	1 422	1 600
8	400 375	711	889	1 066	1 244	1 422	1 600
9	356 296	632	889	1 066	1 244	1 422	1 600
10	320 240	569 569	889	1 066	1 244	1 422	1 600
11	291 199	517 470	809	1 066	1 244	1 422	1 600
12	267 166	474 395	742	1 066	1 244	1 422	1 600
13	246 142	438 337	684 658	985	1 244	1 422	1 600
14	229 122	407 291	635 567	914	1 244	1 422	1 600
15	214 107	379 253	593 494	854 854	1 161	1 422	1 600
16	200 94	356 222	556 432	800 750	1 089	1 422	1 600
17	....	335 197	524 384	754 665	1 025	1 339	1 600
18	....	316 175	494 343	711 593	968 914	1 264	1 600
19	....	300 157	468 308	674 532	917 846	1 198	1 517
20	....	284 142	445 277	640 480	871 752	1 138 1 138	1 441
21	....	....	423 252	609 435	830 692	1 084 1 032	1 372
22	....	....	404 229	582 397	792 630	1 035 941	1 309
23	....	....	387 211	557 363	758 577	990 860	1 253 1 225
24	....	....	371 193	534 334	726 529	949 790	1 200 1 126
25	....	....	....	512 308	697 488	911 728	1 152 1 037
26	....	....	....	492 284	670 452	876 675	1 108 960
27	....	....	....	474 264	646 418	843 625	1 068 890
28	....	....	....	457 245	622 389	813 582	1 029 827
29	....	....	....	....	601 353	785 542	993 770
30	....	....	....	....	581 339	759 506	960 720

See, also, foot-note with Table VII. For safe deflection-loads, for Douglas fir, add 60%; for Norway pine, 20%, to the above values.

Table XI. Safe Distributed Loads in Pounds for Rectangular Wooden Beams Recommended for Short-Leaf Yellow Pine. Maximum Fiber-Stress, $S = 1\,000$ lb per sq in. $E = 1\,200\,000$ lb per sq in. $A = 55.6$

Span in feet	The first horizontal line gives the depth of the beam in inches The loads are for beams one inch wide and supported at both ends						
	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
6	667	889	1 111	1 333	1 556	1 778	2 000
7	571	889	1 111	1 333	1 556	1 778	2 000
8	500 500	889	1 111	1 333	1 556	1 778	2 000
9	444 395	790	1 111	1 333	1 556	1 778	2 000
10	400 320	711	1 111	1 333	1 556	1 778	2 000
11	364 265	647 628	1 010	1 333	1 556	1 778	2 000
12	333 222	593 527	926	1 333	1 556	1 778	2 000
13	308 190	547 449	855	1 231	1 556	1 778	2 000
14	286 163	508 388	794 757	1 143	1 556	1 778	2 000
15	267 143	474 337	741 659	1 067	1 452	1 778	2 000
16	250 125	445 296	695 578	1 000 1 000	1 361	1 778	2 000
17	....	419 263	654 512	942 886	1 281	1 674	2 000
18	....	395 234	618 457	890 790	1 210	1 581	2 000
19	....	374 210	585 410	843 710	1 146 1 126	1 498	1 895
20	....	356 190	556 370	800 641	1 088 1 016	1 423	1 800
21	....	....	528 336	762 581	1 037 922	1 355	1 714
22	....	....	505 306	727 529	990 841	1 293 1 254	1 636
23	....	....	483 281	696 484	947 770	1 237 1 147	1 565
24	....	....	463 258	667 445	908 706	1 186 1 053	1 500 1 500
25	....	....	....	640 410	871 650	1 138 972	1 440 1 384
26	....	....	....	615 380	838 602	1 094 900	1 385 1 280
27	....	....	....	593 352	807 558	1 054 834	1 334 1 186
28	....	....	....	572 327	778 518	1 016 776	1 286 1 103
29	....	....	....	....	751 484	982 725	1 241 1 027
30	....	....	....	....	726 452	949 674	1 200 960

See foot-note with Table VII.

Table XII. Safe Distributed Loads in Pounds for Rectangular Wooden Beams Recommended for White Oak and Long-Leaf Yellow Pine.[*] Maximum Fiber-Stress, $S = 1\,200$ lb per sq in. $E = 1\,500\,000$ lb per sq in. $A = 66.7$

Span in feet	The first horizontal line gives the depth of the beam in inches The loads are for beams one inch wide and supported at both ends						
	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
6	800	1 067	1 333	1 600	1 867	2 133	2 400
7	686	1 067	1 333	1 600	1 867	2 133	2 400
8	600	1 067	1 333	1 600	1 867	2 133	2 400
9	533 495	949	1 333	1 600	1 867	2 133	2 400
10	480 400	854	1 333	1 600	1 867	2 133	2 400
11	437 332	776	1 212	1 600	1 867	2 133	2 400
12	400 278	711 658	1 111	1 600	1 867	2 133	2 400
13	369 247	656 561	1 026	1 477	1 867	2 133	2 400
14	343 204	610 485	953 946	1 371	1 867	2 133	2 400
15	320 179	569 422	890 824	1 280	1 741	2 133	2 400
16	300 156	533 371	834 724	1 200	1 633	2 133	2 400
17	....	502 329	785 642	1 130 1 108	1 537	2 009	2 400
18	....	474 293	741 572	1 067 990	1 452	1 898	2 400
19	....	449 263	702 513	1 010 886	1 375	1 795	2 274
20	....	426 237	666 462	960 802	1 306 1 272	1 708	2 160
21	....	....	634 420	914 726	1 245 1 154	1 626	2 057
22	....	....	606 383	872 662	1 188 1 051	1 552	1 968
23	....	....	579 351	835 605	1 136 962	1 484 1 435	1 878
24	....	....	556 322	800 557	1 090 882	1 423 1 318	1 800
25	....	....	....	768 513	1 045 813	1 366 1 215	1 728 1 727
26	....	....	....	738 473	1 006 753	1 313 1 125	1 662 1 596
27	....	....	....	711 440	969 698	1 265 1 043	1 600 1 480
28	....	....	....	686 410	933 648	1 218 970	1 543 1 377
29	....	....	....	....	902 605	1 178 903	1 489 1 284
30	....	....	....	....	871 566	1 138 843	1 440 1 200

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[*] For safe loads for fiber-stresses of 1300, 1500 and 1800 lb per sq in, see Tables XIII, XIV and XV, respectively. See, also, foot-note with Table VII.

Table XIII. Safe Distributed Loads in Pounds for Rectangular Wooden Beam

Maximum Fiber-Stress, $S = 1\,300$ lb per sq in. $A = 72.2$

Span in feet	The first horizontal line gives the depth of the beam in inches The loads are for beams one inch wide and supported at both ends						
	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
6	867	1 155	1 444	1 733	2 022	2 311	2 600
7	743	1 155	1 444	1 733	2 022	2 311	2 600
8	650	1 155	1 444	1 733	2 022	2 311	2 600
9	567	1 027	1 444	1 733	2 022	2 311	2 600
10	520	924	1 444	1 733	2 022	2 311	2 600
11	473	840	1 311	1 733	2 022	2 311	2 600
12	433	770	1 200	1 733	2 022	2 311	2 600
13	400	711	1 111	1 600	2 022	2 311	2 600
14	371	660	1 032	1 486	2 022	2 311	2 600
15	347	616	963	1 387	1 887	2 311	2 600
16	325	578	903	1 300	1 770	2 311	2 600
17	....	544	849	1 224	1 664	2 175	2 600
18	....	514	802	1 156	1 572	2 054	2 600
19	....	487	760	1 095	1 490	1 946	2 463
20	....	462	722	1 040	1 415	1 849	2 340
21	....	....	688	990	1 348	1 761	2 229
22	....	....	657	945	1 286	1 681	2 127
23	....	....	628	904	1 230	1 608	2 035
24	....	....	602	867	1 179	1 541	1 950
25	....	....	....	832	1 132	1 479	1 872
26	....	....	....	800	1 088	1 422	1 800
27	....	....	....	770	1 048	1 369	1 733
28	....	....	....	743	1 011	1 321	1 671
29	....	....	....	....	976	1 275	1 614
30	....	....	....	....	943	1 232	1 560

Loads above the heavy, black zigzag lines are calculated for resistance to shear.

Table XIV. Safe Distributed Loads in Pounds for Rectangular Wooden Beams

Maximum Fiber-Stress, $S = 1\,500$ lb per sq in. $A = 83.3$

Span in feet	The first horizontal line gives the depth of the beam in inches The loads are for beams one inch wide and supported at both ends						
	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
6	1 000	1 333	1 667	2 000	2 333	2 667	3 000
7	857	1 333	1 667	2 000	2 333	2 667	3 000
8	750	1 333	1 667	2 000	2 333	2 667	3 000
9	667	1 185	1 667	2 000	2 333	2 667	3 000
10	600	1 067	1 667	2 000	2 333	2 667	3 000
11	548	970	1 515	2 000	2 333	2 667	3 000
12	500	890	1 390	2 000	2 333	2 667	3 000
13	462	820	1 282	1 846	2 333	2 667	3 000
14	428	764	1 190	1 714	2 333	2 667	3 000
15	....	712	1 112	1 600	2 178	2 667	3 000
16	....	667	1 042	1 500	2 042	2 667	3 000
17	....	....	982	1 412	1 974	2 510	3 000
18	....	....	926	1 334	1 815	2 370	3 000
19	....	....	878	1 264	1 720	2 246	2 842
20	....	....	....	1 200	1 632	2 133	2 700
21	....	....	....	1 144	1 556	2 032	2 571
22	....	....	....	1 094	1 484	1 940	2 455
23	....	....	....	1 044	1 420	1 856	2 348
24	....	....	....	1 000	1 362	1 780	2 250
25	....	....	....	960	1 306	1 708	2 160
26	....	....	....	926	1 256	1 642	2 076
27	....	....	....	888	1 210	1 582	2 000
28	....	....	....	856	1 166	1 524	1 930
29	....	....	....	....	1 126	1 472	1 862
30	....	....	....	....	1 088	1 422	1 800

Loads above the heavy, black zigzag lines are calculated for resistance to shear.

Table XV. Safe Distributed Loads in Pounds for Rectangular Wooden Beams

Maximum Fiber-Stress, $S = 1\,800$ lb per sq in. $A = 100$

Span in feet	The first horizontal line gives the depth of the beam in inches The loads are for beams one inch wide and supported at both ends						
	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
6	1 200	1 600	2 000	2 400	2 800	3 200	3 600
7	1 030	1 600	2 000	2 400	2 800	3 200	3 600
8	900	1 600	2 000	2 400	2 800	3 200	3 600
9	800	1 422	2 000	2 400	2 800	3 200	3 600
10	720	1 280	2 000	2 400	2 800	3 200	3 600
11	655	1 164	1 818	2 400	2 800	3 200	3 600
12	600	1 067	1 667	2 400	2 800	3 200	3 600
13	554	985	1 539	2 215	2 800	3 200	3 600
14	514	914	1 428	2 057	2 800	3 200	3 600
15	480	853	1 333	1 920	2 613	3 200	3 600
16	450	800	1 250	1 800	2 450	3 200	3 600
17	....	753	1 176	1 694	2 306	3 012	3 600
18	....	711	1 111	1 600	2 178	2 844	3 600
19	....	674	1 053	1 516	2 063	2 695	3 411
20	....	640	1 000	1 440	1 960	2 560	3 240
21	....	....	....	1 371	1 867	2 438	3 086
22	....	....	....	1 309	1 782	2 327	2 945
23	....	....	....	1 252	1 704	2 226	2 817
24	....	....	....	1 200	1 633	2 133	2 700
25	....	....	....	1 152	1 568	2 048	2 592
26	....	....	....	1 108	1 508	1 969	2 492
27	....	....	....	1 067	1 452	1 896	2 400
28	....	....	....	1 029	1 400	1 829	2 314
29	....	....	....	....	1 352	1 766	2 235
30	....	....	....	....	1 307	1 707	2 160

Loads above the heavy, black zigzag lines are calculated for resistance to shear.

8. Working Unit Stresses for Woods

Safe Working Unit Stresses for different woods are given in Table XVI. They are compiled and adapted largely from recommended UNIT STRESSES adopted by the Association of Railway Superintendents of Bridges and Buildings and by the American Railway Engineering Association. (See, also, Table I, page 449.)

Table XVI. Safe Working * Unit Stresses for Different Woods, in Pounds per Square Inch

Kind of wood	Tension		Compression			Bending †		Shearing ‡	
	With the grain	Across the grain	With the grain		Across the grain	Extreme fiber-stress	Modulus of elasticity, $E/1\,000$	With the grain	Across the grain
			End-bearing	Columns § under 15 diams					
Factor of safety	Ten	Ten	Five	Five	Four	Six	One	Four	Four
White oak.....	1 200	200	1 400	1 000	500	1 200	1 500	200	1 000
White pine....	700	50	1 100	800	200	700	1 000	100	500
Long-leaf yellow pine..	1 200	60	1 400	1 000	350	1 200	1 500	150	1 250
Douglas fir....	800	.....	1 200	900	200	800	1 500	130	900
Short-leaf yellow pine.....	900	50	1 100	800	250	1 000	1 200	130	1 000
Red pine and Norway pine	800	50	1 000	750	200	800	1 100	125	750
Spruce and eastern fir...	800	50	1 200	900	200	700	1 200	100	750
Hemlock......	600	.....	1 100	800	150	600	900	100	600
Cypress.......	600	.....	1 000	750	200	800	900	125	......
Cedar.........	700	.....	1 100	750	200	700	700	100	400
Chestnut......	850	.....	....	800	250	800	1 000	150	500
California red wood........	700	.....	900	800	150	750	700	75	.....

* The average ultimate breaking unit stresses may be obtained by multiplying the working unit stresses by the factors of safety at the top of the table-columns.

† See, also, Table I, page 557.

‡ These and some other stresses in the table are higher than those of the building laws of many cities, larger factors of safety being used in those cities.

§ The larger end-bearing stresses are frequently used for short columns and for column-formulas. (See Table I, page 1138.) Lower factors of safety will give higher stresses.

9. Working Unit Stresses for Woods. Taken from Building Laws

The Allowable Working Unit Stresses for different woods, taken from the building laws of four cities, are given in Table XVII. The UNIT STRESSES are for TENSION, COMPRESSION, BENDING and SHEAR.

Table XVII. Working Unit Stresses for Woods, in Pounds per Square Inch

Kind of stress	Kind of wood	New York *	Chicago	Baltimore §	Boston ¶
Tension	Yellow pine†	1 200	1 300	1 800LLYP	....
	White pine	800	800	1 000	....
	Spruce‡	800	800	1 200	....
	Hemlock	600	600	800	....
	Chestnut	....	....	....	....
	Oak	1 000	1 200	1 500	....
	Locust	....	....	....	....
	....	....	1 000SLYP	1 200VP	....
Compression with the grain	Yellow pine†	1 000	1 110	1 000LLYP	....
	White pine	800	700	800	....
	Spruce‡	800	700	800	....
	Hemlock	500	500	600	....
	Chestnut	500	....	....	....
	Oak	900	900	1 000	....
	Locust	1 200	....	1 200	....
	....	....	800SLYP‖	800NCorYP	....
Compression across the grain	Yellow pine†	600	250	600LLYP	500
	White pine	400	200	400	250
	Spruce‡	400	200	400	250
	Hemlock	500	150	500	....
	Chestnut	1 000	....	....	....
	Oak	800	500	600	600
	Locust	1 000	....	1 000	....
	....	....	250SLYP‖	400NCorVP	....
Transverse bending	Yellow pine†	1 200	1 300	1 800LLYP	1 500
	White pine	800	800	1 000	1 000
	Spruce‡	800	800	1 350	1 000
	Hemlock	600	600	1 000	....
	Chestnut	800	....	....	....
	Oak	1 000	1 200	1 500	1 000
	Locust	1 200	....	....	....
	....	....	1 000SLYP‖	....	....
Shear with the grain	Yellow pine†	70	130	100LLYP	100
	White pine	40	80	85	80
	Spruce‡	50	80	90	80
	Hemlock	40	60	75	....
	Chestnut	....	....	....	....
	Oak	100	200	100	150
	Locust	100	....	....	....
	....	....	120SLYP‖	90VP	....
Shear across the grain	Yellow pine†	500	....	500LLYP	....
	White pine	250	....	350	....
	Spruce‡	320	....	350	....
	Hemlock	275	....	350	....
	Chestnut	150	....	150	....
	Oak	600	....	720	....
	Locust	720	....	....	....
	....	....	....	400VP	....

* Stresses named by N. Y., Cincinnati, Dist. of Columbia and Bd of Fire Underwriters about the same. Exceptions: Dist. of Columbia omits hemlock, omits chestnut in shear across grain and puts spruce and Virginia pine under one caption; Cincinnati makes caption of white pine and spruce, with N. Y. white-pine values, and gives 270 for hemlock, for shear across grain. † Chicago, "Douglas fir and long-leaf yellow pine." ‡ Chicago, no values for spruce; spruce-values apply to Norway pine. ‖ Chicago, values given for short-leaf yellow pine, SLYP. § Baltimore, LLYP is long-leaf yellow pine; NC or VP, N. Carolina or Virginia pine. ¶ Boston, yellow pine is, "yellow pine (long-leaf)."

10. Ultimate Unit Stresses for Woods

The Average Ultimate Unit Stresses for the CONIFEROUS or SOFTWOODS and for the BROAD-LEAVED or HARDWOODS, together with the AVERAGE WEIGHTS of the woods per cubic foot are given in Tables XVIII and XIX. The values given are compiled from many tests on numerous species of timber. In regard to the range of values for the same kind of wood, it may be stated that the higher values are for specimens which contained a percentage of water varying from 15 to 20%; and that tests on laboratory specimens showed greater strength than the actual pieces used in construction. The WEIGHTS PER CUBIC FOOT are averages of the weights of many specimens tested and agree generally with average values given in other tables of weights of materials.

Table XVIII.* Average Ultimate Unit Stresses for the Coniferous or Softwoods, in Pounds per Square Inch

Kind of wood	Weight in lb per cu ft, dry	Tension	Compression		Bending (modulus of rupture)	Shear	
			With the grain	Across the grain		With the grain	Across the grain
Cedar (white).......	19.72 to 20.70	8 000 to 11 400	4 000 to 6 000	700	5 000	400	1 300 to 1 519
Cedar (red).........	23.66	8 000	4 000 to 7 000	700	5 000	......	1 500
Cypress............	29.80	4 000 to 6 000	4 000 to 8 000	700 to 800	5 000 to 11 700	500	......
Hemlock...........	26.42 to 32.29	6 000 to 8 700	4 000 to 7 420	600 to 700	3 500	350	2 500 to 2 750
Pine (white)........	25.55	3 000 to 12 000	3 000 to 6 650	700 to 1 000	4 000 to 10 000	225 to 423	2 480
Pine (red), (Norway pine).............	30.25	5 000 to 13 000	6 000 to 8 000	800 to 1 000	5 000 to 12 300	500	....
Pine (yellow), (long-leaf)...............	43.62	6 000 to 13 000	5 000 to 9 500	1 000 to 1 400	7 000 to 14 200	300 to 700	4 340 to 5 000
Pine (yellow), (short-leaf)...............	38.40	5 000 to 10 000	4 000 to 9 000	900 to 1 000	6 000 to 12 400	400 to 700	4 000 to 5 000
Douglas fir (Oregon pine).............	32.14	9 000 to 14 000	4 880 to 9 800	800 to 1 200	6 500 to 12 100	500 to 600	....
Redwood (California)	26.23	7 000 to 10 853	3 000 to 4 000	800	4 500	400	.....
Spruce (black)......	28.57	5 000 to 19 500	4 000 to 7 850	700	4 000 to 12 000	250 to 400	3 255
Spruce (white)......	25.25	5 000 to 19 500	4 000 to 7 850	700	4 000 to 12 000	250 to 400	3 255

* The higher values of tensile and compressive strengths are for "dry" or "seasoned" timber containing from 10 to 15% of water. For safe fiber-stresses for flexure, see Table I, page 557.

Table XIX.* **Average Ultimate Unit Stresses for the Broad-Leaved or Hardwoods, in Pounds per Square Inch**

Kinds of wood	Weight in lb per cu ft, dry	Tension	Compression		Bending (modulus of rupture)	Shear	
			With the grain	Across the grain		With the grain	Across the grain
Ash (white)	40.77	11 000 to 17 000	4 000 to 9 000	1 900	6 300 to 14 200	450 to 1 100	6 280
Ash (red)	38.96	......	6 800	......	......	......	......
Ash (green)	44.35	......	8 000 to 9 800	1 700	5 100 to 16 000	1 000	6 280
Chestnut	41.00	9 000 to 13 000	5 000	900	5 000	600	1 500
Elm (white)	45.26	8 000 to 13 000	6 000 to 10 000	1 200	7 300 to 13 600	800	......
Gum	36.83	15 000 to 18 000	5 600 to 8 500	1 400	6 000 to 12 700	800	5 890
Hickory	46.16 to 52.17	12 800 to 18 000	7 000 to 10 000	2 700 to 3 200	5 400 to 24 300	1 000 to 1 200	6 000 to 7 800
Locust	45.70	10 500 to 24 800	7 000 to 11 700	......	......	......	7 176
Lignum-vitæ	77.12	11 000	8 800	......	......	......	......
Maple (hard)	43.08	8 000 to 10 000	7 000 to 9 940	......	......	......	6 355
Maple (white)	32.84	8 000 to 10 000	6 000 to 7 500	1 700 to 1 900	......	399 to 537	6 355
Mahogany (Central America)	35.00	2 300 to 17 960	6 000	......	10 800	......	......
Oak (white)	46.35	10 000 to 19 500	4 500 to 11 300	2 000	6 000	750 to 1 000	4 425
Oak (chestnut)	53.63	10 000	7 500	......	......	......	......
Oak (live)	59.24	13 000	9 000	......	......	......	8 480
Oak (red and black)	40.75	10 000	4 000 to 8 500	2 300	9 100 to 15 400	1 100	......
Poplar (whitewood)	30.00	7 000	4 000 to 5 700	......	......	......	4 418
Walnut (white) (butternut)	25.46	......	5 000 to 6 800	......	......	......	2 830
Walnut (black)	38.11	12 000	7 500	......	......	......	4 728

* The higher values of the tensile and compressive strengths are for "dry" o "seasoned" timber containing from 10 to 15% of water. For safe fiber-stresses fo flexure, see Table I, page 557.

CHAPTER XVII

STRENGTH OF BUILT-UP, FLITCHED AND TRUSSED WOODEN GIRDERS

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1. Built-Up Wooden Girders

Built-Up Wooden Beams. Wooden beams or girders built up of planks, spiked or bolted together side by side, will generally be somewhat stronger than solid girders of the same dimensions, because the planks will be better seasoned and freer from check-cracks and other defects. For beams or girders 10 in or less in depth, spikes will usually be sufficient to bind the planks together; but for deeper beams, bolts should be used in addition to the spikes, to prevent the planks from separating and the outer planks from warping or curling away from the others.

Bolts. Two bolts should be placed at each end of the beam and every four feet of its length.

Lengths of Planks. When a beam is built up in this way each plank should extend the full length of the beam. In a CONTINUOUS BEAM, the planks should break joints over the supports. The planks of BUILT-UP BEAMS should always be set on edge, never flatwise.

Compound Wooden Beams. It is sometimes necessary to use a wooden beam for a longer span or greater load than is safe for the deepest SINGLE BEAM that can be obtained, or for a beam built up of planks. In such cases COMPOUND WOODEN BEAMS may be used.

Definition. By a COMPOUND WOODEN BEAM or GIRDER is meant a beam built up by placing two or more single beams over another one, with the view of having them act as a SINGLE BEAM having the depth of the combined beams.

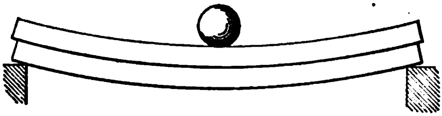

Fig. 1. Two Simple Wooden Beams, One Over the Other, Loaded in Middle

Strength of Compound Beams. If two 10 by 10-in beams were placed one on top of the other, and the upper one loaded at the middle, the beams would act as two separate beams (Fig. 1) and their combined strength would be no greater than if the two beams were placed side by side. If, however, the two beams can be joined so that the fibers of the lower beam will be extended as much as would be the case in a single beam of the same depth, or, in other words so that the two beams will not slip on each other, the COMPOUND BEAM will have four times the strength of the SINGLE BEAM.

Tests of Compound Beams. Various attempts have been made to join beams thus placed so as to prevent the two parts slipping on each other, and during the years 1896–7, Edgar Kidwell, of the Michigan College of Mines, made an extended series of tests of the efficiency of COMPOUND BEAMS of different patterns. From these tests much valuable data was obtained. A full description of the tests, accompanied by the conclusions of the author, and the rules and data for proportioning the bolts and keys, of KEYED BEAMS, is published in the Trans. Am. Soc. M. E., vol. 27.

Simple Form of Compound Beam. A form of COMPOUND BEAM, sometimes used in American building-construction, is shown in Fig. 2, diagonal boards in opposite directions being nailed to each side of the two timbers to prevent their slipping on each other. T. M. Clark, in his Building Superintendence, advocates this as one of the best forms of compound beams, and places its EFFICIENCY at about 95% of that of a solid beam of the same depth. Professor Kidwell made nine tests of this type of beam. In six of the beams the ratio of span to depth was as 12 to 1, and in three of the beams, as 24 to 1. The shorter beams gave an average EFFICIENCY, without much variation, of 71.4%, and the longer beams an EFFICIENCY of 80.7%.

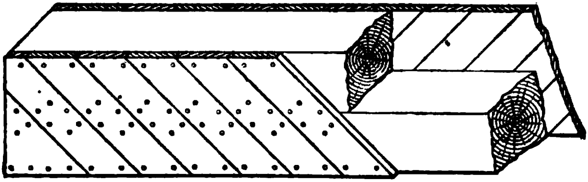
Fig. 2. Simple Form of Compound Wooden Beam

It was found that the beams failed by the splitting of the diagonal pieces or the drawing of the nails; "in every case, long before the beam broke, the struts split open or the nails were partly drawn out or bent over in the wood, thereby permitting the component beams to slide on each other." When built with diagonal boards, 1¼ in thick, nailed with tenpenny nails, as in Fig. 2, the WORKING STRENGTH of such a beam may be taken at 65% of the strength of a solid beam of the same depth and of a breadth equal to the breadth of the timbers. The DEFLECTION of the beam, however, will be about double that of a solid beam of the same size, and on that account this type of beam is not to be recommended for supporting floors with plastered ceilings or for carrying plastered partitions.

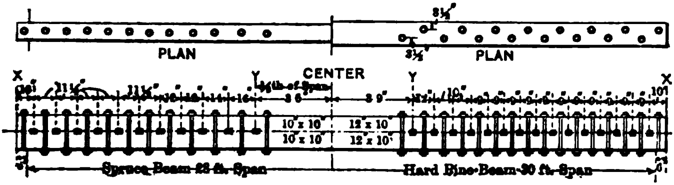

Fig. 3. Compound Keyed and Bolted Wooden Beams

Keyed Beams. Professor Kidwell tested, also, several types of KEYED BEAMS, and found that a compound beam keyed and bolted together, as shown in Fig. 3, is the most efficient form that it is practical to build.

It was found that with oak keys it was possible to obtain an EFFICIENCY for spruce beams of 95%, while the DEFLECTION varied from 20 to 25% more than would be expected in a solid beam.

Cast-Iron Keys. By using CAST-IRON KEYS the deflection was found to be but little, if any, greater than for a solid beam.

Shape of Keys. The keys must be wedge-shaped, as shown in Fig. 4, so that they can be driven tightly against the end-wood.

Efficiency of Keyed Beams. Professor Kidwell recommends that for ordinary purposes an EFFICIENCY of 75% be allowed when oak keys are used and of 80% when the keys are of cast iron. The width of an oak key should be twice its height. Numerous small keys closely spaced gave better results than fewer large keys. In his report, Professor Kidwell gives formulas, also, for the number and spacing of the keys.

Keys, Bolts and Washers for Compound Beams. As compound beams, when used, are generally built up of 8, 10, 12 or 14-in timbers, Mr. Kidder, some years ago, prepared a table giving the sizes of keys, the number required on each side of the middle of the span, their minimum spacing and the sizes of the bolts and washers to be used for such beams of from 20 to 36-ft spans. He noted that the MAXIMUM SAFE LOADS for such beams should be 75% of the loads computed by Formula (10), page 630, for a beam supported at both ends, and loaded with a uniformly distributed load.

Table I. Keys, Bolts and Washers for Compound, Keyed Wooden Beams

Size of beams	Size of keys	Bolts	Washers	Number of keys each side of center line			
				White pine	Spruce	Douglas fir	Long-leaf yellow pine
16-in beams	1½ by 3 -in oak keys	¾-in	3 -in	7	8	11	12
20-in beams	1½ by 3 -in oak keys	¾-in	3 -in	9	11	13	15
24-in beams	2 by 4 -in oak keys	⅞-in	3½-in	8	9	12	14
28-in beams	2¼ by 4½-in oak keys	⅞-in	3½-in	9	10	12	14

Size of keys	Bolts	Washers	Minimum spacing of keys			
1½ by 3 -in oak keys	¾-in	3-in	11¼-in	11¼-in	9 -in	9 -in
2 by 4 -in oak keys	⅞-in	3-in	15 -in	15 -in	11½-in	11½-in
2¼ by 4½-in oak keys	⅞-in	3-in	17 -in	17 -in	13 -in	13 -in

The Breadth or Thickness of Compound Beams should be not less than two-fifths of the depth.

The Number of Keys required is not affected by the length or breadth of the beam, if the beam is figured for the full safe load.

In Spacing the Keys (Figs. 3 and 4) they should not be closer than the minimum spacing given in Table I. For beams loaded at the middle, the spacing of the keys should be uniform from *X* to *Y*, Fig. 3, *Y* being one-eighth the span from the center line. If the distance between the keys, center to center, works out less than the minimum spacing, the safe load should be correspondingly reduced or the thickness of the beam increased.

For Beams Uniformly Loaded, the first four or five keys from the end should be spaced for minimum spacing, and the spacing of the remaining keys increased toward the point *Y*. When the ratio of depth to span is greater than 1 to 16, the inner key may be a little more than one-eighth the span from the center line, for distributed loads. Fig. 3 shows the proper spacing for a 20-in spruce beam of 28-ft span and for a long-leaf yellow pine beam of 30-ft span; and the tabulation below gives the proper spacing of keys for spruce beams of longer spans, figured from the end of the beam in each case. For other woods and spans the spacing should be made as near like these as the fixed conditions will permit. Four examples of spacing are given below. The sizes of bolts and washers to be used are given in Table I. If the beam is not over 10 in wide, the bolts may be arranged as for the spruce beam (Fig. 3); if 12 in wide or over, the bolts should be staggered as shown for the hard-pine beam. In a very wide beam the bolts might be spaced as in detail *B*, Fig. 4.

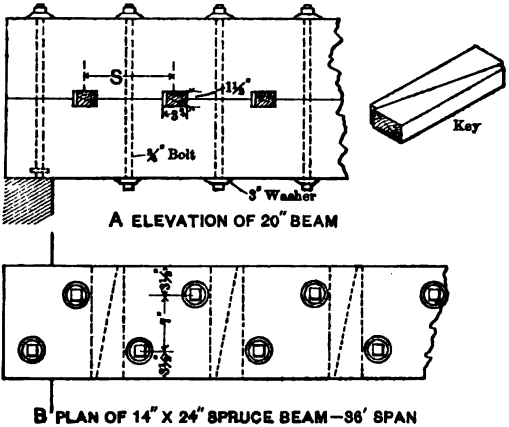

Fig. 4. Details of Keyed and Bolted Wooden Beam

Spacing of keys in inches for spruce beams, commencing at end, for uniformly distributed loads:

16-in spruce beam, 32-ft span, 10, 12,	12,	16,	19, 24, 32
20-in spruce beam, 32-ft span, 10, 11½,	11½,	11½,	12, 12, 12, 13, 15, 18, 24
24-in spruce beam, 36-ft span, 13, 15,	15,	15,	15, 16, 18, 20, 30
28-in spruce beam, 36-ft span, 15, 17,	17,	17,	17, 17, 17, 17, 17, 17

2. Flitched Beams or Flitch-Plate Girders

Flitch-Plate Beams (Fig. 5) were at one time much used, but with the present prices of steel it is cheaper and better to use steel beams.

The following explanation and formulas are given, however, for the benefit of those who might have occasion to use a beam of this kind. It has been found in practice that the thickness of the wood should be sixteen times the thickness of the steel. As the steel is so much STIFFER than the wood, we must proportion the load on the wood so that the latter will bend as much as th steel plate bends: otherwise the whole load might be thrown on the steel plat The MODULUS OF ELASTICITY of steel is about twenty times that of long-lea yellow pine; so that a beam of this wood, 1 in wide, will bend twenty time as much as a plate of steel of the sam size and under the same load. Hence if we want this beam to bend just a much as the steel plate, we must pu only one-twentieth the load on it. I the wooden beam is sixteen times a thick as the steel plate, we should put sixteen-twentieths of its safe load on it or, what amounts to the same thing, use a constant only four-fifths of th strength of the wood.

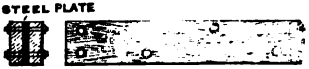

Fig. 5. Flitch-plate Girder

Formulas for Flitch-Plate Girders. On this basis the following formulas have been derived for the strength of FLITCH-PLATE GIRDERS, in which the thickness of the wood is sixteen times the breadth of the steel, approximately:

Let d = depth of beam in inches
b = total thickness of wood in inches
l = clear span in feet
t = thickness of steel plate in inches

$$A' = \begin{cases} 53.6 \text{ for long-leaf yellow pine} \\ 35.2 \text{ for Douglas fir} \\ 31 \text{ for spruce} \end{cases}$$

P = total load at middle in pounds
W = distributed load in pounds

Then, for beams supported at both ends,

$$\text{Safe load at middle in pounds} = \frac{d^2}{l}(A'b + 889\,t) \qquad (1)$$

$$\text{Safe distributed load in pounds} = \frac{2\,d^2}{l}(A'b + 889\,t) \qquad (2)$$

$$\text{For distributed load,} \quad d = \sqrt{\frac{Wl}{2\,A'b + 1778\,t}} \qquad (3)$$

$$\text{For load at middle,} \quad d = \sqrt{\frac{Pl}{A'b + 889\,t}} \qquad (4)$$

The bolts should be ¾ in in diameter, and spaced 2 ft on centers. Each end should have two bolts, as in Fig. 5.

Example. What is the safe load, uniformly distributed, for a girder composed of three 4 by 14-in Douglas-fir timbers and two ⅜ by 14-in flitch-plates, with a span of 25 ft?

Solution. By Formula (2),

$$\text{Safe load} = \frac{2 \times 196}{25}(35.2 \times 12 + 889 \times \tfrac{3}{4}) = 17\,078 \text{ lb}$$

3. Trussed Beams and Girders

Use of Trussed Beams and Girders. Whenever we wish to support a floor upon girders having a span of more than 30 ft, we must use a TRUSSED GIRDER, a riveted STEEL-PLATE GIRDER, or two or more STEEL BEAMS. Under some circumstances and in some parts of the country it may be cheaper or more convenient to use a large wooden girder, and truss it, as in Figs. 6, 7, 8 or 9.

Depth of Trussed Girder. For all these forms it is desirable to give the girders as much depth as the conditions allow; as, the deeper the girder, the smaller the stresses in the pieces.

In the Single-Strut Trussed Girder, we either have two beams, and one rod which runs up between them at the ends, or three beams, and two rods running up between the beams in the same way. The beams should be in one continuous length for the whole span, if they can be obtained in that length. The requisite dimensions of the tie-rod, struts and beams, in any given case, must be determined by first finding the stresses developed in these pieces, and then the areas of cross-sections required to resist these stresses.

For a Single-Strut Truss (Fig. 6), the stresses in the pieces may be determined by the following formulas:

For a Distributed Load *W* Over the Whole Girder (Fig. 6)

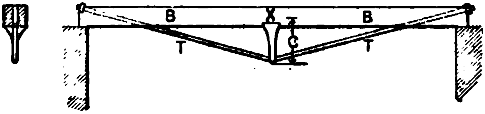

Fig. 6. Trussed Wooden Girder. One Vertical Strut

$$\text{Tension in } T = \frac{W}{2} \times \frac{\text{length of } T}{\text{length of } C} \qquad (5)$$

$$\text{Compression in } C = \tfrac{5}{8} W. \quad \text{(See Note.)} \qquad (6)$$

$$\text{Compression in } B = \frac{W}{2} \times \frac{\text{length of } B}{\text{length of } C} \qquad (7)$$

Note. When the beam *B* is in one piece, the full length of span. If *B* is jointed over the strut then compression in *C* or tension in *R* = ½ *W*.

For a Concentrated Load *P* Over *C* (Fig. 6)

$$\text{Tension in } T = \frac{P}{2} \times \frac{\text{length of } T}{\text{length of } C} \qquad (8)$$

$$\text{Compression in } C = P$$

$$\text{Compression in } B = \frac{P}{2} \times \frac{\text{length of } B}{\text{length of } C} \qquad (9)$$

For a Girder Trussed as in (Fig. 7), Under a Distributed Load *W* Over the Whole Girder

$$\text{Compression in } S = \frac{W}{2} \times \frac{\text{length of } S}{\text{length of } R} \qquad (10)$$

$$\text{Tension in } R = \tfrac{5}{8} W. \quad \text{(See Note.)}$$

$$\text{Tension in } B = \frac{W}{2} \times \frac{\text{length of } B}{\text{length of } R} \qquad (11)$$

Note. When the beam *B* is in one piece, the full length of span. If *B* is jointed over the strut then compression in *C* or tension in *R* = ½ *W*.

For a Concentrated Load, *P* at the Middle (Fig. 7)

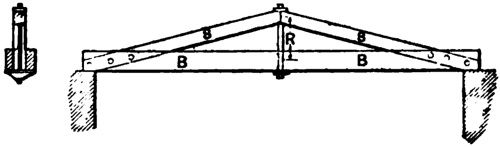

Fig. 7. Trussed Wooden Girder. One Vertical Tie

$$\text{Compression in } S = \frac{P}{2} \times \frac{\text{length of } S}{\text{length of } R} \qquad (12)$$

$$\text{Tension in } R = P$$

$$\text{Tension in } B = \frac{P}{2} \times \frac{\text{length of } B}{\text{length of } R} \qquad (13)$$

For a Double-Strut Trussed Beam (Fig. 8) with a Distributed Load *W* Over the Whole Girder (Beam *B* Divided into Three Equal Spans)

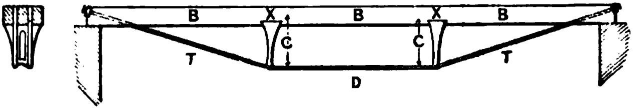

Fig. 8. Trussed Wooden Girder. Two Vertical Struts

$$\text{Tension in } T = \frac{W}{3} \times \frac{\text{length of } T}{\text{length of } C} \qquad (14)$$

$$\text{Compression in } C = \frac{W}{3}$$

$$\text{Compression in } B \text{ or tension in } D = \frac{W}{3} \times \frac{\text{length of } B}{\text{length of } C} \qquad (15)$$

For a Concentrated Load *P* Over Each of the Struts *C* (Fig. 8)

$$\text{Tension in } T = P \times \frac{\text{length of } T}{\text{length of } C} \qquad (16)$$

$$\text{Compression in } C = P$$

$$\text{Compression in } B \text{ or tension in } D = P \times \frac{\text{length of } B}{\text{length of } C} \qquad (17)$$

For a Girder Trussed as in Fig. 9, and Under a Distributed Load *W* Over the Whole Girder (Beam *B* Divided into Three Equal Spans)

$$\text{Compression in } S = \frac{W}{3} \times \frac{\text{length of } S}{\text{length of } R} \qquad (18)$$

$$\text{Tension in } R = \frac{W}{3}$$

$$\text{Tension in } B \text{ or compression in } D = \frac{W}{3} \times \frac{\text{length of } B}{\text{length of } R} \qquad (19)$$

For Concentrated Loads P Applied at Joints 2 and 3 (Fig. 9)

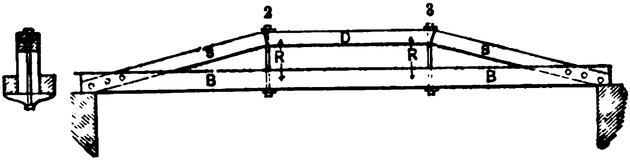

Fig. 9. Trussed Wooden Girder. Two Vertical Ties

$$\text{Compression in } S = P \times \frac{\text{length of } S}{\text{length of } R} \qquad (20)$$

$$\text{Tension in } R = P$$

$$\text{Tension in } B \text{ or compression in } D = P \times \frac{\text{length of } B}{\text{length of } R} \qquad (21)$$

Trusses constructed as shown in Figs. 8 and 9 should be divided so that the rods R, or the struts C, will divide the lengths of the girder into three equal or nearly equal parts. The lengths of the pieces T, C, B, R, S, etc. should be measured ON THE AXIAL LINES of the pieces. Thus, the length of R should be measured from the CENTER LINE OR AXIS of the tie-beam B to the CENTER LINE OR AXIS of the strut D; and the length of C should be measured from the AXIS of the rod to the AXIS of the strut-beam B.

After determining the stresses in the pieces by these formulas, we may compute the areas of the cross-sections by the following rules:

$$\text{Area of cross-section of a short strut} = \frac{\text{compression in strut}}{S_c} \qquad (22)$$

in which S_c for cast iron may be taken at from 13 000 or 14 000 lb per sq in, and for wood as given in Table XVI, page 647.

The size of the long strut D (Fig. 9) should be determined by means of Tables 451 and 452 for wooden columns, Chapter XIV.

The diameters of the tie-rods may be obtained from Table II, page 388.

For the beam B (Figs. 8 and 9) when the load is distributed, we must compute its necessary area of cross-section as a STRUT (Fig. 8) or a TIE (Fig. 9), and also the area of its cross-section, as a BEAM, required to support its load, and use a beam with a section equal to the sum of the two sections thus obtained.

$$\left.\begin{array}{c}\text{Area of cross-section of } B \text{ to resist}\\ \text{tension or compression}\end{array}\right\} = \frac{\text{tension}}{S_t} \text{ or } \frac{\text{compression}}{S_c} \qquad (23)$$

In the trusses shown in Figs. 6 and 7, with distributed loads,

$$\text{Breadth of } B \text{ (as a beam)} = \frac{W \times l}{4 \times d^2 \times A} \qquad (24)$$

In the trusses shown in Figs. 8 and 9, with distributed loads,

$$\text{Breadth of } B \text{ (as a beam)} = \frac{W \times l}{6 \times d^2 \times A} \qquad (25)$$

(Compare Equation (24) and (25) with Equation (11), page 630.)

W denotes the total distributed load in pounds on the girder, and l the length in feet of one section of the beam. When the loads are concentrated over the struts C (Fig. 8) or at the joints R (Fig. 9) then there will be no TRANSVERSE

STRESS on the beams B, and they need be proportioned for the COMPRESSIVE or TENSILE STRESS, only, as the case may be.

In Formulas (23), (24) and (25), for S_c and S_t, substitute the values for safe unit stresses for compression, Table XVI, page 647, and for tension, Table II, page 388, and for A substitute the values recommended in Tables II and XVI, pages 628 and 647.

Illustrative Examples. To illustrate the method of computing the dimensions of the different parts of girders of this kind, two examples are given.

Example 1. It is required to design a trussed girder of the form shown in Fig. 6, for a span of 30 ft. The girders are to be 12 ft on centers, and are to carry a floor loaded with 100 lb per sq ft. The girder consists of three strut-beams B, side by side, and two rods. We can allow the rod T to come two feet below the beams B, and we will assume that the depth of the beams B will be 12 in; then the length of C, measured from the center line of the beam, will be 30 in. The length of B is 15 ft, and by computation, or by scaling, we find the length of T to be 15 ft 2½ in.

Solution. The total load on the girder equals 100 lb multiplied by the span multiplied by the distance of the girders on centers, or, 100 × 30 × 12 = 36 000 lb. From Formula (5),

$$\text{Tension in } T = \frac{36\,000}{2} \times \frac{182\tfrac{1}{2}\text{ in}}{30\text{ in}} = 109\,500\text{ lb}$$

or 54 750 lb on each of the two rods. For such a large stress it is best to upset the ends of the rods, and allowing 16 000 lb per sq in for steel rods, we find from Table II, Chapter XI, that we must use two 2⅛-in steel rods.

The strut-beam we will make of long-leaf yellow pine. From Formula (7) we find the compressive stress in $B = (36\,000/2) \times (180/30) = 108\,000$ lb. As we are to use three beams side by side, there will be 36 000 lb compression in each beam.

To resist the compression there is required an area of 36 000/1 000 or 36 sq in, which is equal to 3 by 12 in.

From Formula (24) we find the total breadth required to resist the transverse stress $= \dfrac{36\,000 \times 15}{4 \times 144 \times 67} = 14$ in; or each beam must be 4⅔ by 12 in in section to resist the transverse stress, and 3 by 12 in to resist the compressive stress. Consequently each beam must be 7⅔ by 12 in in cross-section.

As this would make the girder very wide, 27¼ in, we will use beams 14 in deep, increasing the depth of the girder 1 in, so that the height on centers will still be 30 in.

The area required to resist the compressive stress will be the same as before, 36 in, but as the beam is 14 in deep the breadth will be only 2.57 in.

The total breadth to resist the transverse stress will be $\dfrac{36\,000 \times 15}{4 \times 196 \times 67} = 10.28$ in, or 3.43 in for each beam. The total breadth for each beam will therefore be 6 in. A beam with a cross-section of 6 by 14 in will meet the requirements. The total width of the girder will then be 22¼ in. The load on $C = \tfrac{5}{8}\,W =$ 22 500 lb, or 11 250 lb over each rod. The theoretical sectional area in square inches necessary to resist this load = 11 250/13 000 for cast iron and 11 250/1 000 for oak. As the struts must be the full width of the girder, however, it will be necessary to make the sectional area much greater than the theoretical requirements. If made of cast iron the strut should be of the shape shown in Fig. 10, and if of oak, of the shape shown in Fig. 11. The cast-iron strut will be the best, but an oak strut will answer.

Example 2. It is required to support a floor over a lecture-room 40 ft wide, by means of trussed girders; and as the room above is to be used for electrical purposes, it is desired to have a truss with very little iron in it. It is decided, therefore, to use a truss such as is shown in Fig. 9.

Solution. Where the girders rest on the wall, there will be brick pilasters having a projection of 6 in, which will make the span of the truss 39 ft, and the rods *RR* will be placed so as to divide the tie-beam into three equal spans of 13 ft each. The tie-beam *B* will consist of two long-leaf yellow pine beams, with the struts *S* coming between them. There are two rods, instead of one, at *RR*, coming down on each side of the struts *S*, and passing through iron castings below the beams *B*, and forming supports for them. The height of the truss from center to center of timbers must be limited to 18 in. The trusses are 8 ft on centers.

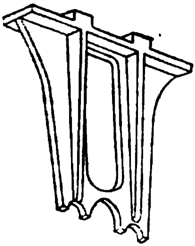

Fig. 10. Cast-iron Strut for Two Tie-rods

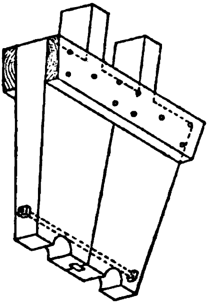

Fig. 11. Wooden Strut for Two Tie-rods

The total floor-area supported by one girder is 8 by 39 ft, or 312 sq ft. The heaviest load to which the floor will be subjected is the weight of the people in the room, for which 75 lb per sq ft is an ample allowance; and the weight of the floor itself is about 100 lb per sq ft. This makes the total weight liable to come on one girder 31 200 lb.

$$\text{Compression in } S\text{, from Formula (18)} = \frac{W}{3} \times \frac{157\text{ in}}{18\text{ in}} = 90\ 700\text{ lb}$$

$$\text{Tension in one pair of rods} = \frac{W}{3} = 10\ 400\text{ lb}$$

$$\text{Tension in } B \text{ or compression in } D = \frac{W}{3} \times \frac{156\text{ in}}{18\text{ in}} = 90\ 130\text{ lb}$$

As the unsupported length of *D* is greater than that of *S*, a beam that will resist the compression in *D* will be ample for *S*. We find from Table II, Chapter XIV, that it will require a post 10 by 12 in in cross-section to resist the compression in *D*, which is 13 ft in length. The tension in each rod is only 5 200 lb; but as the rods must support a larger washer at the bottom, they are made 1 in in diameter, not upset. The tension in each of the beams *B* is 45 065 lb. This divided by 1 200, the safe unit tensional stress for long-leaf yellow pine = 37.6 sq in, or about 2¾ by 14 in.

The total breadth of the tie-beam to resist the transverse load is found from Formula (25). Assuming 14 in for the depth of *B*

$$\text{Breadth of } B = \frac{31\ 200 \times 13}{6 \times 196 \times 67} = 5.15\text{ in, or about } 2\tfrac{1}{2}\text{ in for each beam}$$

The breadth of each tie-beam must therefore be 2¾ in + 2½ in = 5¼ in. Hence the tie-beams must be 5 by 14 in in section. The girder, therefore, must be built with 10 by 14-in strut-beams and two 5 by 14-in tie-beams, each 42 ft long. The 1-in rods may be cut ½ in into the strut-beams, and ½ in into the tie-beams, so that the latter will come close against the struts *S*. The thrust of the strut *S* is equal to its compressive stress, and a connection between the tie-beams and the struts must be designed that will resist this thrust, which in this case is 90 700 lb. As the inclination of the strut is very slight, there is ample room for bolts. It is best to use bolts which are at least 1½ in in diameter. As they are in double shear, the resistance to shearing of one bolt is 35 340 lb. (See Table IX, page 431.) Steel bolts are used.

The bearing area of a 1½-in bolt in a timber 10 in wide is 15 in. For the bearing resistance of long-leaf yellow pine, we may allow 1 400 lb per sq in (Table XVI, page 647), which will give 21 000 lb as the bearing resistance of one 1½-in steel bolt. As the force to be resisted is 90 700 lb, it will require five 1½-in steel bolts to sustain this bearing pressure, the resistance to shearing being greater than this stress.

The number of bolts required to resist the bending moment must now be determined. The total bending moment to be resisted (see page 434, Chapter XII) = 90 700 times the distance, in inches, between the centers of the tie-beams divided by 12, or $90\,700 \times {}^{15}\!/_{12} = 113\,375$ in-lb.

From Table IX, page 431, we find that the maximum bending moment, at a fiber-stress of 20 000 lb per sq in, for a 1½-in steel bolt is 6 630 in-lb. Hence it will require seventeen 1½-in bolts to resist the thrust in *S* without bending the bolts. As it is impracticable to put in so many bolts, larger ones must be used. For a 2½-in steel bolt, the maximum bending moment is 30 700 in-lb (Table IX, page 431), and four times this is 122 800 in-lb; hence four 2½-in steel bolts will be sufficient to resist the bending stress, and also the shearing and bearing-stresses. It will be seen from this example that it is much more difficult and expensive to make satisfactory end-joints for girders trussed as in Figs. 7 and 9 than it is for the single and double-strut trusses like those shown in Figs. 6 and 8. The latter forms are to be preferred when the conditions will admit of their use.

These four cases of TRUSSED GIRDERS are but special examples of trusses. The stresses in them may also be determined by the methods explained in Chapter XXVII; and where the divisions of the girder cannot be made uniform, the stresses should be computed by the general methods there explained.

CHAPTER XVIII

STIFFNESS AND DEFLECTION OF BEAMS

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1. General Principles of the Deflection of Beams*

Strength and Stiffness. In many structures it is necessary that beams and girders shall be not only STRONG enough but STIFF enough; that is, not only must RUPTURE be prevented, but the beams must not BEND so much as to appear unsightly, or to crack the ceiling. Therefore, in many cases, DEFLECTION, rather than absolute STRENGTH, may become the governing consideration in determining the size of a beam. Unfortunately, there is no method at present of combining the two calculations for STRENGTH and for STIFFNESS in one. A beam properly proportioned for STRENGTH will not bend enough to stress the fibers beyond the ELASTIC LIMIT, but it may in some cases bend more than a due regard for appearances will justify. The distance that a beam bends under a given load is called its DEFLECTION, and its resistance to deflection is called its STIFFNESS.

A General Formula for the Maximum Deflection of any beam under a concentrated or uniformly distributed load not stressed beyond the ELASTIC LIMIT is:

$$\text{Deflection in inches} = \frac{\text{load in pounds} \times \text{cube of span in inches} \times c}{\text{modulus of elasticity} \times \text{moment of inertia}} \qquad (1)$$

The values of c are as follows:

For beam supported at both ends, loaded at the middle......	0.021
For beam supported at both ends, uniformly loaded.........	0.013
For cantilever beam, loaded at free end.....................	0.333
For cantilever beam, uniformly loaded......................	0.125

Deflection of Beam with Rectangular Section. By making the proper substitutions in Formula (1), the following formula for a RECTANGULAR beam SUPPORTED AT BOTH ENDS and LOADED AT THE MIDDLE may be derived:

$$\text{Deflection in inches} = \frac{\text{load in pounds} \times \text{cube of span in feet} \times 1\,728}{4 \times \text{breadth} \times \text{cube of depth} \times E} \qquad (2)$$

Modulus of Elasticity. From this formula the value of the MODULUS OF ELASTICITY, E, for different materials, has been calculated by accurately measuring the actual deflection of known beams under given loads applied at the middle and then substituting these known quantities in Formula (2).

Simple Formula for Deflection. Formula (2) may be simplified somewhat by representing $1\,728/4E$ by $1/F$, which gives the formula

$$\text{Deflection in inches} = \frac{W \times l^3}{b \times d^3 \times F\dagger} \qquad (3)$$

For a DISTRIBUTED LOAD the deflection will be five-eighths of this.

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* See, also, in Chapter XVI, formula on page 636 and Table XVI, page 647.

† The constant F corresponds to Hatfield's F, in his treatise on "Transverse Strains."

To Find the Load at the Middle that will cause a GIVEN DEFLECTION, transpose Formula (2) so that the load becomes the left-hand member of the equation. Thus:

$$\text{Load at middle in pounds} = \frac{4 \times \text{breadth} \times \text{cube of depth} \times \text{deflection in in} \times E}{\text{cube of span} \times 1\,728} \qquad (4)$$

Limit of Deflection. In order that this formula may be of use in determining the maximum load which may be placed upon a beam, the LIMIT OF THE DEFLECTION must in some way be fixed. This is generally done by making it a certain proportion of the span.

Allowable Deflection of Floor-Beams. Tredgold and other authorities state that if a floor-beam deflects more than ONE-FORTIETH OF AN INCH FOR EVERY FOOT OF SPAN, it is liable to crack the ceiling on the under side; and hence this is the limit which is often set for the deflection of beams in first-class buildings.

Formulas for Deflection of Floor-Beams. If the length in feet divided by 40 is substituted for the deflection in inches, Formula (4) becomes

$$\text{Load at the middle} = \frac{\text{breadth} \times \text{cube of depth} \times e}{\text{square of span in feet}} \qquad (5)$$

in which

$$e = \frac{E}{17\,280}$$

Most engineers and architects, however, think that ONE-THIRTIETH OF AN INCH PER FOOT OF SPAN, that is, $\frac{1}{360}$ of the span, is not too much to allow for the deflection of floor-beams, as a floor is seldom subjected to its full estimated load, and then only for a short time.

Table I. Values of Constants for Stiffness or Deflection on Beams*

Material	E	$F = \frac{E}{432}$	$e = \frac{E}{17\,280}$	$e_1 = \frac{E}{12\,960}$
Cast iron	15 000 000	34 722	862	1 157
Wrought iron	26 000 000	60 000	1 500	2 000
Steel	29 000 000	67 130	1 678	2 238
Ash	1 482 000	3 430	87	114
California redwood	700 000	1 620	40	54
Cedar	700 000	1 620	40	54
Chestnut	900 000	2 080	52	69
Cypress	900 000	2 080	52	69
Douglas fir	1 500 000	3 472	87	116
Hemlock	900 000	2 080	52	69
Long-leaf yellow pine	1 500 000	3 472	87	116
Maple	1 902 000	4 400	110	146
Norway pine	1 100 000	2 546	64	85
Short-leaf yellow pine	1 200 000	2 777	69	92
Spruce	1 200 000	2 777	69	92
White oak	1 500 000	3 472	87	116
White pine	1 000 000	2 315	58	77

E = modulus of elasticity, pounds per square inch;
F = constant for deflection of beam, supported at both ends, and loaded at the middle;
e = constant, allowing a deflection of one-fortieth of an inch per foot of span;
e_1 = constant, allowing a deflection of one-thirtieth of an inch per foot of span.

* See, also, in Chapter XVI, formula on page 636 and Table XVI, page 647.

If this ratio is adopted, the CONSTANT FOR DEFLECTION becomes

$$e_1 = \frac{E}{12\,960}$$

Constants for Stiffness or Deflection of Beams. In either of the above cases it is evident that the values used for E, F, e, or e_1, should be derived from tests on timbers of the same size and quality as those to be used. The values for the various woods given in the following table have been adopted by the editors after careful comparison with the results of numerous tests on large timbers and with values given by different authorities. The editors believe that they are perfectly reliable for first-class merchantable timber.

2. Formulas for Loads, Based Upon the Stiffness of Beams

Safe Loads for Limited Deflections for Rectangular Beams. Knowing the deflection caused by a load concentrated at the middle of a beam, and the RATIO OF OTHER DEFLECTIONS, caused by different modes of loading and supporting, formulas for Cases I to VIII, Figs. 1 to 8, considered under the strength of RECTANGULAR BEAMS (Chapter XVI), can be easily deduced. These cases, arranged in a different order, are:

For Beams Supported at Both Ends*

Load at the middle

$$\text{Safe load} = \frac{\text{breadth} \times \text{cube of depth} \times e_1}{\text{square of span}} \tag{6}$$

or,

$$\text{Breadth} = \frac{\text{load} \times \text{square of span}}{\text{cube of depth} \times e_1} \tag{7}$$

Load at a point other than at the middle, m and n being the segments into which the beam is divided

$$\text{Safe load} = \frac{\text{breadth} \times \text{cube of depth} \times \text{square of span} \times e_1}{16 \times m^2 \times n^2} \tag{8}$$

or,

$$\text{Breadth} = \frac{\text{load} \times m^2 \times n^2 \times 16}{\text{cube of depth} \times \text{square of span} \times e_1} \tag{9}$$

Load uniformly distributed

$$\text{Safe load} = \frac{8 \times \text{breadth} \times \text{cube of depth} \times e_1}{5 \times \text{square of span}} \tag{10}\dagger$$

or,

$$\text{Breadth} = \frac{5 \times \text{load} \times \text{square of span}}{8 \times \text{cube of depth} \times e_1} \tag{11}$$

Inclined beam, loaded at the middle‡

$$\text{Safe load} = \frac{\text{breadth} \times \text{cube of depth} \times e_1}{\text{span} \times \text{horizontal distance between supports}} \tag{12}$$

or,

$$\text{Breadth} = \frac{\text{load} \times \text{span} \times \text{horizontal distance between supports}}{\text{cube of depth} \times e_1} \tag{13}$$

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* In Formulas (6) to (17) the breadth and depth are to be taken in inches, and the length or span in feet. The load is always in pounds.

The values given in either of the last two columns of Table I may be used for e or e_1, according to the degree of stiffness desired, but the values e_1 in the last column are ample under ordinary conditions.

† See, also, formula in Chapter XVI, page 636.

‡ Tredgold's Elements of Carpentry, page 65.

For Beams Fixed at One End, or Cantilever Beams

Load at the free end

$$\text{Safe load} = \frac{\text{breadth} \times \text{cube of depth} \times e_1}{16 \times \text{square of span}} \qquad (14)$$

or,

$$\text{Breadth} = \frac{16 \times \text{load} \times \text{square of span}}{\text{cube of depth} \times e_1} \qquad (15)$$

Load uniformly distributed

$$\text{Safe load} = \frac{\text{breadth} \times \text{cube of depth} \times e_1}{6 \times \text{square of span}} \qquad (16)$$

or,

$$\text{Breadth} = \frac{6 \times \text{load} \times \text{square of span}}{\text{cube of depth} \times e_1} \qquad (17)$$

Note. When the span in feet is less than the depth in inches, the beams should not be calculated by the formulas for STIFFNESS, but by those for HORIZONTAL SHEAR. (See Chapter XVI, page 635.)

3. Relative Stiffness of Beams

Beam supported at both ends and loaded at the middle.........	1
Beam supported at both ends and uniformly loaded..............	8/5
Beam fixed or restrained at both ends and loaded at the middle...	4
Beam fixed or restrained at both ends and uniformly loaded.....	8
Cantilever beam loaded at the free end........................	1/16
Cantilever beam uniformly loaded..............................	1/6

The Stiffest Rectangular Beam containing a given amount of material is that in which the ratio of depth to breadth is as 10 is to 6; hence, in designing beams, the depth and breadth should be made to approach as near this ratio as is practicable.

Example 1. What is the greatest distributed load that an 8 by 10 in white-pine girder, 20 ft in span, will support, without deflecting at the center more than one-thirtieth of an inch per foot of span?

Solution. This girder comes under the case of a beam supported at both ends and loaded with a uniformly distributed load, and hence should be calculated by Formula (10). Substituting the given dimensions in Formula (10),

$$\text{Safe load} = \frac{8 \times 8 \times 1\,000 \times 77}{5 \times 400} = 2\,464 \text{ lb}$$

Example 2. What should be the dimensions of a long-leaf yellow-pine beam, 10 ft in span, to support a concentrated load of 4 250 lb at the middle without deflecting more than one-third of an inch at the center?

Solution. A deflection of one-third of an inch in a span of 10 ft is in the proportion of one-thirtieth of an inch per foot of span; and as the load is concentrated at the middle, Formula (7) should be used, with e_1, the value given in the fourth column opposite long-leaf yellow pine.

Formula (7) gives the dimensions of the breadth, but in order to obtain it, a value for the depth must first be assumed. For such a short span, 10 inches would seem to be a proper depth.

Substituting in Formula (7)

$$\text{Breadth} = \frac{4\,250 \times 100}{1\,000 \times 116} = 3.6 \text{ in}$$

Hence it will be necessary to use a 4 by 10-in beam. As the span of this beam in feet is the same as its depth in inches, it should be tested to see if it meets the requirements for strength also. From Table XII, page 643, it is found that the safe distributed load for a 1 by 10-in beam, 10 ft in span, is 1 333 lb, and for a 4 by 10-in beam the safe load would be four times as much, or 5 332 lb. The load in this example, however, is applied at the middle; hence the safe distributed load must be divided by 2, which gives 2 666 lb for the safe load at the middle. As this is much less than the load to be carried, the size of the beam should be increased to 4 by 16 in. In general it is not safe to use the formulas for stiffness when the span in feet does not exceed the depth in inches.

Example 3. What is the largest load that an inclined spruce beam 8 by 12 in in cross-section and 16 ft in length between the supports will carry at the middle, consistent with stiffness, the horizontal distance between the supports being 14 ft?

Solution. Formula (12) is the one to be used in this case. Assuming the limit of deflection at one-thirtieth of an inch per foot of span, the value of e_1 is found opposite spruce in the last column of Table I. Making the proper substitutions,

$$\text{Safe load} = \frac{8 \times 1\,728 \times 92}{16 \times 14} = 5\,678 \text{ lb}$$

4. Cylindrical Beams

Formulas. The formulas for beams with square cross-sections may be used for beams with circular cross-sections, if $1.7 \times e$ is substituted for e. That is, other conditions being equal, a cylindrical beam bends or deflects 1.7 times as much as a beam the cross-section of which is the square circumscribing the circular cross-section of the cylindrical beam.

5. Safe Loads for Wooden Beams for a Given Deflection

Use of Tables and Formulas. Tables VII to XV, inclusive, pages 638 to 646, giving the safe loads for beams, give, also, the maximum loads for beams, 1 in thick, that will cause a deflection not exceeding $1/360$ of the span, that is, $1/30$ in per foot of span. Where two loads are given for any span or depth the upper load is calculated for strength and the lower load for deflection. Where one load is given the calculation is for strength, as the calculation for deflection in those particular beams would give an excessive load (Example 2). To find the corresponding load for any thickness, multiply the load given in the table by the breadth of the beam in inches. Suppose, for example, that it is required to find the greatest distributed load that an 8 by 10-in white-pine girder, 20 ft in span, will support, without deflecting at the center more than one-thirtieth of an inch per foot of span. Referring to Table VIII, page 639, giving the safe loads in pounds for white-pine beams, two values are found opposite the 20-ft span, 389 and 308, the latter being the safe load for deflection. The safe load, therefore, for an 8 by 10-in girder will be eight times, or $308 \times 8 = 2\,464$ lb, which agrees with the safe load for the same girder calculated for deflection by Formula 10, Example 1.

6. Nominal and Standard Sizes of Wooden Beams

Conversion Factors for Wooden Beams of Standard Size. Table II may be used for beams that measure less than the nominal dimensions. Dressed beams, and in many localities floor-joists carried in stock, are more or less SCANT of the nominal dimensions, and for such joists a reduction in th safe load must be made to correspond to the reduction in size. The DRESSE SIZES are generally ¼ in scant up to 4 in in breadth, above which they are ½ i scant; while in depth they are all generally ½ in less than the NOMINAL SIZES The safe loads may be obtained by multiplying the safe loads as given i Tables VII to XV, pages 638 to 646, by the FACTORS given in the followin table:

Table II. Conversion Factors for Beams of Commercial or Standard Sizes

Cross-sections of beams in inches	Factors	Cross-sections of beams in inches	Factors
1¾×5½	1.47	1¾×11½	1.61
2¾×5½	2.31	2¾×11½	2.53
1¾×6½	1.51	1¾×13½	1.63
2¾×6½	2.51	2¾×13½	2.56
1¾×7½	1.54	1¾×15½	1.65
2¾×7½	2.42	2¾×15½	2.58
1¾×9½	1.58	1¾×17½	1.65
2¾×9½	2.48	2¾×17½	2.60

Example 4. What is the safe load for a 2¾ by 13½-in spruce beam, 18-ft span?

Solution. From Table VIII, page 639, the safe load for a 1 by 14-in beam is 847 lb. Multiplying this by 2.56 the product is 2 168 lb, the safe distributed load for a beam 2¾ by 13½ in in cross-section. For a full, "nominal" size. 3 by 14-in, the safe load would be 2 541 lb.

7. Deflection of Steel Beams

General Formula. The DEFLECTION of any steel beam may be found by means of Formula (1), page 663.

Example 5. It is required to determine the deflection of a 12-in 31.5-lb beam, 20 ft in span, under its maximum uniformly distributed load of 9.59 tons.

Solution. The load in pounds = 9.59 tons × 2 000 = 19 180 lb; the span in inches = 20 ft × 12 = 240 in; *c*, for a beam supported at both ends and uniformly loaded, from the values given under Formula (1), is 0.013; *E*, for steel is 29 000 000 lb per sq in (Table I, page 664); and the moment of inertia, from the properties of steel I beams, page 355, is 215.8. Substituting these values in Formula (1), page 663,

$$\text{Deflection in inches} = \frac{19\,180 \times 240^3 \times 0.013}{29\,000\,000 \times 215.8} = 0.551 \text{ in}$$

The allowable deflection is $\frac{1}{30}$ of an inch per foot of span, or $\frac{20}{30} = 0.666$ in.

Coefficients of Deflection. In order to save the time required to use the DEFLECTION-FORMULA, COEFFICIENTS OF DEFLECTION have been worked out for different spans and are given in Table III.

Table III. Coefficients of Deflection for Uniformly Distributed Loads*

Span in feet	Fiber-stress, pounds per square inch			Span in feet	Fiber-stress, pounds per square inch		
	16 000	14 000	12 500		16 000	14 000	12 500
1	0.017	0.014	0.013	26	11.189	9.790	8.741
2	0.066	0.058	0.052	27	12.066	10.558	9.427
3	0.149	0.130	0.116	28	12.977	11.354	10.138
4	0.265	0.232	0.207	29	13.920	12.180	10.875
5	0.414	0.362	0.323	30	14.897	13.034	11.638
6	0.596	0.521	0.466	31	15.906	13.918	12.427
7	0.811	0.710	0.634	32	16.949	14.830	13.241
8	1.059	0.927	0.828	33	18.025	15.772	14.082
9	1.341	1.173	1.047	34	19.134	16.742	14.948
10	1.655	1.448	1.293	35	20.276	17.741	15.841
11	2.003	1.752	1.565	36	21.451	18.770	16.759
12	2.383	2.086	1.862	37	22.659	19.827	17.703
13	2.797	2.448	2.185	38	23.901	20.913	18.672
14	3.244	2.839	2.534	39	25.175	22.028	19.668
15	3.724	3.259	2.909	40	26.483	23.172	20.690
16	4.237	3.708	3.310	41	27.823	24.346	21.737
17	4.783	4.186	3.737	42	29.197	25.548	22.810
18	5.363	4.692	4.190	43	30.604	26.779	23.909
19	5.975	5.228	4.668	44	31.954	28.039	25.034
20	6.621	5.793	5.172	45	33.517	29.328	26.185
21	7.299	6.387	5.703	46	35.023	30.646	27.362
22	8.011	7.010	6.259	47	36.562	31.992	28.565
23	8.756	7.661	6.841	48	38.135	33.368	29.793
24	9.534	8.342	7.448	49	39.741	34.773	31.047
25	10.345	9.052	8.082	50	41.379	36.207	32.328

* Taken by permission from Pocket Companion, 1915, Carnegie Steel Company.

To find the deflection in inches of a section SYMMETRICAL ABOUT THE NEUTRAL AXIS, such as the section of an I beam, channel, zee, etc., divide the coefficient in the table corresponding to the given span and fiber-stress by the depth of the section in inches. To find the deflection in inches of a section NOT SYMMETRICAL ABOUT THE NEUTRAL AXIS, such as the section of an angle, tee, etc., divide the coefficient corresponding to the given span and fiber-stress by twice the distance of the extreme fiber from the neutral axis, obtained from the tables of Chapter X. To find the deflection in inches of a section FOR ANY OTHER FIBER-STRESS than the fiber-stresses given, multiply this fiber-stress by any of the coefficients in Table III, for the given span, and divide by the fiber-stress corresponding to the coefficient used.

Example 6. Required the deflection of a 10-in 25-lb beam of 10-ft span, under its maximum distributed load of 13 tons, the fiber-stress being taken at 16 000 lb per sq in. Table III gives 1.655 as the deflection-coefficient, and dividing this by 10, the depth of the beam in inches, the result is $1.655/10 = 0.1655$, for the deflection at the middle. By Formula (1), page 663, the deflection for the same beam, span, and load $= \dfrac{26\,000 \times 1\,728\,000 \times 0.013}{29\,000\,000 \times 122.1} = 0.1649$ in, the two results being nearly identical. For the same beam, a span of 18 ft and a load of 7.2 tons, the deflection by the table is 0.5363 in; and by Formula (1), 0.5328 in, practically the same result.

Safe Loads and Deflection. In the tables of Chapter XV, giving the safe loads for I beams, channels and rolled beams of other cross-sections, the loads given are for the SAFE LIMIT OF DEFLECTION; and the safe loads, also, are given which will cause deflections of more than 1/360 of the span-length in inches.

Lateral Deflection of Beams.* When the unbraced length exceeds ten times the width, the tabular safe loads should be reduced in accordance with the ratios given in the following table in order to insure that the stresses in the compression-flanges should not exceed the allowed safe unit stress:

Length of span	Allowable safe load	Length of span	Allowable safe load
5 × flange-width	Full tabular load	25 × flange-width	71.9% tabular load
10 × flange-width	Full tabular load	30 × flange-width	62.5% tabular load
15 × flange-width	90.6% tabular load	35 × flange-width	53.1% tabular load
20 × flange-width	81.2% tabular load	40 × flange-width	43.8% tabular load

"In addition to this lateral deflection which is induced within the beam by the action of pure bending-stresses, lateral deflection may be induced by the thrust of floor-arches or other loading acting on an axis perpendicular to the line of principal bending-stress. The thrust of these arches should either be neutralized by tie-rods, or the safe carrying capacity of the beam should be computed in accordance with the general formulas of flexure to provide for the combined stresses due to the action of both vertical and horizontal forces; that is to say, the safe loads should be figured around both the axes 1-1 and 2-2, and the unit stress computed so as not to exceed 16 000 lb per sq in."

* Adapted by permission from Carnegie's Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition.

CHAPTER XIX

STRENGTH AND STIFFNESS OF CONTINUOUS GIRDERS

BY

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1. General Considerations

Continuous Versus Single-Span Girders. A CONTINUOUS GIRDER is one resting upon three or more supports, as distinguished from a SIMPLE GIRDER which rests upon two supports. Continuous girders, except in reinforced-concrete construction, and in some types of grillage-foundations, are of rare occurrence in building-construction. While in almost every building of importance it is necessary to employ girders resting upon piers or columns, placed from 15 to 20 ft apart, and while in many cases steel girders could conveniently be obtained which would span two and even three of the bays between the supports, they are practically limited to one-story buildings, because in tall buildings it is better construction to have the vertical rather than the horizontal supports continuous. Many different opinions are held as to the RELATIVE STRENGTH and STIFFNESS of continuous and non-continuous girders, and different formulas have been proposed from time to time; but in this chapter the mathematical discussions will not be given.*

Continuous Girders and Overhanging Girders. In all CONTINUOUS GIRDERS, the end-spans (Fig. 2) are somewhat in the condition of a SIMPLE GIRDER with ONE OVERHANGING END, while the other spans are somewhat in the condition of a SIMPLE GIRDER with TWO OVERHANGING ENDS. At each intermediate support there is a NEGATIVE BENDING MOMENT, the effect of which is to reduce the bending moments between the supports.

2. Supporting Forces or Reactions of Continuous Girders

Continuous Girder of Two Equal Spans. Concentrated Load at the Middle of Each Span. If a girder of two spans, each equal to l (Fig. 1), be loaded at the middle of the left span with P lb, and at the middle of the right span with P_1 lb, the reaction at the support R_1 is determined by the formula

$$R_1 = \frac{13\,P - 3\,P_1}{32} \tag{1}$$

the reaction at the support R_2 by

$$R_2 = {}^{11}\!/_{16}\,(P + P_1) \tag{2}$$

and the reaction at the support R_3 by the formula

$$R_3 = \frac{13\,P_1 - 3\,P}{32} \tag{3}$$

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* For the derivation of the following formulas, see an article by F. E. Kidder on this subject, in Van Nostrand's Engineering Magazine, July, 1881.

If $P = P_1$, then each of the end-supports must support $\frac{5}{16}P$ and the middle support $\frac{22}{16}P$. If the girder is cut so as to make two girders of one span each, then the end-supports will carry $\frac{1}{2}P$ or $\frac{8}{16}P$, and the middle support $\frac{16}{16}P$. Hence, it is seen that by using the continuous girder of three spans, the reactions of the end-supports are diminished, while the reaction at the middle support is increased.

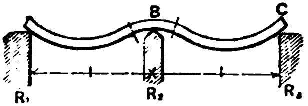

Fig. 1. Continuous Girder of Two Spans

Continuous Girder of Two Spans. Uniformly Distributed Load Over Each Span (Fig. 1). Load over each span equals w lb per unit of length. Let l be the length of the left span and l_1 the length of the right span. Reaction of left support

$$R_1 = \frac{w}{2}\left[l - \frac{l_1^3 + l^3}{4\,l\,(l + l_1)}\right] \tag{4}$$

Reaction of middle support,

$$R_2 = w\,(l + l_1) - R_1 - R_3 \tag{5}$$

Reaction of right support

$$R_3 = \frac{w}{2}\left[l_1 - \frac{l_1^3 + l^3}{4\,l_1\,(l + l_1)}\right] \tag{6}$$

When both spans are equal to l, the reaction of each end-support is $\frac{3}{8}wl$, and of the middle support $\frac{5}{4}wl$; hence the girder, by being continuous, reduces the reactions of the end-supports, and increases that of the middle support $\frac{1}{4}$, or 25%.

Continuous Girder of Three Equal Spans. Concentrated Load of *P* Pounds at the Middle of Each Span (Fig. 2).

Reaction of either abutment

$$R_1 = R_4 = \tfrac{7}{20}P \tag{7}$$

Reaction of either middle support

$$R_2 = R_3 = \tfrac{23}{20}P \tag{8}$$

or the reactions of the two end-supports are $\frac{3}{10}$ less, and those of the two middle supports $\frac{3}{20}$ greater than they would have been had three separate girders of the same cross-section been used, instead of one continuous girder.

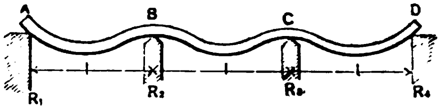

Fig. 2. Continuous Girder of Three Spans

Continuous Girder of Three Equal Spans. Uniformly Distributed Load Over Each Span (Fig. 2). The load per unit of length is w lb.

Reaction of either end-support

$$R_1 = R_4 = \tfrac{2}{5}wl \tag{9}$$

Reaction of either middle support

$$R_2 = R_3 = \tfrac{11}{10}wl \tag{10}$$

Hence the reactions of the end-supports are $\frac{1}{5}$ less, and of the middle supports $\frac{1}{10}$ more, than if the girder were not continuous.

3. Bending Moments of Continuous Girders

Strength of Continuous Girders. The STRENGTH of a girder depends upon its material and the shape of its cross-section, and also upon the disposition of the external loads imposed upon it. The latter give rise to the BENDING MOMENTS, which are measures of the tendencies of the external forces, such as the loads and the supporting forces, to bend or to break the girder. It is the difference in the numerical values of these BENDING MOMENTS which causes the difference in the FLEXURAL STRENGTH of continuous and non-continuous girders of the same cross-section.

Continuous Girders of Two Spans. When a beam is at the point of breaking by flexure, the FLEXURE-FORMULA, $M = SI/c$, is frequently used to calculate a NOMINAL UNIT STRESS developed in the beam; and when the beam has a rectangular cross-section the formula takes the form (see page 635)

$$\text{Maximum bending moment} = \frac{\text{Modulus of rupture}^{*} \times \text{breadth} \times \text{square of depth}}{6} \qquad (11)$$

In order that the beam may carry its load with perfect safety, the breaking-load must be divided by a proper FACTOR OF SAFETY. Hence, if the MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT of a beam can be found under any conditions, the required dimensions of the beam can easily be determined from Formula (11). (See Table I, page 557, for the safe values of the FIBER-STRESSES.) The greatest bending moment for a continuous girder of two spans is almost always over the middle support, and is a MINUS BENDING MOMENT, if the plus sign is given to the maximum bending moments between the supports. It is the NUMERICAL VALUE only, however, that is considered.

Continuous Girder of Two Spans. Distributed Load over Each Span. The greatest bending moment in a continuous girder of two spans, l and l_1 (Fig. 1), loaded with a uniformly distributed load of w lb per unit of length is over the middle support and is

$$\text{Maximum bending moment} = \frac{wl^3 + wl_1^3}{8\,(l + l_1)} \qquad (12)$$

When $l = l_1$, or both spans are equal,

$$\text{Maximum bending moment} = wl^2/8 \qquad (12a)$$

which is the same as the maximum bending moment of a beam supported at both ends and uniformly loaded over its whole length. Hence a continuous girder of two spans uniformly loaded is no stronger as far as flexure is concerned than if non-continuous.

Continuous Girder of Two Equal Spans. Concentrated Load at the Middle of Each Span. The greatest bending moment in a continuous girder of two equal spans, each of length l, loaded with P lb at the middle of one span, and with P_1 lb at the middle of the other, is

$$\text{Maximum bending moment} = \tfrac{3}{32}\,l\,(P + P_1) \qquad (13)$$

[*] The modulus of rupture is equal to the ultimate flexural unit stress developed in a beam when the bending moment is great enough to cause failure, and is expressed in pounds per square inch. It usually lies between the ultimate unit compressive strength and the ultimate unit tensile strength of the material. (See, also, Chapter XV, page 556.) It is to be noted, that the flexure-formula $M = SI/c$ is not really applicable to beams of materials for which the stresses are not proportional to the deformation, nor to non-homogeneous beams, nor to beams under stresses greater than the elastic limit of the material.

When $P = P_1$, or the two loads are equal, this becomes

$$\text{Maximum bending moment} = \tfrac{3}{16}\,Pl \tag{13a}$$

or ¼ less than its value when the beam is cut at the middle support.[*]

Continuous Girder of Three Spans. Uniformly Distributed Load Over Each Span. The greatest bending moment in a continuous girder of three spans loaded with a uniformly distributed load of w lb per unit of length, the length of each end-span being l_1 and of the middle span l, is at either of the middle supports, and is determined by the formula

$$\text{Maximum bending moment} = \frac{wl^3 + wl_1^3}{4\,(3\,l + 2\,l_1)} \tag{14}$$

When the three spans are equal, this becomes

$$\text{Maximum bending moment} = wl^2/10 \tag{14a}$$

or ⅕ less than what it would be were the beam not continuous.

Continuous Girder of Three Equal Spans. Concentrated Load of P Pounds at the Middle of Each Span. The greatest bending moment in a continuous girder of three equal spans, each of a length l, and each loaded at the middle with P pounds, is

$$\text{Maximum bending moment} = \tfrac{3}{20}\,Pl \tag{15}$$

or ⅖ less than that of a non-continuous girder.

4. Deflection of Continuous Girders

Continuous Girder of Two Equal Spans. Uniformly Distributed Load Over Each Span. The greatest deflection of a continuous girder of two equal spans loaded with a uniformly distributed load of w lb per unit of length is

$$\text{Maximum deflection} = 0.005416\,wl^4/EI \tag{16}$$

in which E is the MODULUS OF ELASTICITY and I the MOMENT OF INERTIA of the cross-section of the beam. The greatest deflection of a similar beam supported at both ends and uniformly loaded is

$$\text{Maximum deflection} = 0.013020\,wl^4/EI$$

Hence the deflection of the continuous girder is only about ⅖ that of a non-continuous girder. The greatest deflection of a continuous girder of two spans is not at the middle of either span, but between the middle point of a span and one of the abutments. The greatest deflection of a continuous girder of two equal spans, loaded at the middle of one span with a load of P lb, and at the middle of the other with P_1 lb, is, for the span with the load, P

$$\text{Maximum deflection} = \frac{(23\,P - 9\,P_1)\,l^3}{1\,536\,EI} \tag{17}$$

for the span with load P_1

$$\text{Maximum deflection} = \frac{(23\,P_1 - 9\,P)\,l^3}{1\,536\,EI} \tag{17a}$$

When both spans have the same load

$$\text{Maximum deflection} = \tfrac{7}{768}\,Pl^3/EI \tag{17b}$$

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[*] In this continuous beam the maximum bending moment is the minus bending moment over the middle support and in each of the two simple beams the maximum bending moment is a plus bending moment and is between two supports.

The greatest deflection of a simple beam supported at both ends and loaded at the middle with P lb is

$$\text{Maximum deflection} = Pl^3/48\,EI$$

or the deflection of the continuous girder is only 7/16 that of a non-continuous one.

Continuous Girder of Three Equal Spans. Uniformly Distributed Load Over Each Span.

The load per unit of length is w lb.

$$\text{Greatest deflection at the middle of middle span} = 0.00052\,wl^4/EI \qquad (18)$$

$$\text{Greatest deflection in the end-spans} = 0.006884\,wl^4/EI \qquad (19)$$

Hence the maximum deflection of the continuous girder is only about 1/3 that of a non-continuous girder.

Continuous Girder of Three Equal Spans. Concentrated Load P at the Middle of Each Span.

$$\text{Greatest deflection at the middle span} = \tfrac{1}{480}\,Pl^3/EI \qquad (20)$$

$$\text{Greatest deflection at the middle of end-spans} = \tfrac{11}{960}\,Pl^3/EI \qquad (21)$$

Hence the maximum deflection of the continuous girder is only 11/20 of that of the non-continuous girder.

5. Notes on Reactions, Strength and Stiffness of Continuous Girders

Supports and Reactions of Continuous and Non-Continuous Girders. From the foregoing, some conclusions can be drawn which will be of use in deciding whether it is best in any case to use a CONTINUOUS or a NON-CONTINUOUS GIRDER. From the formulas given for the reactions of the supporting forces in the different cases of continuous girders it is seen that the end-supports do not bear as much of the load as they do when the girders are non-continuous. The difference is added to the reactions of the other supports. This might be of advantage in a building in which the girders run across the building, and have their outside ends supported by the side walls and their inside ends by piers or columns. In this case, by using continuous girders, part of the load could be taken from the walls and transferred to the piers or columns. But in cases of this kind, the vibration may have to be considered. If the building is a mill or factory in which the girders support machines, any vibration in the middle span of the girder is carried to the side walls if the girder is continuous; while if non-continuous girders are used, with their ends an inch or so apart, little or no vibration is carried to the side walls from the middle span. In all cases of important construction the supporting forces should be carefully considered.

Relative Strength of Continuous and Non-Continuous Girders. As the RELATIVE STRENGTH of continuous and non-continuous girders of the same cross-section, material and spans, and loaded in the same way, is proportional to their maximum BENDING MOMENTS, the strength of a continuous girder can be calculated, from the formula for its MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT. From the values given for these bending moments for the various cases considered, it is seen that the parts of the girder most stressed are those which come over the middle supports. It is seen, also, that, except in the single case of a girder of two spans uniformly loaded, the strength of a continuous girder is greater than that of a non-continuous girder. But the gain in strength in some instances is not very great, although it is generally enough to pay for making the girder continuous.

Relative Stiffness of Continuous and Non-Continuous Girders. The STIFFNESS of a girder varies inversely as its DEFLECTION; that is, the less the deflection under a given load the stiffer the girder. From the values given for the MAXIMUM DEFLECTION of continuous girders, it is evident that the STIFFNESS of a girder is increased by making it continuous; and this is usually the principal advantage in the use of continuous girders. It sometimes happens in building-construction that it is necessary to use beams and girders of much greater strength than is required to carry the superimposed load, because the deflections of smaller beams or girders would be too great. But if continuous girders are used they may be made of just the size required for strength, because their deflections are less. Where great stiffness is required, therefore, continuous beams or girders should be used if possible, as in the case of grillage-girders. (See Example 3, page 679.)

6. Formulas for the Strength and Stiffness of Continuous Girders

Girders of Rectangular Cross-Section. For convenience, the proper formulas for calculating the strength and stiffness of continuous girders of rectangular cross-section are given. The formulas for strength are deduced from the flexure-formula $M = SI/c$, modified for the rectangular section of breadth b and depth d.

$$\text{Bending moment} = \frac{b \times d^2 \times S}{6} \qquad (22)$$

in which S is the safe unit fiber-stress. This is eighteen times what is generally known as the coefficient of strength.*

STRENGTH. **Continuous Girder of Two Equal Spans. Uniformly Distributed Load Over Each Span.**

$$\text{Breaking-load}\,\dagger = \frac{2 \times b \times d^2 \times A^*}{l} \qquad (23)$$

where b denotes the breadth and d the depth of the girder in inches, and l the length of one span, in feet. The values of the constant A are three times the values given in Table II, page 628. For long-leaf yellow pine, 201; for Douglas fir and chestnut, 132; and for spruce and white pine, 117 lb per sq in, are recommended for the values of A in these formulas.

Continuous Girder of Two Equal Spans. Concentrated Load at the Middle of Each Span.

$$\text{Breaking-load} = \tfrac{4}{3} \times \frac{b \times d^2 \times A}{l} \qquad (24)$$

Continuous Girder of Three Equal Spans. Uniformly Distributed Load Over Each Span.

$$\text{Breaking-load} = \tfrac{5}{2} \times \frac{b \times d^2 \times A}{l} \qquad (25)$$

Continuous Girder of Three Equal Spans. Concentrated Load at the Middle of Each Span.

$$\text{Breaking-load} = \tfrac{5}{3} \times \frac{b \times d^2 \times A}{l} \qquad (26)$$

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* See Table I, page 557, for safe fiber-stresses.

† Breaking-load in pounds in all cases.

Stiffness. Continuous Girder of Two Equal Spans. Uniformly Distributed Load Over Each Span.

The following formulas give the loads which the beams will support without deflecting more than one-thirtieth of an inch per foot of span.

$$\text{Load on one span} = \frac{b \times d^3 \times e_1}{0.26 \times l^2} \tag{27}$$

Continuous Girder of Two Equal Spans. Concentrated Load at the Middle of Each Span.

$$\text{Load on one span} = {}^{16}\!/_{7} \times \frac{b \times d^3 \times e_1}{l^2} \tag{28}$$

Continuous Girder of Three Equal Spans. Uniformly Distributed Load Over Each Span.

$$\text{Load on one span} = \frac{b \times d^3 \times e_1}{0.33 \times l^2} \tag{29}$$

Continuous Girder of Three Equal Spans. Concentrated Load at the Middle of Each Span.

$$\text{Load on one span} = {}^{20}\!/_{11} \times \frac{b \times d^3 \times e_1}{l^2} \tag{30}$$

The value of the constant e_1 is obtained by dividing the MODULUS OF ELASTICITY by 12 960; and, for the three woods most commonly used as beams, the following values may be taken:

Long-leaf yellow pine, 116; white pine, 77; spruce, 92; Douglas fir, 116. (For other woods, see Table I, page 664.)

For Continuous Steel Beams the requisite size may be found by first computing the MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT, by means of Formulas (12) to (15), and then selecting a beam that has a

$$\text{SECTION-MODULUS} = \frac{3 \times \text{maximum bending moment in ft-lb}}{4\,000} \tag{31}$$

Values for the SECTION-MODULI for the different shapes of rolled steel used as beams are given in the tables in Chapter X.

Example 1. What steel beam should be used to support two loads of 16 000 lb each, concentrated at the middle of two spans of 10 ft each, the beam being continuous?

Solution. Formula (13*a*) gives the maximum bending moment as $\frac{3}{16}\,Pl$, or 30 000 ft-lb. Therefore, from Equation (31), a beam having a section-modulus equal to $3 \times 30\,000/4\,000$ or 22.5 should be used. From the Table IV, page 555, it is found that a 9-in 30-lb beam has a section modulus of 22.6, and a 10-in 25-lb beam a section modulus of 24.4. Either of these beams will therefore answer, the 10-in beam being the cheaper, however, and also the stiffer.

Example 2. A steel beam continuous over three spans is required to support a uniformly distributed load of 1 000 lb per lin ft. The two end-spans are 12 ft each, and the middle span 10 ft. What should be the size and the weight of the beam used?

Solution. The maximum bending moment is found by Formula (14), and is

$$\frac{1\,000 \times 1\,000 + 1\,000 \times 1\,728}{4\,(30 + 24)} = 12\,630$$

The section-modulus, by Equation (31), must equal $3 \times 12\,630/4\,000 = 9.47$; which requires a 7-in 15-lb beam (Table IV, page 355).

If the beam were not continuous an 8-in 18-lb beam would be required for the 12-ft spans, and a 7-in 15-lb beam for the 10-ft span.

For a beam of two equal spans, loaded uniformly, the strength is the same as though it were not continuous.

The formulas given for the reactions at the supports, and for the deflections of continuous girders with concentrated loads, were verified by Mr. Kidder by means of careful experiments on small steel bars. The remaining formulas were verified by comparing them with the formulas of other authorities where it was possible to do so. In regard to some of the cases given the author has never seen any discussion of them in any work on the subject.

7. Continuous Girders in Grillage-Foundations

Grillage-Beams Considered as Inverted Continuous Girders. As stated in the beginning of this chapter, CONTINUOUS GIRDERS, as such, are seldom used in building-construction, although their employment in grillage-beam footings is frequent. Fig. 3 represents a footing consisting of two layers of beams, which distribute the load of the three columns above, uniformly over the foundation-bed. By inverting the footing the three columns become the supports or reactions, and the upper layer of beams, a continuous girder, loaded with a uniformly distributed load which is the pressure of the lower layer. As in practice the column-

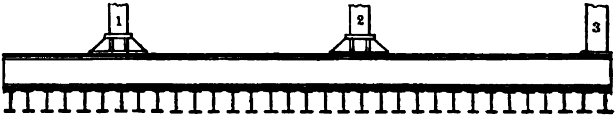

Fig. 3. Continuous Girder in Grillage-foundation

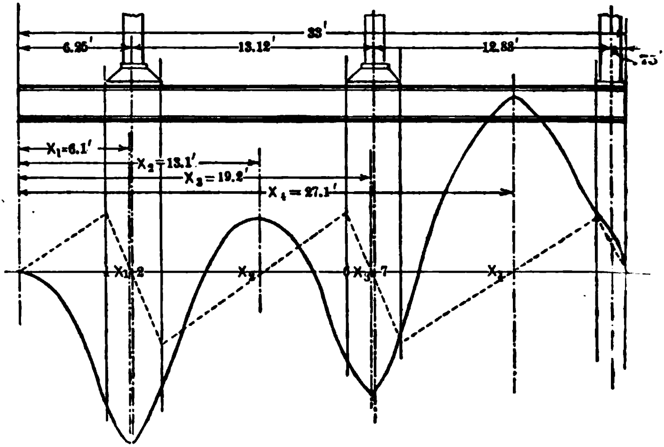

Fig. 4. Shear-diagram and Bending-moment Diagram

loads are never equal, and the distance between the columns seldom equal, it is necessary to project the continuous girder beyond the most heavily loaded column in order to insure a uniform pressure upon the lower layer. Because of these limitations none of the formulas previously deduced can be applied, although the principles upon which they are based hold good.

Maximum Bending Moment. Since the REACTIONS in this case are the given column-loads it is required first to find the MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT. From what has already been said about continuous girders, it is evident that the point of maximum bending moment may be under columns 1 or 2, or between the columns. Since the maximum bending moments are the POINTS OF NO SHEAR, construct the SHEAR-DIAGRAM, find where the shear passes through zero, and calculate the bending moments at these points. The maximum bending moment is determined, as in examples 1 and 2, in order to determine the SECTION-MODULUS of the girder.

Example 3. The continuous girder under columns 1, 2 and 3 (Fig. 3) is 33 ft long; the overhang, to the left of column 1, 6.25 ft; the distance between columns 1 and 2, 13.12 ft; between columns 2 and 3, 12.88 ft; and from column 3 to the right edge of the girder, .75 ft. The column-loads are as follows: on column 1, 565 tons; on column 2, 600 tons; and on column 3, 255 tons.

The column-loads may be considered uniformly distributed over parts of the girder by the bases, which are 3 ft wide under columns 1 and 2 and 18 in wide under column 3. The UNIT PRESSURE under column 1, therefore, is $565/3 = 188.3$ tons; under column 2, $600/3 = 200$ tons; and under column 3, $255/1.5 = 170$ tons. The unit pressure under the continuous girder is

$$(565 + 600 + 255)/33 = 43 \text{ tons}$$

The first step in the calculation of the girder is the determination of the POINTS OF NO SHEAR and the plotting of the SHEAR-DIAGRAM in Fig. 4. It is obvious from the shear-diagram that there are four points of no shear and consequently four points of POSSIBLE MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT. The first of these is under column 1, the second between columns 1 and 2, the third under column 3 and the fourth between columns 2 and 3. The bending-moment diagram is shown by the solid curved line in Fig. 4. The points of contraflexure or no bending moment are the intersections of this line with the horizontal line of reference.

The SHEAR-DIAGRAM,[*] shown by the broken line in Fig. 4, may be constructed as follows:

$$V_1\dagger = +43 \text{ tons per ft} \times (6.25 - 1.5 = 4.75 \text{ ft}) = +204.25 \text{ tons}$$

$$V_2 = (+43 \text{ tons per ft} \times 6.25 \text{ ft}) - 565/2 \text{ tons} = +268.75 - 282.5$$
$$= -13.75 \text{ tons}$$

This shows that x_1, the point of no shear, lies between points 1 and 2. To find this point let y be its distance beyond or to the right of point 1. Then, the EQUATION FOR NO SHEAR is $43 \text{ tons} \times (4.75 \text{ ft} + y \text{ ft}) = 188.3 \times y$, or $204.25 + 43y = 188.3y$, from which $145.3y = 204.25$ and $y = 1.4$ ft: hence x_1, the FIRST POINT OF NO SHEAR, is 4.75 ft + 1.4 ft, or 6.1 ft from the left end.‡

The SECOND POINT OF NO SHEAR, x_2, is such a distance from the left end that the DOWNWARD SHEARING-FORCE of 565 tons from column 1 is neutralized by an equal UPWARD SHEARING-FORCE of 43 tons per ft. on x_2 ft. Hence $x_2 = 565/43 = 13.1$ ft.

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[*] The upward forces are here called plus or positive and the downward forces minus or negative.

† V_1 is taken at point 1, the left edge of base of Column 1, V_2 at point 2, at the axis of Column 2, etc.

‡ The following computations are carried out to one decimal-place, only, the nearest approximate values being used.

$$V_6 = +43 \text{ tons per ft} \times [(6.25 + 13.12 - 1.5) = 17.9 \text{ ft}] - 565 \text{ tons}$$
$$= 769.7 - 565 = +204.7 \text{ tons}$$
$$V_7 = +43 \text{ tons per ft} \times (6.25 + 13.12 = 19.4 \text{ ft}) - (565 + 600/2 \text{ tons})$$
$$= +834.2 - 865 \text{ tons} = -30.8 \text{ tons}$$

This shows that the THIRD POINT OF NO SHEAR, x_3, lies between 6 and 7. Let y be its distance to the right of point 6. The equation for no shear at this point is 43 tons × (17.9 ft + y ft) = 565 tons + (200 tons × y ft), or $769.7 + 43y = 565 + 200y$. from which $157y = 204.7$ and $y = 1.3$ ft. Hence x_3, the THIRD POINT OF NO SHEAR, is 17.9 ft + 1.3 ft = 19.2 ft from the left end.

The FOURTH POINT OF NO SHEAR, x_4, is such distance from the left end that the DOWNWARD SHEARING-FORCE of columns 1 and 2, amounting to 565 + 600 or 1165 tons, is neutralized by an equal UPWARD SHEARING-FORCE of 43 tons per ft on x_4 ft. Hence $x_4 = 1\,165/43 = 27.1$ ft.

Having found the points of no shear, the BENDING MOMENT at these points may now be determined.

$$M \text{ at } x_1 = 43 \text{ tons} \times 6.1 \text{ ft} \times 6.1/2 \text{ ft} - 188.3 \text{ tons} \times 1.4 \text{ ft} \times 1.4/2 \text{ ft}$$
$$= +615.5 \text{ ft-tons}$$
$$M \text{ at } x_2 = 43 \text{ tons} \times 13.1 \text{ ft} \times 13.1/2 \text{ ft} - 565 \text{ tons} \times 6.8 \text{ ft} = -152.4 \text{ ft-tons}$$
$$M \text{ at } x_3 = 43 \text{ tons} \times 19.2 \text{ ft} \times 19.2/2 \text{ ft} - 565 \text{ tons} \times 12.9 \text{ ft} - 200\,T \times 1.3 \text{ ft} \times 1.3/2 = +467 \text{ ft-tons}$$
$$M \text{ at } x_4 = 43 \text{ tons} \times 27.1 \text{ ft} \times 27.1/2 \text{ ft} - 565 \text{ tons} \times 20.8 \text{ ft} - 600 \text{ tons} \times 7.7 \text{ ft} = -582.2 \text{ ft-tons}$$

The MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT therefore is at x_1 and equals 615.5 ft-tons* or 1 231 000 ft-lb. Substituting in Formula (31), the SECTION-MODULUS is found to be $\frac{3 \times 1\,231\,000}{4\,000} = 923.2$. The following beams could be used, as far as flexure is concerned. For investigations of the resistance of the girders to web-buckling or crippling, see Chapter II, pages 182 to 184, and Chapter XV, pages 567 to 569.

Four standard 24-in 110-lb I beams, section-modulus of each, 240.3 (page 354)

Three Bethlehem 30-in 120-lb I beams, section-modulus of each, 349.3 (page 357)

Three Bethlehem 24-in 140-lb girder-beams, section-modulus of each, 350.1 (page 358)

Two Bethlehem 28-in 180-lb girder-beams, section-modulus of each, 518.9 (page 358)

The 28-in and 30-in beams are stiffer than the 24-in beams, have a smaller total amount of steel and cost less than the others for the number of beams required.

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* The bending moments at x_1 and x_4 have very nearly the same numerical values, and in the computations the retaining or dropping of figures in the second decimal-place may change the result and make the value at x_4 slightly greater than at x_1.

CHAPTER XX

RIVETED STEEL PLATE AND BOX GIRDERS

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1. General Notes on Plate and Box Girders

Types of Riveted Girders. Girders built up of plates and angles, as shown in section in Figs. 1 to 4, are extensively used. This is undoubtedly owing to the simplicity of their construction, to the comparatively low cost of the shapes of which they are fabricated and to their adaptability to any arrangement of loads or to any span for which girders are usually required. Riveted girders, however, are seldom made for spans greater than 60 ft and are seldom more than 6 ft in depth. The most common forms of these girders are shown in Figs. 2 and 4.

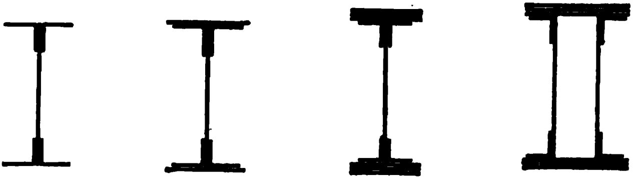

Fig. 1 Fig. 2 Fig. 3 Fig. 4

Types of Riveted Girders

The girders with a single vertical plate called the WEB are usually called PLATE GIRDERS, and those with double or triple webs, BOX GIRDERS. Plate girders are more economical than box girders, and more accessible for painting and inspection; but box girders are stiffer laterally and should always be used where great length of span requires wide flanges. In general, it may be said that plate girders should be used to support floor-beams and floor-arches and walls not over 12 in thick, and that box girders should be used where a flange-width greater than 12 in is required. The girder shown in section in Fig. 1 has no flange-plates and should be used only for comparatively light loads and short spans, and never to support masonry.

Flange and Web. The term FLANGE, as applied to riveted girders, includes all the metal in the top or bottom parts of the girder, exclusive of the web-plates.* The DEPTH of a riveted girder is the distance between the centers of gravity of the flanges; but in practice this is usually taken as the DEPTH OF THE WEB-PLATE, and the word will be so used in this chapter. The top and bottom of the flange-angles extend ¼ in beyond the top and bottom of the web-plate. (See the figure in Table IV, page 706.) STIFFENERS are short pieces of angles riveted to the web at intervals, to keep it from BUCKLING. They should fit closely against the horizontal flanges of the flange-angles, and should always be used at the supports and under concentrated loads.

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* This may be modified, however, as some engineers include one-sixth of the web-area in the effective flange-area. See, also, Flange-Area in the examples of this chapter.

Depth and Width of Girders. The depth of a riveted girder may vary from one-tenth to one-fifteenth or, in exceptional cases, one-sixteenth the span. The greatest economy of material is said to be obtained when the depth is one-twelfth the span. Thus for a 36-ft span a 3-ft girder should be used if the conditions will permit; but the least depth should be 1/15 of 36, or about 2 ft 5 in or, in exceptional cases, 1/16 of 36, or 2 ft 3 in. A girder is said to have its ECONOMIC DEPTH when the amount of material in the flanges is equal to that in the web, and there are no cover-plates. The rule holds approximately when there are cover-plates.

The Width of the Top Flange should not be less than one-twentieth the distance between lateral supports; or if there are no lateral supports, then not less than one-twentieth the span.

Arches Between Girders, or floor-beams riveted to the sides of girders, may be considered as LATERAL SUPPORTS.

2. Details of Construction of Plate and Box Girders*

General Requirements for Plate and Box Girders. The following requirements are those which must be generally satisfied in the design of riveted girders.

(1) All the connections and details of the several parts shall be of such strength that, upon testing, rupture shall occur in the body of the members rather than in any of their details or connections.

(2) In members subject to tensile stress full allowance shall be made for the reduction of the section by the rivet-holes.

(3) The webs of plate girders, when they cannot be obtained in one length, must be spliced at all joints by a plate on each side of the web.

(4) Tees must not be used for splices.

(5) Stiffeners shall be used at the ends of all girders, wherever there are concentrated loads, and elsewhere when the shearing-stress is greater than the resistance to buckling.

(6) The PITCH, that is, the distance between centers of rivets, shall not exceed 6 in, nor 16 times the thickness of the thinnest outside plate, and it shall not be less than 2¼ in for ¾-in rivets, or 2⅝ in for ⅞-in rivets, in a straight line.

(7) The rivets used should be ¾ in in diameter for plates from ⅜ to ⅝-in thick, and ⅞ in in diameter for plates of greater thickness.

(8) The distance between the edge of any piece and the center of a rivet-hole must never be less than 1¼ in.

(9) In PUNCHING plates or other members, the diameter of the die shall in no case exceed the diameter of the punch by more than 1/16 in.

(10) All RIVET-HOLES must be so accurately punched that when the several parts forming one member are assembled, a rivet, 1/16 in less in diameter than the hole, can be inserted, hot, into any hole without REAMING or stressing the metal by the use of drift-pins.

(11) The rivets when driven must completely fill the holes.

(12) The RIVET-HEADS must be hemispherical, except where flush surfaces are required, and of uniform size throughout for rivets of the same size. They must be full and neatly made, and be concentric with the rivet-holes.

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* These requirements are taken largely from Birkmire's "Compound Riveted Girders."

(13) Whenever possible, all rivets must be MACHINE-DRIVEN.

(14) The several pieces forming one built member must fit closely together, and, when riveted, must be free from twists, bends or open joints.

(15) Girders 60 ft and less in length seldom require SPLICING, as the plates and angles can readily be obtained in such lengths. In splicing the top flange, when of two or more thicknesses, no additional COVER-PLATE will be required over the joint, but the ends should be planed true and butt closely. The rivets should be spaced closer near the joint.

(16) The plate covering the bottom flange must be of the same area as the plates joined, and of sufficient length to take a number of rivets equal to the strength of the cover-plate.

3. Design of Plate and Box Girders

The Principal Steps in the Design of Riveted Girders. In designing a riveted girder to sustain with safety a given load, the following steps are necessary:

(1) The determination of the required flange-area.

(2) The determination of the thickness of the web to resist

 (*a*) Shearing,

 (*b*) Buckling. This step also determines whether or not stiffeners are necessary.

(3) The determination of the number and pitch of the rivets.

(4) The approximate weight of the girder.

(5) The determination of the length of the flange-plates when more than one is required for each flange.

(1) **The Flange-Area.** In determining the FLANGE-AREA of riveted girders, it is customary to assume that the bending moments are entirely resisted by the upper and lower flanges, the web being assumed to resist the shear only. Just what should be included in the flange-area is a question on which engineers differ. Some include the flange-plates and angles and one-sixth of the web-area, others the flange-plates and angles only, while others include the flange-plates and only the horizontal legs of the angles, the vertical legs being considered as belonging to the web. In compression-flanges, usually the upper ones, the gross section-area may be taken, provided the rivets are machine-driven and fill completely the holes; but in tension-flanges, usually the lower ones, the net area is taken, that is, the gross area minus the area of the greatest number of rivet-holes in any cross-section, since the stresses of tension are not transmitted through the rivets as are those of compression.

A general FORMULA* FOR DETERMINING THE FLANGE-AREA, which applies to all conditions of loading is

$$\frac{\text{Area of one flange}}{\text{in square inches}} = \frac{\text{maximum bending moment in foot-tons}}{\text{depth of web in feet} \times \text{safe unit fiber-stress in tons}}$$

or

$$A = M_{\max}/dS \qquad (1)$$

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[*] This may be derived from what is sometimes called the PLATE-GIRDER FORMULA, $M_{\max} = SAd$, in which S is the safe unit bending-stress in the flange at the section of maximum bending moment, A is the area of the cross-section of either flange and d is approximately the depth of the girder. Of course the units must be the same in both members of the equation. If the center of moments is taken at the center of gravity of the cross-section of either flange-area and if the area of metal resisting bending is considered to be concentrated in the flanges, the depth of each being very small compared to that of the girder-depth, then SA is the total horizontal stress in either flange, d its lever-arm and SAd the resisting moment of the cross-section, equal to $M_{\max}$. Hence $A = M_{\max}/dS$.

Rules for finding the MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT for different conditions of loading are given in Chapter IX.

S, the SAFE UNIT FIBER-STRESS FOR FLANGE-BENDING, is taken at from 13 000 to 16 000 lb per sq in, the tables in the manufacturers' handbooks giving the safe loads, etc., for riveted girders, varying in regard to this stress.*

If it is required to compute the SAFE UNIFORMLY DISTRIBUTED LOAD for a girder already constructed or designed, the following formula † may be used. The safe load in pounds, uniformly distributed is

$$W = \frac{8 \times \text{net area of bottom flange} \times \text{depth in ft} \times S}{\text{span in feet}}$$

or

$$W = 8\,AdS/l \tag{2}$$

From the result the weight of the girder itself should be subtracted.

For the SAFE CONCENTRATED LOAD AT THE MIDDLE OF THE SPAN take one-half the result obtained by formula (2) and subtract the weight of girder. (See Case IV, page 326.)

(2) **The Thickness of the Web.** The thickness of the web is determined by its resistance to VERTICAL SHEARING. Whether or not stiffeners shall be used is determined by the resistance of the web to BUCKLING.

(a) Shearing. To resist the vertical shear the NET SECTIONAL AREA OF THE WEB in square inches must be

$$A = \frac{\text{the maximum vertical shear}}{S}$$

or

$$A = V_{max}/S \tag{3}$$

V and *S* being both in tons, *S* is taken at 10 000 ‡ lb or 5 tons per sq in. (See Table II, page 703.)

The MAXIMUM VERTICAL SHEAR in any beam or girder is at the greater reaction and is equal to it.

For a girder supported at both ends and uniformly loaded with a load *W*, the MAXIMUM VERTICAL SHEAR is

$$V_{max} = W/2$$

For a girder supported at both ends and loaded at the middle with a load *P*,

$$V_{max} = P/2$$

For a girder supported at both ends and loaded as in Fig. 7,

$$V_{max} = Pm/l = R_1$$

For a girder supported at both ends and loaded with two equal concentrated loads *P*, *P*, equally distant from the middle, as in Fig. 8,

$$V_{max} = P = R_1 = R_2$$

For combinations of loads the maximum vertical shear will equal the greater reaction. The method of determining the REACTIONS at the supports of a beam or girder is given in Chapter IX, Subdivision 1. The VERTICAL SHEARING-

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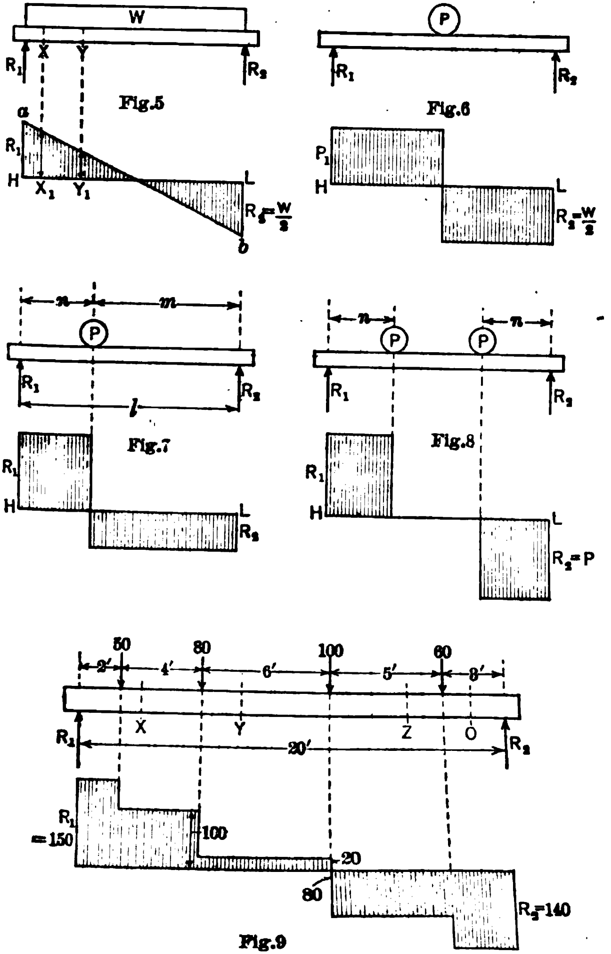
* See Chapter XV, paragraphs relating to riveted single and double-beam girders and foot-note with same, pages 603 and 604.

† From Formula (1) just explained, and from Case V, page 326, $M_{max} = SAd$ and $M_{max} = Wl/8$. Hence $Wl/8 = SAd$ and $W = 8\,AdS/l$.

‡ This is a conservative value. The Carnegie Pocket Companion and the building laws of most cities permit 10 000 lb per sq in for steel.

FORCE at any given vertical section of a beam or girder between the supports is the algebraic sum of all the vertical external forces acting on the beam to the



Figs. 5 to 9. Diagrams for Vertical Shears for Different Loadings

left of that section, forces acting upwards being considered as plus, and those acting downwards being considered as minus.

Thus, in the case of the beam shown in Fig. 9, the REACTION R_1 will be found, by the method explained in Example 2, page 323, and by Formulas (2) and (3), page 323, to be 150 lb, and that at R_2 to be 140 lb. The shear at various sections may be found by applying the foregoing definition of VERTICAL SHEAR, thus:

Shear at $X = +150 - 50 = +100$ lb
Shear at $Y = +150 - 50 - 80 = +20$ lb
Shear at $Z = +150 - 50 - 80 - 100 = -80$ lb
Shear at $O = +150 - 50 - 80 - 100 - 60 = -140$ lb

The manner in which the VERTICAL SHEAR varies between the supports, under different dispositions of the loads, is shown graphically by the hatched areas in Figs. 5 to 9; in the first three cases W and P are assumed to have the same value.

When the load is UNIFORMLY DISTRIBUTED the VERTICAL SHEAR can be found graphically by laying off vertically R_1 and R_2 to a scale of pounds, and drawing the line ab, Fig. 5. The shear at X will then be represented by the ordinate X_1 and the shear at Y by Y_1, and they can readily be scaled.

(b) **Buckling.*** The safe resistance of the web to BUCKLING, in pounds per square inch, may be determined by the formula

$$S_b = \frac{10\,000}{1 + \dfrac{d^2}{3\,000\,t^2}} \tag{4}$$

in which S_b is the safe buckling value in pounds per square inch, d is the depth of the web in the clear between flange-plates in inches and t is the thickness of the web in inches. When this resistance is less than the UNIT STRESS FOR VERTICAL SHEAR at any section, stiffeners must be used.

Stiffeners. These should be made of ANGLES, not less than 3½ by 3½ by ⅜ in in size. They should always be tightly fitted between the flange-angles, so as to support the horizontal flanges. In order to bring the stiffeners in contact with the web and the vertical leg of the angles, FILLERS, of the same thickness as the flange-angles, are generally used, as shown in Fig. 10. Where there are several girders exactly alike, something may be saved by omitting the fillers and BENDING THE STIFFENERS, as shown in Fig. 11. This bending, however, can be done properly, only by the use of special dies, and costs more than the fillers unless there are many stiffeners. The SPACING OF STIFFENERS is more a matter of judgment and experience than of exact calculation. SHEAR-DIAGRAMS, shown in Figs. 5 to 9, are of great assistance in visualizing shearing-stresses. The general rule is to place the stiffeners not farther apart than the depth of the full web-plate on girders over 3 ft in depth, with a maximum spacing of 5 ft. On girders under 3 ft in depth they are placed 3 ft apart. Girders 2 ft and less in depth require no stiffeners. On girders supporting distributed loads they are generally placed nearer together at the ends than towards the middle.

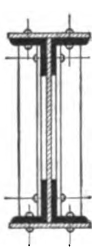


Fig. 10. Stiffeners with Fillers

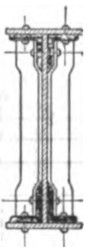


Fig. 11. Bent Stiffeners

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* See Table III, page 705, and also in Chapter XV, the paragraphs and foot-note, pages 567 to 569, relating to the web-buckling of beams and girders. The formula used for web-buckling in Table III, page 705, is the formula that was used in the Passaic Steel Company's Manual, and as the values computed by it vary but little from those deduced by the Cambria formula (see page 568), Table III is retained as it is.

Stiffeners should always be placed at the ends of girders and directly over the edge of each support, as shown in Fig. 18, and wherever there are concentrated loads. On plate girders the stiffeners are always placed on each side of the web; on box girders on the outside only.

The Bearing of Girders. This depends somewhat upon the character of the loading, but a safe general rule is to make the BEARING of the girder beyond the edge of the support equal to ONE-HALF THE DEPTH OF THE GIRDER.

(3) The Number and Pitch of the Rivets. (a) Rivets in Web-Legs of Angles. It will readily be seen that when a plate or a box girder is loaded, the tendency of the bending moments is to cause the flange-plates and angles to SLIDE HORIZONTALLY past the web; this tendency is resisted by the rivets which connect the angles with the web. The TOTAL AMOUNT OF THIS TENDENCY TO SLIDE, called the HORIZONTAL FLANGE-STRESS, between any section of the flange and the nearer end of the girder, is equal to the BENDING MOMENT at that point DIVIDED BY THE DEPTH OF THE WEB.* The TOTAL NUMBER OF RIVETS between that section and the nearer end must be such that their combined resistance to SHEARING or BEARING, whichever has the lower value, shall equal this horizontal flange-stress at the section; or

$$\text{number of rivets} = \frac{\text{horizontal flange-stress}}{\text{bearing or shearing of one rivet}} \qquad (5)$$

and the total number of rivets in the web-angle from end to end is twice this, or

$$\text{total number of rivets} = \frac{2 \times \text{maximum bending moment}\dagger \text{ in foot-pounds}}{\text{depth of web in feet} \times \text{least resistance of one rivet}} \qquad (6)$$

If the NUMBER OF RIVETS determined by formula (6) is such that they would be more than 6 in apart, then the number must be increased, as in no case should they have a greater PITCH than 6 in.

(b) Rivets in Flange-Legs of Angles. WITH A SINGLE COVER-PLATE. For girders with a single cover-plate, it is customary to put the same number of rivets in the flange-leg as in the web-leg for a distance of 3 ft from the ends of the girder, STAGGERING the rivets as in Fig. 15. Beyond that point to the middle of the girder one-half the number of rivets will be sufficient, provided this will not give them a greater pitch than 6 in.

WITH TWO OR MORE COVER-PLATES. When two or more cover-plates are used, each plate must have sufficient rivets between the end of the plate and the point where its resistance is required, that is, for example, between *a* and *b*, Fig. 13, to transfer to the angle and flange-plates between, an amount EQUAL TO THE SAFE STRENGTH OF THE PLATE. From this point to the middle point of the girder, the rivets can be spaced according to the rule for the greatest pitch.

(c) Rivets in Stiffeners. The spacing of rivets in the stiffeners is generally determined by the rules given for the pitch of rivets. Further explanation of the method of determining the spacing of rivets will be found in the following examples.

(4) The Approximate Weight of the Girder. In determining the size of a riveted girder to support a given load, it is desirable to be able to add to the superimposed load the WEIGHT OF THE GIRDER itself, as this often forms a considerable part of the load to be supported. The following empirical rule* is often used to determine the approximate weight of a plate or box girder:

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* See Formula (1), page 683, and foot-note relating to it. $M = SAd$, and hence $SA = M/d$, SA being the total amount, in pounds, of the tendency to slide, and S being the horizontal unit, flange, fiber-stress in pounds per square in, due to flexure. A is the area in square inches of the cross-section of the flange and d is the approximate depth of the girder.

† Because the maximum horizontal flange-stress is equal to the maximum bending moment divided by the girder-depth, or $S_{max}A = M_{max}/d$.

$$\text{Weight of girder between supports, in tons} = Wl/700 \qquad (7)$$

in which W equals the load to be supported, in tons, and l equals the span, in feet. The constant 700 was determined for girders of from 35 to 50 ft long, but may be used without much excess for girders of shorter spans.

(5) The Determination of the Lengths of the Flange-Plates. For the methods used to determine these, see the following examples.

4. Explanation of Tables

The Calculations for the Design of Riveted Girders may be greatly facilitated by the use of Tables I, II, III and IV at the end of this chapter.

Table I gives the sectional area that should be deducted for rivet-holes in plates of different thicknesses. In computing this table ⅛ in was added to the diameter of the rivet to allow for the injury to the metal caused by punching and also to allow for the expansion of the heated rivet.

Table II gives the safe shearing value for web-plates for various depths and thicknesses, and the deduction to be made for each ¾-in or ⅞-in rivet.

Table III gives the safe resistance to buckling per square inch of net section, and also the total safe resistance in pounds for the more common sizes of web-plates, with two rivet-holes deducted. It is very seldom that any vertical section between the stiffeners contains more than two rivet-holes. Tables giving the dimensions and properties of angles will be found in Tables XI and XII, pages 362 to 367, and the shearing value and bearing values of rivets are given in Tables II and III, pages 418 and 419.

Table IV gives the elements of riveted plate girders of various depths, from which it is possible to select economical sections for almost any ordinary condition of loading.

5. Examples of Plate and Box Girders

Example 1. It is required to support the floor over a room 50 by 64 ft, by means of riveted steel plate girders, placed across the room, 16 ft on centers. The room above is to be used for general assembly purposes. The floor-joists are of wood and there is a plaster ceiling on the under side of them. The design of the girder is required.

First Step. The Load. The first step is to determine the load to be supported by each girder. The floor-area supported by each girder is 50 by 16 ft, or 800 sq ft. The weight of the floor-construction between the girders will not be over 25 lb per sq ft, and an allowance of 100 lb per sq ft for the live load will be ample. The unit load, 125 lb × 800 = 100 000 lb, or 50 tons, the load to be carried by the girder. To this should be added the weight of the girder itself. Substituting in Formula (7),

the approximate weight of the girder $= \dfrac{50 \times 50}{700} = 3.57$ tons, or about 7 000 lb,

and the total load, in round numbers, is 107 000 lb. This, of course, is uniformly distributed.

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[*] From "Compound Riveted Girders," by W. H. Birkmire.

Second Step. The Flange-Area. The next step is to determine the flange-area. Before this can be done, however, the width and depth of the girder must be decided. As it is desirable to keep the girder as shallow as possible, consistent with good engineering, the case will be considered an exceptional one and the depth of the web-plate will be made 36 in, which is about one-sixteenth the span and a little less than the usual limit.

As the girders are braced sidewise by the floor-joists, it will not be necessary to make the width of the flange-plates one-twentieth the span of the girder, and it may be made 12 in width. The flange-area may be determined by Formula (1), page 683, and is

$$A = M_{\max}/dS$$

or

$$\text{flange-area (sq in)} = \frac{\text{maximum bending moment (ft-tons)}}{\text{depth of web (ft)} \times S \text{ (tons per sq in)}}$$

The maximum bending moment for a uniformly distributed load on a simple beam is $M_{\max} = Wl/8$ (Case V, page 326), or in this particular case, 53.57 tons × 50 ft/8 = 334.8 ft-tons.

The value of S * has varied in the handbooks from 6 to 8 tons, depending upon varying conditions and upon the judgment of engineers. A value of S of 7 tons or 14 000 lb per sq in is the requirement of the new New York Building Code.

Substituting these values in the formula gives for the net area of either flange, $334.8/3 \times 7 = 16$ sq in.

The upper flange may now be designed. For a girder of this size and loaded in this way, it will be advisable to try two 5 by 3½ by 7/16-in angles, with the long legs horizontal.† The sectional area of these angles (Table XI, page 363) is 7.06 sq in which leaves 9 sq in for the area of the flange-plates. Dividing this by 12-in, the width of the flange, gives ¾ in for the total thickness of the plates, which may be made up of two ⅜-in thick plates. Of course, any other combination of plates and angles having an area of cross-section of 16 sq in will fulfill the conditions of the problem, the selection in all cases depending upon the judgment and experience of the designer. Note, also, that no part of the web has been included in the flange-area although it would be safe to include one-sixth of it. This also is a matter of individual opinion.

As the lower flange is in tension, the rivet-holes should be deducted in order to obtain the net area. Assuming that ¾-in diameter rivets are used, it will be noted that the greatest loss of section is by two rivet-holes opposite each other, connecting the angles with the plates of the bottom flange. From Table I, page 702, the area of two ¾-in rivets in a ¾-in plate is 1.31 sq in, and in a 7/16-in plate, the same thickness as that of the angles, it is 0.76 sq in. The sum of these thicknesses is 2.07 sq in, which must be added to the net area of the upper flange-plates, 16 sq in, making 18.07 sq in for the gross area of the lower flange-plates. This additional area may be obtained by increasing the thickness of the plates to ½ in.

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* See, in Chapter XV, paragraphs and foot-notes, page 603, relating to fiber-stresses for bending for riveted beam girders, etc.

† For the flange-angles of plate girders the 5 by 3½-in size is most commonly used, when the flange-plate is 12 in wide, and 6 by 4-in angles when the flange-plate is over 12 in wide. For box girders 5 by 4, 5 by 3½, 4 by 3½ and 3½ by 3½-in are common sizes; while for very heavily loaded girders, requiring two rows of rivets in the web-leg, 6 by 6-in angles are often used. For most riveted girders, in which only one row of rivets is required, the short leg is riveted to the web, so as to bring most of the material as far from the neutral axis of the girder as possible. The minimum thickness of flange-angles should be ⅜ in, and the maximum thickness for ordinary loads is ¾ in.

The flanges will then be made up as follows:

Upper flange:	Two angles 5 by 3½ by 7/16-in	= 7.06 sq in. gross area
	Two plates 12 by 3/8-in	= 9.00 sq in. gross area
	Total	16.06 sq in. gross area
Lower flange:	Two angles, 5 by 3½ by 7/16-in	= 7.06 sq in, gross area
	Two plates, 12 by ½-in	= 12.00 sq in, gross area
	Total	= 19.06 sq in, gross area

Third Step. The Length of the Flange-Plates. To determine this it is necessary to plot the bending-moment diagram shown in Fig. 12. The bending-moment diagram for a girder under a uniformly distributed load is bounded by a parabola having a height over the middle of the girder equal to the maximum bending moment. From the middle point *C*, of a horizontal line *AB*, at any convenient scale, lay off a vertical line *CD*, equal to the maximum bending moment, 334.8 ft-tons. Construct the parabola *ADB* (see page 79); then the bending moment at any other point, as *E*, is equal to the ordinate *EF* above that point, measured to the same scale.

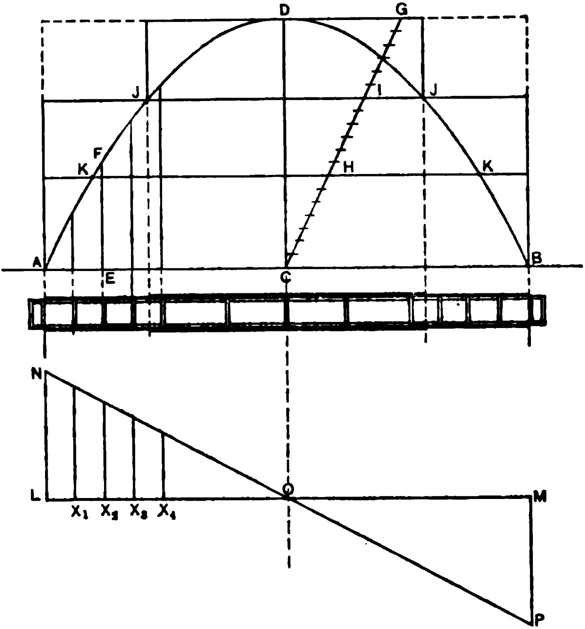

Fig. 12. Diagrams for Bending Moments and Vertical Shears. Example 1

To find the theoretical length of the flange-plates of the lower flange, inclose the bending-moment diagram in a rectangle and from any convenient point, such as *C*, lay off any line *CG*, equal to the total flange-area, 19 units in length, and at such an angle that the upper end *G* will lie on a horizontal line drawn through *D*. Divide the line *CG* into three parts, *CH* representing the sectional area of the angles, equal to 7 units, and *HI* and *IG* representing the sectional area of the two plates, equal to 6 units each. Draw horizontal lines through *H* and *I*; then the line *JJ* will represent the theoretical required length of the second or upper flange-plate and the line *KK* the length of the first or lower flange-plate. In practice, however, the plates are usually extended beyond the points *J* and *K* on each side as an additional factor of safety, a distance sufficient to take enough rivets to transmit at least one-third the resistance of the plate. It is also customary to make the first or lower flange-plate the full length of the girder as it greatly stiffens the angles and adds but a small amount to the cost. Theoretically the length of the flange-plates of the top flange would be less than the length of the plates of the lower flange, because the flange-area of the top flange is less than that of the lower flange; but they are usually made the same length.

Fourth Step. The Web. Webs are proportioned to resist the shear. The maximum shearing-stress in a girder uniformly loaded is equal to either reaction, which in this case is one-half the total load, or 53 500 lb. As the girder is 3 ft deep, this small shear would require a very thin section, thinner than the minimum thickness for webs, which is ⅜ in. From Table II, page 703, it is seen that the shearing resistance of a ⅜ by 36-in web-plate is 135 000 lb, which is greatly in excess of the actual shear.

Fifth Step. The Stiffeners. As before explained, stiffeners will be required whenever the vertical shear exceeds the safe resistance of the web to buckling. The vertical shear is 53 500 lb and the resistance to buckling may be found from Table III, page 705. This, for a ⅜ by 36-in web with two ¾-in rivets is found to be 31 560 lb; hence stiffeners will have to be used. As stated under Buckling of Web, page 686, the spacing of stiffeners is more a matter of judgment and experience than of exact calculation, and for this a shear-diagram, also shown in Fig. 12, is of great assistance. It may be constructed as follows: On a horizontal line *LM*, lay off to any convenient scale vertical lines *LN* and *MP*, each representing 53 500 lb. Connect the points *N* and *P*; then the vertical shear at any point is equal to the ordinate at that point, measured to the same scale. Thus, at X_1, 3 ft from the left end, the shear is 47 500 lb, at X_2, 6 ft from *L*, it is 40 500 lb, at X_3, 9 ft from *L*, it is 34 000 lb and at X_4, 12 ft from *L*, it is 27 500 lb. As the vertical shear at X_3 is greater than the safe resistance to buckling and at X_4 less, it might be safe to stop the stiffeners at X_4; but as the floor-joists are framed flush, or nearly so, with the top of the girder, and rest upon angles riveted to its web, it will be advisable to put about 3 stiffeners between X_4 and the corresponding point on the right-hand half of the girder. Additional stiffeners should be placed directly over each support, making 15 stiffeners on each side of the girder. These will be made of 4 by 4 by ⅜-in angles.

Sixth Step. The Number and Pitch of the Rivets. First, the number of rivets in the web will be considered. As a rivet is required at the end of each stiffener, it will be necessary to determine the number and spacing of the rivets between each pair of adjacent stiffeners. In the web, the rivets are in double shear. In Tables II and III, pages 418 and 419, values are given based upon unit shearing values of 7 500 and 10 000 and bearing values of 15 000 and 18 000 lb per sq in. (See foot-notes with these tables.) The shearing resistance of a ¾-in rivet at 10 000* lb per sq in is 4 420 × 2 = 8 840 lb for double shear, and the bearing value of the same rivet in a ⅜-in plate, at 20 000* lb per sq in, is 5 630 lb. As the bearing value is the smaller, it will determine the number of rivets required.

The number of rivets from either end of the girder to any point depends upon the horizontal flange-stress at that point, and it has been shown that the flange-stress is equal to the bending moment divided by the depth of the web. (See foot-notes with Equations (5) and (6).) Scaling off the bending moment above the point X_1 gives 75 ft-tons; hence the horizontal flange-stress is equal to 75/3 = 25 tons = 50 000 lb. The number of rivets required between this point and the left reaction is, from Formula (5), equal to 50 000/5 630 = 10 rivets, which are to be spaced in a distance of 36 in, making the spacing 3.6 in. Above X_2 the bending moment scales 141.24 ft-tons, the flange-stress is 141.24/3 = 47.08 tons, or 94 160 lb, and the number of rivets required between X_2 and A is 94 160/5 630 = 17; but 10 of these are required between X_1 and A, leaving 7 to be placed between X_1 and X_2 in a distance of 36 in making the spacing 5.1 in. At X_3, the bending moment scales 197.4 ft-tons, and the flange-stress is 197.4/3 = 65.3 tons, or 130 600 lb. The number of rivets required is 130 600/5 630 = 24, but 17 of these are required between X_2 and A, leaving 7 to be placed between X_2 and X_3, making the spacing the same as in the second panel. At X_4 the bending moment scales 243.96 ft-tons, and the flange-stress is 243.96/3 = 81.32 tons or 162 640 lb. The number of rivets required is 162 640/5 630 = 30, but 24 of these are required between X_3 and A, leaving 6 to be placed between X_3 and X_4 in a distance of 36 in, making the spacing 6 in. As this is the maximum spacing allowed, it will be used from X_4 to the corresponding point on the opposite right-hand half of the girder. The same number of rivets will be used in the flange-legs of the angles as in the web-legs, but they will be spaced so that they will come between those in the web.

The outer flange-plate scales 28 ft 6 in in length in the bending-moment diagram, but this length, as before stated, should be increased sufficiently to take enough rivets to transmit at least one-third of the resistance. The area of the plate is ½ in × 12 in = 6 sq in, minus the area of two ¾-in rivet-holes, 0.87 sq in (Table I, page 702), leaving a net area of 5.13 sq in. The resistance of the plate is therefore equal to 5.13 sq in × 14 000 lb per sq in = 71 820 lb. One-third of this, or 23 940 lb, must be transferred by rivets placed beyond the points *JJ*. As the rivets in the flange are in single shear, the shearing value of one rivet in single shear, 4 420 lb, will govern. The number of rivets required, then, is 23 940/4 420 = 6, or 3 in each angle. The spacing of the rivets in this panel is 6 in. The plates will therefore be extended 18 in on either side of *JJ*.

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* The shearing value of rivets is taken at from 7 000 to 12 000 lb per sq in and the bearing value at from 12 000 to 24 000 lb per sq in. The usual values are 10 000 lb for shear and 18 000 or 20 000 lb for bearing. Values of 10 000 lb for shear and 20 000 lb for bearing are the requirements of the New York Building Code. A bearing value other than those of Tables II and III, pages 418 and 419, is purposely used in this example, as it is frequently necessary to use different unit stresses than those from which some particular table has been computed. If no other table is at hand for the values based upon some particular rivet bearing-stress, Tables II and III, pages 418 and 419, can be used and the new value found by proportion; or the bearing-stress can be found by multiplying the product of the diameter of the rivet and the thickness of the web by the new unit stress. In this example, Table III, page 419, gives, for 18 000 unit stress, 5 060 lb for bearing; $\frac{10}{9}$ of this gives 5 622 lb for a 20 000 unit stress. Also, ⅜ in by ¾ in by 20 000 lb per sq in = 5 625 lb. The Cambria handbook uses this value, and Carnegie's Pocket Companion, and Merriman's Civil Engineers' Pocket Book use 5 630 lb, which is the value used here.

Splices. As the total length of the girder is but 53 ft, it will not be necessary to splice the webs or the flanges, because the extreme length of a ⅜ by 36-in plate is 110 ft and of a 12 by ½-in plate, 90 ft.* It is never necessary to splice angles as they are rolled in lengths up to 90 ft. In very long, deep girders, however, it is sometimes necessary to splice the web, and the joint is sometimes made at the middle, as theoretically there is no vertical shearing-stress in the web at that point when the load is uniformly distributed. Generally, however, the web is spliced in two places, equidistant from the middle of the girder. The splice is calculated for vertical shear only, the rule being to divide the shear at the splice by the safe shearing value or bearing value of one rivet. This gives the number of rivets required on each side of the splice-plate, unless the maximum pitch is exceeded, when more are added.

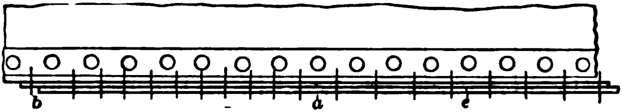

Fig. 13. Splicing of Inner Plate of Bottom Flange of Plate Girder. Example 1

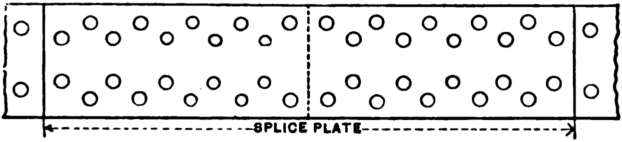

Fig. 14. Plan of Splice-plate. Example 1

Whenever a splice is required in a flange-plate, it should be, if possible, at a point just beyond the end of the plate above it. The joint must be made by riveting to the spliced plate, a plate of the same thickness and of sufficient length to receive a number of rivets on each side of the joint equal to the strength of the plate that is spliced. When the flange is made up of two plates of the same thickness, the simplest method of splicing the inner plate is as shown in Fig. 13.

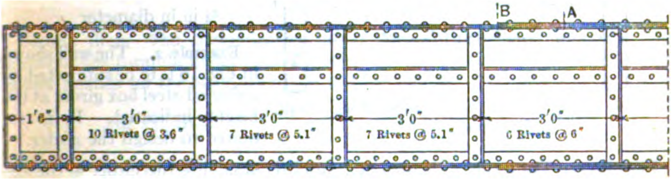

Fig. 15. Elevation of Part of Plate Girder. Example 1

Let *e* denote the theoretical position of the end of the outer plate, as determined by the bending-moment diagram, and *a* the point to which the plate must be extended to receive rivets of a resistance equal to one-third the strength of the plate. Then let the joint in the inner plate be just over *a* and extend the outer plate to *b*, or such a distance that it can receive a number of rivets equal in resistance to the strength of one plate.

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* Tables of extreme lengths are published in the various handbooks. The above dimensions, for example, are taken from the table on page 103 of Carnegie's Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition.

Fig. 15 shows one end of the girder, drawn according to the foregoing calculations.

The Bill of Quantities for the Girder. The following is a bill of quantities for the construction of this girder.

Load: 100 000 lb, uniformly distributed. Span 50 ft. Depth 3 ft

- Upper flange:
  - Two angles, 5 by 3½ by 7/16 in, 53 ft long
  - One plate 12 by ⅜ in, 53 ft 0 in long
  - One plate, 12 by ⅜ in, 31 ft 6 in long
- Lower flange:
  - Two angles, 5 by 3½ by 7/16 in, 53 ft long
  - One plate, 12 by ½ in, 53 ft 0 in long
  - One plate, 12 by ½ in, 31 ft 6 in long
- Web:
  - One plate, 36 by ⅜ in, 53 ft 0 in long
  - 30 stiffeners, 4 by 4 by ⅜-in angles, 2 ft 11 in long
  - 30 filler-plates, 4 by ½ in, 29 in long
  - 92 ft 8 in of 4 by 4 by ½-in angles for supporting floor-joists
- Rivets:
  - ¾ in in diameter

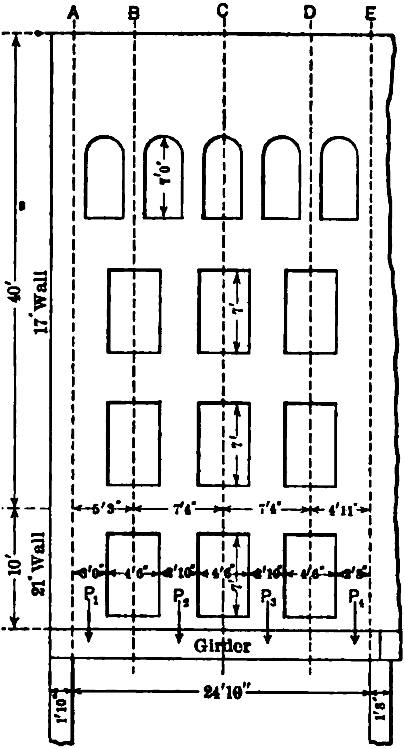

Fig. 16. Box Girder Supporting Brick Wall. Example 2

Example 2. The wall shown in Fig. 16 is to be supported by a riveted-steel box girder at the height indicated. It is required to design the girder.

First Step. The Load. The first step towards designing the girder is the determination of the load. The space under the lower windows is too small to distribute the weight from the piers uniformly over the girder, so that the only safe assumption is that the weight of the wall between the lines *A* and *B* is concentrated at P_1, the weight of wall between lines *B* and *C* at P_2 and so on. The floor-joists run across the building, so that only the weight of the wall will be supported by the girder. Allowing 200 lb per square foot of face for the 21-in wall, and 165 lb for the 17-in wall, both walls being plastered on the inside:

Load at P_1

$$= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} [5'\,3'' \times 10' - 7' \times 2'\,3''] \times 200 = \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots 7\,350 \\ [5'\,3'' \times 40' - (2'\,3'' \times 14' + 3'\,2'' \times 7')] \times 165 = \ldots\ldots 25\,795 \end{array} \right\} = 33\,145 \text{ lb}$$

Load at P_2

$$= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} [7'\,4'' \times 10' - 4'\,6 \times 7'\,0''] \times 200 = \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ 8\,366 \\ [7'\,4'' \times 40' - (4'\,6 \times 14' + 4'\,9'' \times 7')] \times 165 = \ldots\ldots 32\,354 \end{array} \right\} = 40\,720 \text{ lb}$$

Load at P_3 = that at P_2 = ... 40 720 lb

Load at P_4

$$= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} [4'\,11'' \times 10' - 2'\,3'' \times 7'] \times 200 = \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ 6\,683 \\ [4'\,11'' \times 40' - (2'\,3'' \times 14' + 3'\,2'' \times 7')] \times 165 = \ldots\ldots 23\,595 \end{array} \right\} = 30\,278 \text{ lb}$$

Total load on girder = ... 144 863 lb

or 72.4 tons

From Equation (7)

$$\text{approximate weight of girder} = \frac{W \times l}{700} = \frac{72.4 \times 24\tfrac{5}{6}}{700} = 2.5 \text{ tons, or } 5\,000 \text{ lb}$$

About one-third of this, or say 1 600 lb, should be added to P_2 and P_3, and 900 lb to P_1 and P_4. This will give, approximately, the following loads, applied as in Fig. 17:

$$P_1 = 34\,000 \text{ lb} \qquad P_2 = 42\,300 \text{ lb}$$
$$P_3 = 42\,300 \text{ lb} \qquad P_4 = 31\,200 \text{ lb}$$

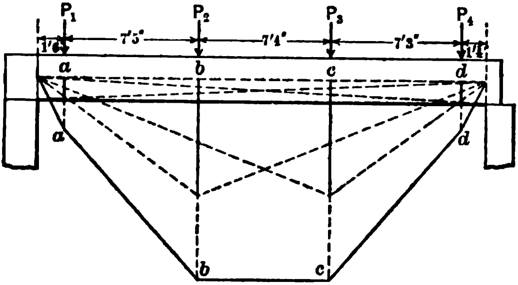

Fig. 17. Diagram for Bending Moments. Example 2

Second Step. The Determination of the Maximum Bending Moment. By means of the formula under Case VI, page 327, the maximum bending moment in foot-pounds for the loads are found to be as follows:

$$\text{For } P_1,\ M_{\max} = \frac{34\,000 \times 1'\,6'' \times 23'\,4''}{24'\,10''} = 47\,980 \text{ ft-lb}$$

$$\text{For } P_2,\ M_{\max} = \frac{42\,300 \times 8'\,11'' \times 15'\,11''}{24'\,10''} = 242\,000 \text{ ft-lb}$$

$$\text{For } P_3,\ M_{\max} = \frac{42\,300 \times 16'\,3'' \times 8'\,7''}{24'\,10''} = 237\,900 \text{ ft-lb}$$

$$\text{For } P_4,\ M_{\max} = \frac{31\,200 \times 1'\,4'' \times 23'\,6''}{24'\,10''} = 39\,420 \text{ ft-lb}$$

Plotting these moments to a scale, as explained for Fig. 15, page 329, the bending-moment diagram shown in Fig. 17 * is obtained. The maximum bending moment is at P_2, over the longest ordinate *bb* and where the vertical shear is zero, and is equal to the length of the ordinate *bb*, which scales 418 000 ft-lb, or 209 ft-tons.

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* The bending moments in this diagram are drawn to a scale of about 400 000 ft-lb to one inch.

Third Step. The Determination of the Flange-Area and the Length of the Cover-Plates. Before these can be determined, the depth of the web-plate must be decided. As there is nothing to limit the depth of the girder, it will be made about one-tenth of the span, or 30 in. Then by Formula (1), page 683, $A = M_{\max}/dS$, and using 14 000 lb or 7 tons per sq in for S,

$$\text{the gross area of upper flange} = 209/2.5 \times 7 = 12 \text{ sq in}$$

As the thickness of the wall to be supported is 21 in, the flange-plate must be at least 20 in wide and not less than ⅜ in thick. The sectional area of a ⅜ by 20-in plate is 7½ sq in, leaving 4½ sq in to be made up by the angles. The sectional area of two 5 by 3½ by 7/16-in angles is 7.06 sq in (Table IX, page 363), which leaves a small excess for the lower flange. For rivets ¾ in in diameter, the loss in area due to two rivet-holes in a ⅜-in plate is (Table I, page 702) 0.65 sq in and in a 7/16-in plate, the thickness of each angle, 0.76 sq in, making 1.41 sq in in all, for which the excess in the angles is more than sufficient. The width of the flange being more than one-twentieth the span makes lateral support unnecessary.

Fourth Step. The Webs and Stiffeners. The maximum shear is equal to the maximum reaction which in this case is obviously equal to the left reaction. Taking the center of moments at the right reaction, the equation of moments is,

$$R_1 \times 24.83' = (17 \text{ tons} \times 23.33') + (21.15 \text{ tons} \times 15.91') + (21.15 \text{ tons} \times 8.58') + (15.6 \text{ tons} \times 1.33')$$

whence $24.83 \times R_1 = 935.3215$ ft-tons and $R_1 = 37.669$ tons, or 75 338 lb. Note that the loads have been changed from pounds to tons, for convenience in making the calculations. As this box girder has two webs, the maximum shear in each web will be 37 669 lb. The thinnest web permissible is ⅜ in thick. From Table II, page 703, the resistance of a ⅜ by 30-in web-plate to shearing is 112 500 lb, so that the webs are amply safe in resisting vertical shear. From Table III, page 705, the safe resistance to buckling, deducting for two ¾-in rivets, is 33 830 lb. As this is less than the maximum shear, stiffeners will be used, placed 2 ft 4 in from each support, with five between them, making the spacing about 3 ft 4 in on centers. Two others will be placed over each support. 4 by 4 by ⅜-in angles will be sufficient for the stiffeners.

Note. If the loads were really concentrated at the points P_1, P_2, etc., as from columns or girders, it would be necessary to place stiffeners at each one of these points and two in each of the intermediate spaces, but as the pier-loads are partly distributed it will be better to space them as first planned.

Fifth Step. The Number and Pitch of the Rivets. The rivets in the web-legs and flange-legs of the angles are in single shear. From Table III, page 419, the shearing value of a ¾-in rivet in single shear at 10 000 lb per sq in is 4 420 lb, and the bearing value in a ⅜-in plate at 18 000 lb per sq in is 5 060 lb. Hence the shearing value will govern. The number of rivets required depends upon the flange-stress, which is equal to the maximum bending moment divided by the depth of the girder. (See Formula (1), page 683.) The bending moment at P_1, found by moments or graphically by scaling off the ordinate *aa*, Fig 17, is 56.5 ft-tons.* This, divided by the depth 2.5 ft, gives 22.6 tons, or 45 200 lb, for the flange-stress, or 22 600 lb for each web. The number of rivets, therefore (Formula (5), page 687) is 22 600/4 420 = 6. The distance from P_1 to the left reaction is 18 in, which makes the spacing 3 in. The flange-stress at P_2 is 209.88 ft-tons/2.5 ft = 83.95 tons, or 167 900 lb, and one-half of this is 83 950 lb. The number of rivets therefore is 83 950/4 420 = 19. But 6 of these are required between P_1 and the left reaction, leaving 13 to go between P_1 and P_2, a distance of 89 in, making the pitch about 6.9 in. As this exceeds the maximum allowable pitch, the rivets will be spaced 6 in on centers between P_1 and P_2, and between P_2 and P_3. The spacing on the right-hand end of the girder will be made the same as that on the left. Some details of the girder are shown in Fig. 18.

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* This may be found, also, by taking P_1 as the center of moments and multiplying $R_1 = 37.669$ tons by the lever-arm 1½ ft. The result is 56.5 ft-tons. The bending moments at the other loads may be determined by taking, in each case, the algebraic sum of the moments of the external vertical forces on either side of each point considered.

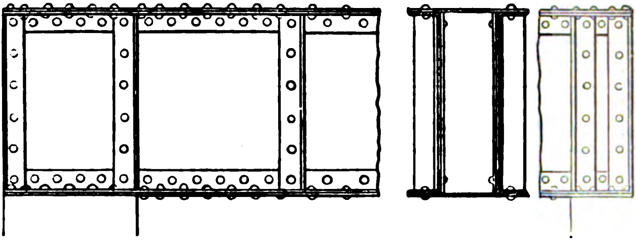

Fig. 18. Elevations and Section of Box Girder. Example 2

The Details and Bill of Quantities for the Girder. The loads, dimensions, size, number of pieces, etc., for the girder are given in the following summary:

Loads: 34 000 lb, 1 ft 6 in from left support. Span: 24 ft 10 in
42 300 lb, 8 ft 11 in from left support. Depth: 30 in
42 300 lb, 8 ft 7 in from right support
31 200 lb, 1 ft 4 in from right support
Both flanges: Four angles, 5 by 3½ by 7/16 in, 27 ft 6 in long
One plate, 20 by ⅜ in, 27 ft 6 in long
Two webs: ⅜ by 30 in, 27 ft 6 in long
Twenty-two stiffeners: 4 by 4 by ⅜ in, 29⅛ in long
Twenty-two filler-plates: 4 by 7/16 in, 23 in long
Rivets: ¾ in in diameter

Example 3. What are the dimensions of a box girder, 40 ft in span, required to support the following loads? 90 tons from a column, 8 ft from the left support; 75 tons from a column, 12 ft from the right support; and a masonry pier, 10 ft in length, beginning 10 ft from the left support and weighing 4 tons per running ft. (See Fig. 19.)

First Step. The Determination of the Reactions, Shears and Bending Moments. To find either reaction, the center of moments is taken at the other reaction. The equation of moments for the left reaction is, therefore, taking the center of moments at the right reaction,

$$40\,R_1 = (90 \text{ tons} \times 32 \text{ ft}) + (40 \text{ tons} \times 25 \text{ ft}^{*}) + (75 \text{ tons} \times 12 \text{ ft})$$

from which

$$40\,R_1 = 4\,780 \text{ ft-tons and } R_1 = 119.5 \text{ tons}$$

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[*] In considering the moments of forces, distributed loads are treated as if they were concentrated at their centers of gravity.

In like manner, the equation of moments for the right reaction is

$$40\,R_2 = (75 \text{ tons} \times 28 \text{ ft}) + (40 \text{ tons} \times 15 \text{ ft}) + (90 \text{ tons} \times 8 \text{ ft})$$

from which

$$40\,R_2 = 3\,420 \text{ ft-tons, and } R_2 = 85.5 \text{ tons}$$

The greatest vertical shear V_1 is equal to the greater reaction, which is 119.5 tons. The shear-diagram (Fig. 19) may be constructed by laying off at any convenient scale an ordinate equal in length to 119.5 tons. Immediately at the right of point 1, under the left column, the shear is equal to $119.5 - 90 = 29.5$ tons. It is the same at point 2, the left end of the wall. At point 3, the right end of the wall, the shear is $119.5 - 90 - 40 = -10.5$ tons, showing that the shear passes through zero somewhere between 2 and 3, which is the point of maximum bending moment. This point, X, is by scaling the shear-diagram, 17.4 ft from R_1. It is over the point of intersection of the slanting line in

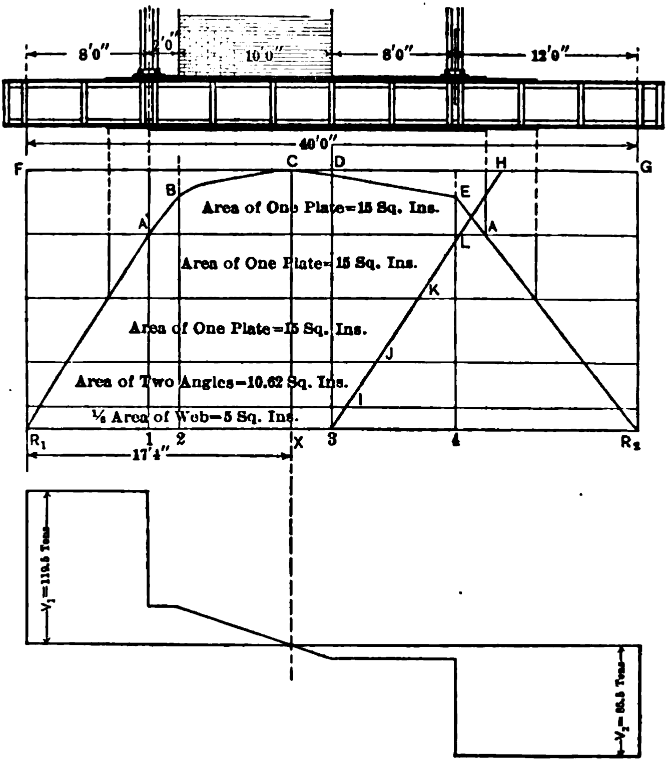
8'0"
2'0"
10'0"
8'0"
12'0"
40'0"
F
C
D
H
G
B
E
A
A
L
K
J
I
Area of One Plate=15 Sq. Ins.
Area of One Plate=15 Sq. Ins.
Area of One Plate=15 Sq. Ins.
Area of Two Angles=10.62 Sq. Ins.
1/8 Area of Web=5 Sq. Ins.
R1
1
2
X
3
4
R2
17'4"
V1=119.5 Tons
V2=85.5 Tons

Fig. 19. Elevation of Box Girder and Diagrams for Bending Moments and Vertical Shears. Example 3

the shear-diagram, with the horizontal line of reference. This slanting line is drawn from the top of the shear-ordinate for point 2 to the bottom of the shear-ordinate for point 3. Just at the right of point 4, the shear is $119.5 - 90 - 40 - 75 = -85.5$ tons, the same as the right reaction. The point X, of no shear and maximum bending moment, may be found, also, as follows: At the left of point 2 the shear is 29.5 tons. One foot to the right of 2 it is 29.5 tons $-$ 4 tons $=$ 25.5 tons. Two feet to the right of 2 it is $29.5 - 8$ tons $=$ 21.5 tons, etc. Therefore, since the shear decreases at the rate of 4 tons per foot, it will be zero at 29.5/4 or 7.4 ft at the right of 2, or 17.4 ft from R_1.

The maximum bending moment is at X, the point of no shear. The equation of moments, considering the forces to the left of X, is

$$M_{\max} = (119.5 \text{ tons} \times 17.4 \text{ ft}) - (90 \text{ tons} \times 9.4 \text{ ft}) - (4 \text{ tons} \times 7.4 \text{ ft} \times 7.4 \text{ ft}/2)$$

7.4 ft/2 is the distance from X to the center of gravity of the wall-load to the left of X, and is the lever-arm of that load, considered as a vertical downward force concentrated in a single line of action. Hence

$$M_{\max} = 2\,079.3 - 846 - 109.5 = 1\,123.8 \text{ ft-tons}$$

The bending-moment diagram may be constructed by laying off at X, at any convenient scale, an ordinate XC equal to 1 123.8 ft-tons in length. It is necessary to find the bending moment at other points, since the bending-moment diagram cannot be plotted, as in the previous examples, because the uniform load is not distributed over the entire girder. The other critical points are 1, 2, 3 and 4.

$M_1 = (119.5 \text{ tons} \times 8 \text{ ft}) = 956$ ft-tons
$M_2 = (119.5 \text{ tons} \times 10 \text{ ft}) - (90 \text{ tons} \times 2 \text{ ft}) = 1\,015$ ft-tons
$M_3 = (119.5 \text{ tons} \times 20 \text{ ft}) - (90 \text{ tons} \times 12 \text{ ft}) - (40 \text{ tons} \times 5 \text{ ft}) = 1\,110$ ft-tons
$M_4 = (119.5 \text{ tons} \times 28 \text{ ft}) - (90 \text{ tons} \times 20 \text{ ft}) - (40 \text{ tons} \times 13 \text{ ft}) = 1\,026$ ft-tons

By laying off ordinates at these points equal by scale to the respective bending moments; drawing straight lines from R to A, the extremity of the ordinate through 1, and from A to B; drawing curved lines from B through the points C and D; and connecting D and E and E and R_2 by straight lines; the bending-moment diagram $R_1ABCDER_2$ may be constructed.

Second Step. The Webs. As stated on page 683, it is considered safe by many engineers to include one-sixth of the web-area in the flange-area, and this will be done in this example. The web, therefore, must be designed first. As there is nothing to limit the depth of the girder, it will be made 3 ft deep, about one-twelfth the span. The greatest vertical shear is equal to the greater or left reaction, 119.5 tons. Since the girder carries a brick wall, it must be of the box type, and hence the vertical shear on each web is 59.75 tons. A ½ by 36-in web will be tried first. Its area is 18 sq in, from which must be deducted the loss in area due to the rivet-holes for the rivets through the stiffeners. The rivets will be placed the maximum distance on centers, making six in each stiffener. Because of the concentrated loads near the reactions more rivets will be required, and in order to avoid a close spacing, ⅞-in rivets will be used. From Table I, page 702, the sectional area to be deducted for a ⅞-in rivet in a ½-in plate is 0.50 sq in; hence the net area of the web is $18 - (6 \times 0.50) = 15$ sq in, and its shearing resistance, at 10 000 lb or 5 tons per sq in (Table II, page 703), is 15×5 tons $=$ 75 tons, which is 15.25 tons in excess of the 59.75 tons required.

Third Step. The Flange-Area. From Formula (1), page 683,

$$\text{the flange area, } A = M_{\max}/dS = \frac{1\,123.8}{3 \times 7} = 53.5 \text{ sq in}$$

As the girder has no lateral support, the flange-width should be not less than one-twentieth the span, which will make it 2 ft.

The upper flange may be proportioned as follows:

One-sixth of net section-area of two webs =	5.00 sq in
Two 5 by 5 by 9/16-in angles,* with section-area =	10.62 sq in
Three 9/16 by 24-in plates, with section-area of 13.50 sq in each =	40.50 sq in
Total section-area of upper flange =	56.12 sq in

To proportion the lower flange, allowance must be made for the loss in area due to two rivet-holes.

From Table I, page 702, the area of two 7/8-in rivet-holes in a 9/16-in plate (thickness of angles) =	1.12 sq in
Area† of two rivet-holes in three 5/8-in flange-plates =	3.75 sq in
Total rivet-area =	4.87 sq in

Hence the gross section-area of the lower flange must be $53.5 + 4.87 = 58$ sq in.

This may be made up of

One-sixth of net section-area of two webs =	5.0 sq in
Two 5 by 5 by 9/16-in angles, with section-area =	10.62 sq in
Three 5/8 by 24-in plates, with section-area of 15 sq in each =	45.00 sq in
Total section-area of lower flange‡ =	60.62 sq in

The length of the flange-plates is determined from the bending-moment diagram. Draw a horizontal line through C (Fig. 19) and at any point, as 3, lay off to any convenient scale and angle, a line $3H = 60.62$ units in length, with its upper extremity on the horizontal line FG drawn through C. Divide this line into five parts: $3I$, containing 5 units for the web-area; IJ, 10.62 units for the angles; and JK, KL and LH of 15 units each, for the three plates. Draw horizontal lines through the points I, J, K and L as shown. The horizontal intercepts of these horizontals in the bending-moment diagram will give the theoretical lengths of the flange-plates. For practical considerations, the inner plate is always carried the full length of the girder and the other plates are extended beyond the intersection-points on either side, a distance sufficient to take enough rivets to transmit at least one-third of the resistance of the plate. The resistance AS, of the outer plate is 15 sq in × 14 000 lb per sq in = 210 000 lb. One-third of this, or 70 000 lb, must be resisted by rivets placed beyond the points AA. From Table III, page 419, at 10 000 lb per sq in, the shearing value of a 7/8-in rivet in single shear plate is 6 010 lb and in a 5/8-in plate its bearing value at 18 000 lb per sq in is 9 820 lb. Hence the number of rivets required is 70 000/6 010 = 12, or 6 on each side. With a 2-in pitch this would lengthen the plate 12 in at each end. The upper plate in this particular girder would be still farther extended so as to come under the base of the column on the left side of the girder.

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* Angles with equal legs are selected because the same number of rivets will be required in both legs, as they are all in single shear, and large angles are selected because the rivets will have to be staggered, owing to the concentrated loads being placed so near the ends of the girder.

† Since 9/16-in plates are selected for the upper flange, it is reasonable to suppose that 5/8-in plates will be necessary for the lower flange.

‡ Both flange-areas are made slightly in excess of the requirements, because in this example one-sixth of the web-area is included.

Fourth Step. The Stiffeners. From Table III, page 705, the safe buckling value of a ½ by 36-in plate with two ⅞-in rivets is 62 320 lb, and as this is much less than the shearing value, stiffeners must be used. The stiffeners under the concentrated loads may be considered as short struts in direct compression. Assuming that 4 by 4 by ½-in angles are used for the stiffeners, the safe load from Table XV, page 502, is over 20 000 lb. The greatest concentrated load is 90 000 lb, and hence four stiffeners will be placed under each column. Four more will be placed at each bearing, as shown in Fig. 19, four on each side, between the columns, about 4 ft on centers; and two on each side, between the columns and the bearings, making 15 on each side, or 30 in all.

Fifth Step. The Number and Pitch of the Rivets. In a box girder, the rivets are in single shear. The shearing value of a ⅞-in rivet at 10 000 lb per sq in is, from Table III, page 419, 6 010 lb, and its bearing value at 18 000 lb per sq in, in a $\frac{7}{16}$-in plate, the thinnest outside plate, is 6 880 lb; hence the shearing value will govern.

The number of rivets depends upon the horizontal flange-stress, which is equal to the maximum bending moment divided by the depth of the girder (Formula (1), page 683). M at 1 = 956 ft-tons, and the horizontal flange-stress = 956/3 = 319 tons, or 638 000 lb. From Formula (5), page 687, the number of rivets required = 638 000/6 010 = 106, or 53 on each side. These are to be spaced in a distance of 8 ft, or 96 in, which makes the pitch about 1.8 in. As this is less than the minimum pitch, 2⅝ in, or three diameters, the rivets will have to be staggered. Hence the justification for selecting large angles with equal legs for this paricular girder. At X the horizontal flange-stress = 1 123.8/3 = 374.6 tons, or 749 200 lb, and the number of rivets is 749 200/6 010 = 124, or 62 on each side; 53 of these, however, are required between R_1 and 1, leaving 9 to be placed between 1 and X, a distance of about 9 ft. As the resulting pitch will exceed the maximum pitch, they will be placed 6 in on centers between 1 and X. At 4 the horizontal flange-stress = 1 026/3 = 342 tons, or 684 000 lb. The number of rivets is 684 000/6 010 = 112, or 56 on each side, to be spaced in a distance of 12 ft, or 144 in, making the spacing 2.5 in. Between 4 and X the maximum pitch will be determined as before.

Sixth Step. The Weight of the Girder. So far, no account has been taken of the weight of the girder. The practice is to neglect this weight when the maximum bending moment due to it alone is less than 10% of the maximum bending moment due to the loads. From Formula (7), page 688, the weight of the girder = 205 × 40/700 = 12 tons. From Case V, page 326, the maximum bending moment due to it = 12 × 40/8 = 60 ft-tons. As this is much less than 10% of 1 123.8 ft-tons, the maximum bending moment due to the loads, it may be neglected. Had it been otherwise, the weight would have to be considered as an additional uniformly distributed load over the entire girder and a new bending-moment diagram drawn.

Other Data on Riveted Girders. By applying the principles illustrated in the preceding examples it is possible to compute the necessary dimensions and details for riveted girders under any conditions of loading. If further examples are desired, the reader is referred to "Compound Riveted Girders," by William H. Birkmire, in which different examples of loading are fully worked and explained, and also to other recent treatises on this subject.

Detail Drawings and Stress-Diagrams of one of the earlier heavy plate girders used in building-construction are published in the Engineering Record of Dec. 28, 1895. This girder is one of six plate girders used in the construction of Tremont Temple, Boston, Mass., Blackall & Newton, architects. The girder is 75 ft long between centers of columns, 6 ft 1 in deep, with flanges 28 in wide, and is calculated to support distributed and concentrated loads aggregating 497.5 tons. The single web-plate is 64¾ in deep, and ⅞ in thick at the ends; the flanges are 4½ in thick at the middle of the girder; and the flange-angles are 6 by 8 by 1 in. Since that time there have been erected for many of the large buildings a number of riveted girders of very great size and strength, and details of their construction may be found in the engineering and architectural periodicals.

6. Tables Used in the Design of Plate and Box Girders

Tables I, II, III and IV contain data usually required for the design of plate and box girders to satisfy all but the most unusual conditions.

Table I.*† Sectional Area in Square Inches to be Deducted from Plates and Angles for Rivet-Holes

Taken ⅛ inch in excess of diameter of rivet‡

Thickness of plate, in	Number of rivets, 1 in diameter				Number of rivets, ⅞ in diameter			
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
1	1.12	2.25	3.37	4.50	1.00	2.00	3.00	4.00
15/16	1.05	2.10	3.16	4.21	0.94	1.87	2.81	3.75
⅞	0.98	1.97	2.95	3.93	0.87	1.75	2.62	3.50
13/16	0.91	1.83	2.74	3.65	0.81	1.62	2.44	3.25
¾	0.84	1.69	2.53	3.37	0.75	1.50	2.25	3.00
11/16	0.77	1.55	2.32	3.09	0.69	1.37	2.06	2.75
⅝	0.70	1.41	2.11	2.81	0.62	1.25	1.87	2.50
9/16	0.63	1.26	1.90	2.53	0.56	1.12	1.69	2.25
½	0.56	1.11	1.69	2.25	0.50	1.00	1.50	2.00
7/16	0.49	0.98	1.47	1.97	0.44	0.87	1.31	1.75
⅜	0.42	0.84	1.26	1.69	0.37	0.75	1.12	1.50

Thickness of plate, in	Number of rivets, ¾ in diameter				Number of rivets, ⅝ in diameter			
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
1	0.87	1.75	2.62	3.50	0.75	1.50	2.25	3.00
15/16	0.82	1.64	2.46	3.28	0.70	1.40	2.11	2.81
⅞	0.77	1.53	2.30	3.06	0.65	1.31	1.96	2.62
13/16	0.71	1.42	2.13	2.84	0.61	1.22	1.83	2.44
¾	0.66	1.31	1.96	2.62	0.56	1.12	1.69	2.25
11/16	0.60	1.20	1.80	2.40	0.51	1.03	1.54	2.06
⅝	0.55	1.09	1.64	2.19	0.47	0.94	1.41	1.88
9/16	0.49	0.98	1.48	1.96	0.42	0.84	1.26	1.69
½	0.43	0.87	1.31	1.75	0.37	0.75	1.12	1.50
7/16	0.38	0.76	1.15	1.53	0.33	0.66	0.98	1.31
⅜	0.32	0.65	0.98	1.31	0.28	0.56	0.84	1.12
5/16	0.27	0.55	0.82	1.09	0.23	0.47	0.70	0.94
¼	0.22	0.44	0.66	0.87	0.18	0.37	0.56	0.75

* For explanation of tables, see Subdivision 4, page 688.

† This table is taken from "Compound Riveted Girders," by W. H. Birkmire.

‡ See paragraph, Punching Rivet-Holes, page 414, and Table XI, page 400.

Table II.* Safe Shearing Value of Web-Plates in Pounds

Mild steel. Gross area. Safe unit stress, 10 000 lb per sq in

Depth, in	Thickness in inches						
	⅜	7/16	½	9/16	⅝	¾	⅞
28	105 000	122 500	140 000	157 500	175 000	210 000	245 000
30	112 500	131 300	150 000	168 800	187 500	225 000	262 500
32	120 000	140 000	160 000	180 000	200 000	240 000	280 000
36	135 000	157 500	180 000	202 500	225 000	270 000	315 000
40	150 000	175 000	200 000	225 000	250 000	300 000	350 000
42	157 500	183 800	210 000	236 300	262 500	315 000	367 500
46	172 500	201 300	230 000	258 800	287 500	345 000	402 500
48	180 000	210 000	240 000	270 000	300 000	360 000	420 000
	Deductions in pounds for one ¾-in rivet†						
	3 200	3 800	4 300	4 900	5 500	6 600	7 700
	Deductions in pounds for one ⅞-in rivet†						
	3 700	4 400	5 000	5 600	6 200	7 500	8 700

* For explanation of tables, see Subdivision 4, page 688.

† The area of the hole is taken ⅛ in in excess of the diameter of the rivet to allow for injury of the metal sustained by punching.

Example 4. What is the safe shearing value of a 36 by ⅜-in web-plate with seven ¾-in rivets in the stiffeners?

Solution. The gross shearing value = 135 000 lb
The deduction for seven rivets = 7 × 3 200 = 22 400 lb
The safe shearing value = 112 600 lb

To use this table for any other unit stress, divide the shearing value by 10 000 and multiply by the given unit stress. For example, what is the safe shearing-value of a 40 by ⅝-in web-plate at 12 000 lb per sq in? (250 000/10) × 12 = 300 000 lb.

Tables of Riveted Steel Plate Girders.‡ It is not practicable to give TABLES OF SAFE LOADS for riveted steel plate girders because of the great variety of combinations of plates and angles that can be selected for any given condition of loading. Moreover, any variation in the loading would make the tables useless. In place of the safe loads, therefore, the PROPERTIES OR ELEMENTS OF RIVETED STEEL PLATE GIRDERS are given in Table IV, pages 706 to 716, which will aid in determining the size of the girder and the approximate thickness of the plates and angles for any special case. To determine the dimensions and other details of a girder suitable to carry any specified loading, determine the MAXIMUM END-REACTION in pounds and the MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT in inch-pounds. Select from Table IV the different parts for a girder of the required DEPTH, a THICKNESS OF WEB as determined by the maximum end-reaction and a suitable SECTION-MODULUS as determined by dividing the maximum bending

‡ For tables of riveted single-beam girders and double-beam girders, see Tables XIV and XV, pages 605 to 611.

moment by the PERMISSIBLE UNIT STRESS FOR FLEXURE in pounds per square inch. The SPACING OF THE RIVETS, the number and position of the STIFFENERS, the LENGTH OF THE FLANGE-PLATES, if more than one are needed, and the LOSS IN FLANGE-AREA and WEB-AREA due to the punching of the RIVET-HOLES, must be determined in each case by the rules already given. The weights of the rivets and stiffeners are not included.

As an illustration of the use of these elements or properties, in Example (1) the total load on the girder is 107 000 lb, making each end-reaction 53 500 lb. The maximum bending moment is 334.8 ft-tons, or 8 035 000 in-lb. The section-modulus $I/c = M/S = 8\,035\,000/14\,000 = 574$. The depth of the girder is limited to 36 in. Looking up the properties of 36-in girders in Table IV, page 709, it is seen that a ⅜-in web is more than sufficient to resist the end-reaction. The nearest section-modulus to 574 is 567.2, that of a girder composed of a 36 by 7⁄16-in web, 5 by 3½ by ½-in angles, and 12 by ½-in flange-plates. In working out the problem in detail it was found that the girder required 5 by 3½ by 7⁄16-in angles and two 12 by ½-in flange-plates to compensate for the loss of area due to the punching of the rivet-holes.

Table III.* Safe Buckling Values of Web-Plates

SAFE UNIT BUCKLING VALUE IN POUNDS PER SQUARE INCH

Calculated by formula† $S_b = \dfrac{10\,000}{1 + \dfrac{d^2}{3\,000\,t^2}}$

S_b = safe buckling resistance in pounds per square inch; d = depth of web in the clear between flange-plates in inches; t = thickness of web in inches

Depth, in	Thickness in inches						
	3/8	7/16	1/2	9/16	5/8	3/4	7/8
28	3 498	4 228	4 890	5 476	5 932	....	....
30	3 192	3 896	4 546	5 133	5 656	6 522	....
32	2 889	3 624	4 228	4 787	5 339	6 226	6 920
36	2 456	3 069	3 666	4 229	4 748	5 656	6 392
40	2 087	2 696	3 191	3 724	4 228	5 133	5 882
42	1 930	2 455	2 983	3 498	3 992	4 889	5 649
48	1 548	1 994	2 543	2 918	3 371	4 228	4 992

TOTAL SAFE RESISTANCE IN POUNDS FOR PLATES WITH TWO 3/4-IN RIVETS

Depth, in	Thickness in inches						
	3/8	7/16	1/2	9/16	5/8	3/4	7/8
28	34 450	48 580	64 200	80 880	97 340	....	....
30	33 830	48 150	64 230	81 560	99 880	138 200	....
36	31 560	46 000	62 800	81 500	101 750	145 300	191 570
42	29 140	43 230	60 040	79 190	100 440	147 600	198 960
48	26 860	40 360	58 820	75 920	97 450	146 670	202 000

TOTAL SAFE RESISTANCE IN POUNDS FOR PLATES WITH TWO 7/8-IN RIVETS

Depth, in	Thickness in inches						
	3/8	7/16	1/2	9/16	5/8	3/4	7/8
28	34 100	48 110	63 570	80 100	96 390	....	....
30	33 510	47 720	63 640	80 840	98 980	136 960	....
36	31 310	45 660	62 320	80 900	100 690	144 230	190 170
42	28 950	42 960	59 660	78 700	99 800	146 690	197 710
48	26 700	40 140	58 490	75 520	96 910	145 860	200 930

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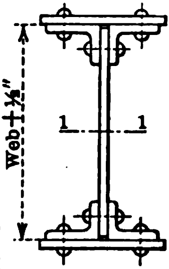
* For explanation of tables, see Subdivision 4, page 688.

† See in Chapter XV the paragraphs and foot-notes, pages 568 and 569, relating to the web-buckling of I-beams. The formula for the above table is the formula that was used in the Passaic Steel Company's Manual, and as the values computed by it vary but little from those deduced by the Cambria formula, Table III is retained as it is.

See, also, page 686, paragraph relating to Safe Resistance of Web to Buckling.

Table IV.* Elements of Riveted Plate Girders



To determine the details of construction of a girder suitable to carry any specified loading, determine the maximum end-reactions in pounds and the maximum bending moment in inch-pounds

Select from the table a girder having the desired depth, a thickness of web as determined by the maximum end-reaction and a suitable section-modulus, determined by dividing the maximum bending moment by the permissible unit bending fiber-stress in pounds per square inch

For limiting conditions, see the preceding page and the first two subdivisions of this chapter

Weights given do not include stiffeners, rivet-heads, or other details

Section-modulus, axis, 1-1, in^3	Sizes			Weight per foot		Maximum end-reaction in thousands of pounds
	Web-plate, in	Flange-angles, in	Flange-plates, in	Web-plate and flange-angles, lb	Flange-plates, lb	
242.0	24×⅜	5×3½×⅝		97.8		60.8
270.9		5×3½×⅜	12×⅜	72.2	30.6	60.8
306.1		5×3½×⅜	12×½	72.2	40.8	60.8
343.6		5×3½×½	12×½	85.0	40.8	60.8
378.5		5×3½×½	12×⅝	85.0	51.0	60.8
414.1		5×3½×⅝	12×⅝	97.8	51.0	60.8
151.5	26×5/16	4×3 ×⅜		61.6		56.3
176.8		5×3½×⅜		69.2		56.3
186.6		4×3 ×½		72.0		56.3
201.2		6×4 ×⅜		76.8		56.3
219.6		5×3½×½		82.0		56.3
252.0		6×4 ×½		92.4		56.3
260.7		5×3½×⅝		94.8		56.3
341.5	26×⅜	6×4 ×⅜	14×⅜	82.4	35.7	67.5
354.4		6×4 ×¾		127.6		67.5
377.4		5×3½×½	12×½	87.6	40.8	67.5
386.1		6×4 ×⅜	14×½	82.4	47.6	67.5
415.2		5×3½×½	12×⅝	87.6	51.0	67.5
435.1		6×4 ×½	14×½	98.0	47.6	67.5
454.5		5×3½×⅝	12×⅝	100.4	51.0	67.5
479.3		6×4 ×½	14×⅝	98.0	59.5	67.5
526.1		6×4 ×⅝	14×⅝	113.2	59.5	67.5
569.9		6×4 ×⅝	14×¾	113.2	71.4	67.5
613.9		6×4 ×¾	14×¾	127.6	71.4	67.5
200.4	26×7/16	4×3 ×½		83.1		78.8
233.4		4×3 ×⅝		93.1		78.8
233.5		5×3½×½		93.1		78.8
265.8		6×4 ×½		103.5		78.8
274.5		5×3½×⅝		105.9		78.8
314.8		6×4 ×⅝		118.7		78.8

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Table IV *† (Continued). Elements of Riveted Plate Girders

Section-modulus, axis 1-1, in³	Sizes			Weight per foot		Maximum end-reaction in thousands of pounds
	Web-plate, in	Flange-angles, in	Flange-plates, in	Web-plate and flange-angles, lb	Flange-plates, lb	
361.3	26×7/16	6×4 ×¾		133.1		78.8
384.0		5×3½×½	12×½	93.1	40.8	78.8
421.8		5×3½×½	12×⅝	93.1	51.0	78.8
441.7		6×4 ×½	14×½	103.5	47.6	78.8
461.1		5×3½×⅝	12×⅝	105.9	51.0	78.8
485.9		6×4 ×½	14×⅝	103.5	59.5	78.8
532.7		6×4 ×⅝	14×⅝	118.7	59.5	78.8
576.5		6×4 ×⅝	14×¾	118.7	71.4	78.8
620.5		6×4 ×¾	14×¾	133.1	71.4	78.8
185.6	27×5/16	5×3½×⅜		70.3		56.3
211.0		6×4 ×⅜		77.9		56.3
230.3		5×3½×½		83.1		56.3
264.1		6×4 ×½		93.5		56.3
273.2		5×3½×⅝		95.9		56.3
304.5		5×3½×⅜	12×⅜	70.3	30.6	56.3
315.3		6×4 ×⅝		108.7		56.3
344.2		5×3½×⅜	12×½	70.3	40.8	56.3
337.7	28×⅜	6×4 ×⅝		115.7		67.5
366.7		5×3½×⅜	12×½	77.3	40.8	67.5
372.8		6×4 ×⅜	14×⅜	84.9	35.7	67.5
388.5		6×4 ×¾		130.1		67.5
411.7		5×3½×½	12×½	90.1	40.8	67.5
420.8		6×4 ×⅜	14×½	84.9	47.6	67.5
437.0		6×4 ×⅞		144.5		67.5
452.5		5×3½×½	12×⅝	90.1	51.0	67.5
474.3		6×4 ×½	14×½	100.5	47.6	67.5
495.3		5×3½×⅝	12×⅝	102.9	51.0	67.5
521.9		6×4 ×½	14×⅝	100.5	59.5	67.5
573.1		6×4 ×⅝	14×⅝	115.7	59.5	67.5
620.4		6×4 ×⅝	14×¾	115.7	71.4	67.5
668.6		6×4 ×¾	14×¾	130.1	71.4	67.5
257.1	28×7/16	5×3½×½		96.1		78.8
292.4		6×4 ×½		106.5		78.8
301.8		5×3½×⅝		108.9		78.8
345.8		6×4 ×⅝		121.7		78.8
396.5		6×4 ×¾		136.1		78.8
419.5		5×3½×½	12×½	96.1	40.8	78.8
445.1		6×4 ×⅞		150.5		78.8
460.2		5×3½×½	12×⅝	96.1	51.0	78.8
482.0		6×4 ×½	14×½	106.5	47.6	78.8
503.0		5×3½×⅝	12×⅝	108.9	51.0	78.8
529.6		6×4 ×½	14×⅝	106.5	59.5	78.8
580.8		6×4 ×⅝	14×⅝	121.7	59.5	78.8

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* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

† For explanation of table, see page 706.

Table IV *† (Continued). Elements of Riveted Plate Girders

Section-modulus, axis 1-1, in³	Sizes			Weight per foot		Maximum end-reaction in thousands of pounds
	Web-plate, in	Flange-angles, in	Flange-plates, in	Web-plate and flange-angles, lb	Flange-plates, lb	
628.0	28×7/16	6×4 ×5/8	14×3/4	121.7	71.4	78.8
676.2		6×4 ×3/4	14×3/4	136.1	71.4	78.8
221.8	30×3/8	5×3½×3/8		79.9		74.3
250.5		6×4 ×3/8		87.5		74.3
272.1		5×3½×½		92.7		74.3
310.3		6×4 ×½		103.1		74.3
320.5		5×3½×5/8		105.5		74.3
353.8		5×3½×3/8	12×3/8	79.9	30.6	74.3
366.2		5×3½×3/4		117.5		74.3
368.1		6×4 ×5/8		118.3		74.3
397.8		5×3½×3/8	12×½	79.9	40.8	74.3
404.7		6×4 ×3/8	14×3/8	87.5	35.7	74.3
423.1		6×4 ×3/4		132.7		74.3
446.6		5×3½×½	12×½	92.7	40.8	74.3
456.1		6×4 ×3/8	14×½	87.5	47.6	74.3
475.8		6×4 ×7/8		147.1		74.3
490.3		5×3½×½	12×5/8	92.7	51.0	74.3
514.0		6×4 ×½	14×½	103.1	47.6	74.3
536.7		5×3½×5/8	12×5/8	105.5	51.0	74.3
565.1		6×4 ×½	14×5/8	103.1	59.5	74.3
620.6		6×4 ×5/8	14×5/8	118.3	59.5	74.3
671.3		6×4 ×5/8	14×3/4	118.3	71.4	74.3
723.8		6×4 ×3/4	14×3/4	132.7	71.4	74.3
281.4	30×7/16	5×3½×½		99.0		86.6
319.5		6×4 ×½		109.4		86.6
329.7		5×3½×5/8		111.8		86.6
375.5		5×3½×3/4		123.8		86.6
377.3		6×4 ×5/8		124.6		86.6
432.3		6×4 ×3/4		139.0		86.6
455.5		5×3½×½	12×½	99.0	40.8	86.6
485.0		6×4 ×7/8		153.4		86.6
499.2		5×3½×½	12×5/8	99.0	51.0	86.6
523.0		6×4 ×½	14×½	109.4	47.6	86.6
545.6		5×3½×5/8	12×5/8	111.8	51.0	86.6
574.0		6×4 ×½	14×5/8	109.4	59.5	86.6
629.5		6×4 ×5/8	14×5/8	124.6	59.5	86.6
680.1		6×4 ×5/8	14×3/4	124.6	71.4	86.6
732.6		6×4 ×3/4	14×3/4	139.0	71.4	86.6
290.6	30×½	5×3½×½		105.4		99.0
328.8		6×4 ×½		115.8		99.0
338.9		5×3½×5/8		118.2		99.0
384.7		5×3½×3/4		130.2		99.0
386.5		6×4 ×5/8		131.0		99.0

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* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

† For explanation of table, see page 706.

Table IV*† (Continued). Elements of Riveted Plate Girders

Section-modulus, axis 1-1, in³	Sizes			Weight per foot		Maximum end-reaction in thousands of pounds
	Web-plate, in	Flange-angles, in	Flange-plates, in	Web-plate and flange-angles, lb	Flange-plates, lb	
441.5	30×½	6×4 ×¾		145.4		99.0
464.4		5×3½×½	12×½	105.4	40.8	99.0
494.2		6×4 ×⅞		159.8		99.0
508.0		5×3½×½	12×⅝	105.4	51.0	99.0
531.9		6×4 ×½	14×½	115.8	47.6	99.0
554.5		5×3½×⅝	12×⅝	118.2	51.0	99.0
582.8		6×4 ×½	14×⅝	115.8	59.5	99.0
638.3		6×4 ×⅝	14×⅝	131.0	59.5	99.0
688.9		6×4 ×⅝	14×¾	131.0	71.4	99.0
741.3		6×4 ×¾	14×¾	145.4	71.4	99.0
251.7	33×⅜	5×3½×⅜		83.7		81.0
283.7		6×4 ×⅜		91.3		81.0
307.7		5×3½×½		96.5		81.0
308.4		6×6 ×⅜		101.7		121.5
350.3		6×4 ×½		106.9		81.0
430.3	36×⅜	6×6 ×½		124.3		135.0
460.0		5×3½×¾		125.1		87.8
462.4		6×4 ×⅝		125.9		87.8
503.3		6×4 ×⅜	14×⅜	95.1	35.7	87.8
510.5		6×6 ×⅝		142.7		135.0
530.2		6×4 ×¾		140.3		87.8
531.6		6×6 ×⅜	14×⅜	105.5	35.7	135.0
554.3		5×3½×½	12×½	100.3	40.8	87.8
565.1		6×4 ×⅜	14×½	95.1	47.6	87.8
593.2		6×6 ×⅜	14×½	105.5	47.6	135.0
595.3		6×4 ×⅞		154.7		87.8
606.8		5×3½×½	12×⅝	100.3	51.0	87.8
636.5		6×4 ×½	14×½	110.7	47.6	87.8
654.9		6×6 ×⅜	14×⅝	105.5	59.5	135.0
664.2		5×3½×⅝	12×⅝	113.1	51.0	87.8
674.4		6×6 ×½	14×½	124.3	47.6	135.0
698.0		6×4 ×½	14×⅝	110.7	59.5	87.8
735.5		6×6 ×½	14×⅝	124.3	59.5	135.0
766.6		6×4 ×⅝	14×⅝	125.9	59.5	87.8
796.8		6×6 ×½	14×¾	124.3	71.4	135.0
813.1		6×6 ×⅝	14×⅝	142.7	59.5	135.0
827.6		6×4 ×⅝	14×¾	125.9	71.4	87.8
873.8		6×6 ×⅝	14×¾	142.7	71.4	135.0
892.8		6×4 ×¾	14×¾	140.3	71.4	87.8
357.7	36×7/16	5×3½×½		108.0		102.4
404.7		6×4 ×½		118.4		102.4
417.0		5×3½×⅝		120.8		102.4
443.6		6×6 ×½		132.0		157.5

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

† For explanation of table, see page 706.

Table IV*† (Continued). Elements of Riveted Plate Girders

Section-modulus, axis 1–1, in^3	Sizes			Weight per foot		Maximum end-reaction in thousands of pounds
	Web-plate, in	Flange-angles, in	Flange-plates, in	Web-plate and flange-angles, lb	Flange-plates, lb	
473.3	36×⁷⁄₁₆	5×3½×¾		132.8		102.4
475.7		6×4 ×⅝		133.6		102.4
523.8		6×6 ×⅝		150.4		157.5
543.5		6×4 ×¾		148.0		102.4
567.2		5×3½×½	12×½	108.0	40.8	102.4
608.6		6×4 ×⅞		162.4		102 4
619.7		5×3½×½	12×⅝	108.0	51.0	102 4
649.5		6×4 ×½	14×½	118.4	47.6	102.4
677.1		5×3½×⅝	12×⅝	120.8	51.0	102.4
687.3		6×6 ×½	14×½	132.0	47.6	157 5
710.8		6×4 ×½	14×⅝	118.4	59.5	102.4
748.4		6×6 ×½	14×⅝	132.0	59.5	157.5
779.5		6×4 ×⅝	14×⅝	133.6	59.5	102.4
809.5		6×6 ×½	14×¾	132.0	71.4	157.5
825.9		6×6 ×⅝	14×⅝	150.4	59.5	157.5
840.4		6×4 ×⅝	14×¾	133.6	71.4	102.4
886.6		6×6 ×⅝	14×¾	150.4	71.4	157.5
905.5		6×4 ×¾	14×¾	148.0	71.4	102.4
418.0	36×½	6×4 ×½		126.0		117.0
456.9		6×6 ×½		139.6		180.0
489.0		6×4 ×⅝		141.2		117.0
537.1		6×6 ×⅝		158.0		180 0
556.9		6×4 ×¾		155.6		117.0
614.5		6×6 ×¾		176.0		180 0
621.9		6×4 ×⅞		170.0		117.0
662.5		6×4 ×½	14×½	126.0	47.6	117.0
689.2		6×6 ×⅞		193.6		180.0
700.3		6×6 ×½	14×½	139.6	47.6	180.0
723.7		6×4 ×½	14×⅝	126.0	59.5	117.0
761.3		6×6 ×½	14×⅝	139.6	59.5	180 0
792.3		6×4 ×⅝	14×⅝	141.2	59.5	117.0
822.3		6×6 ×½	14×¾	139.6	71.4	180.0
838.8		6×6 ×⅝	14×⅝	158.0	59.5	180 0
853.2		6×4 ×⅝	14×¾	141.2	71.4	117.0
899.4		6×6 ×⅝	14×¾	158.0	71.4	180 0
918.3		6×4 ×¾	14×¾	155.6	71.4	117.0
973.7		6×6 ×¾	14×¾	176.0	71.4	180.0
1 039.4		6×4 ×¾	14×1	155.6	95.2	117.0
1 094.1		6×6 ×¾	14×1	176.0	95.2	180.0
1 101.1		6×4 ×⅞	14×1	170.0	95.2	117 0
1 164.9		6×6 ×⅞	14×1	193.6	95.2	180.0
444.7	36×⅝	6×4 ×½		141.3		146 3
483.5		6×6 ×½		154.9		225.0

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* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, P

† For explanation of table, see page 706.

Table IV*† (Continued). Elements of Riveted Plate Girders

Section-modulus, axis 1-1, in³	Sizes			Weight per foot		Maximum end-reaction in thousands of pounds
	Web-plate, in	Flange-angles, in	Flange-plates, in	Web-plate and flange-angles, lb	Flange-plates, lb	
515.7	36×⅝	6×4×⅝		156.5		146.3
563.7		6×6×⅝		173.3		225.0
583.5		6×4×¾		170.9		146.3
641.2		6×6×¾		191.3		225.0
648.5		6×4×⅞		185.3		146.3
688.4		6×4×½	14×½	141.3	47.6	146.3
715.8		6×6×⅞		208.9		225.0
726.2		6×6×½	14×½	154.9	47.6	
749.4		6×4×½	14×⅝	141.3	59.5	146.3
787.0		6×6×½	14×⅝	154.9	59.5	225.0
818.1		6×4×⅝	14×⅝	156.5	59.5	146.3
847.9		6×6×½	14×¾	154.9	71.4	225.0
864.6		6×6×⅝	14×⅝	173.3	59.5	225.0
878.8		6×4×⅝	14×¾	156.5	71.4	146.3
924.9		6×6×⅝	14×¾	173.3	71.4	225.0
943.9		6×4×¾	14×¾	170.9	71.4	146.3
999.3		6×6×¾	14×¾	191.3	71.4	225.0
1 045.9		6×6×⅝	14×1	173.3	95.2	225.0
1 064.7		6×4×¾	14×1	170.9	95.2	146.3
1 119.3		6×6×¾	14×1	191.3	95.2	225.0
1 126.3		6×4×⅞	14×1	185.3	95.2	146.3
1 190.1		6×6×⅞	14×1	208.9	95.2	225.0
390.2	42×⅜	6×4×⅜		102.8		101.3
427.5		6×6×⅜		113.2		157.5
477.2		6×4×½		118.4		101.3
527.2		6×6×½		132.0		157.5
561.4		6×4×⅝		133.6		101.3
606.6		6×4×⅜	14×⅜	102.8	35.7	101.3
623.5		6×6×⅝		150.4		157.5
638.3		6×4×⅜	16×⅜	102.8	40.8	101.3
642.1		6×4×¾		148.0		101.3
643.2		6×6×⅜	14×⅜	113.2	35.7	157.5
675.1		6×6×⅜	16×⅜	113.2	40.8	157.5
678.6		6×4×⅜	14×½	102.8	47.6	101.3
715.2		6×6×⅜	14×½	113.2	47.6	157.5
716.5		6×6×¾		168.4		157.5
719.5		6×4×⅞		162.4		101.3
757.7		6×6×⅜	16×½	113.2	54.4	157.5
763.7		6×4×½	14×½	118.4	47.6	101.3
787.2		6×6×⅜	14×⅝	113.2	59.5	157.5
806.2		6×4×½	16×½	118.4	54.4	101.3
806.4		6×6×⅞		186.0		157.5
812.7		6×6×½	14×½	132.0	47.6	157.5

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* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

† For explanation of table, see page 706.

Table IV*† (Continued). Elements of Riveted Plate Girders

Section-modulus, axis 1-1, in^3	Sizes			Weight per foot		Maximum end-reaction in thousands of pounds
	Web-plate, in	Flange-angles, in	Flange-plates, in	Web-plate and flange-angles, lb	Flange-plates, lb	
835.5	42×⅜	6×4×½	14×⅝	118.4	59.5	101.3
855.2		6×6×½	16×½	132.0	54.4	157.5
884.2		6×6×½	14×⅝	132.0	59.5	157.5
917.3		6×4×⅝	14×⅝	133.6	59.5	101.3
937.3		6×6×½	16×⅝	132.0	68.0	157.5
955.7		6×6×½	14×¾	132.0	71.4	157.5
970.4		6×4×⅝	16×⅝	133.6	68.0	101.3
977.6		6×6×⅝	14×⅝	150.4	59.5	157.5
988.7		6×4×⅝	14×¾	133.6	71.4	101.3
1 030.8		6×6×⅝	16×⅝	150.4	68.0	157.5
1 048.6		6×6×⅝	14×¾	150.4	71.4	157.5
1 066.6		6×4×¾	14×¾	148.0	71.4	101.3
1 112.4		6×6×⅝	16×¾	150.4	81.6	157.5
1 130.4		6×4×¾	16×¾	148.0	81.6	101.3
1 138.5		6×6×¾	14×¾	168.4	71.4	157.5
1 194.1		6×6×⅝	16×⅞	150.4	95.2	157.5
1 202.3		6×6×¾	16×¾	168.4	81.6	157.5
1 283.5		6×6×¾	16×⅞	168.4	95.2	157.5
1 286.4		6×4×⅞	16×⅞	162.4	95.2	101.3
1 369.9		6×6×⅞	16×⅞	186.0	95.2	157.5
495.3	42×7/16	6×4×½		127.3		118.1
545.4		6×6×½		140.9		183.8
579.5		6×4×⅝		142.5		118.1
641.6		6×6×⅝		159.3		183.8
660.2		6×4×¾		156.9		118.1
734.7		6×6×¾		177.3		183.8
737.6		6×4×⅞		171.3		118.1
781.5		6×4×½	14×½	127.3	47.6	118.1
824.0		6×4×½	16×½	127.3	54.4	118.1
824.6		6×6×⅞		194.9		183.8
830.4		6×6×½	14×½	140.9	47.6	183.8
853.1		6×4×½	14×⅝	127.3	59.5	118.1
872.9		6×6×½	16×½	140.9	54.4	183.8
901.8		6×6×½	14×⅝	140.9	59.5	183.8
934.9		6×4×⅝	14×⅝	142.5	59.5	118.1
954.9		6×6×½	16×⅝	140.9	68.0	183.8
973.2		6×6×½	14×¾	140.9	71.4	183.8
988.1		6×4×⅝	16×⅝	142.5	68.0	118.1
995.3		6×6×⅝	14×⅝	159.3	59.5	183.8
1 006.2		6×4×⅝	14×¾	142.5	71.4	118.1
1 048.4		6×6×⅝	16×⅝	159.3	68.0	183.8
1 066.2		6×6×⅝	14×¾	159.3	71.4	183.8
1 084.1		6×4×¾	14×¾	156.9	71.4	118.1

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* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

† For explanation of table, see page 706.

Table IV*† (Continued). Elements of Riveted Plate Girders

Section-modulus, axis 1-1, in³	Sizes			Weight per foot		Maximum end-reaction in thousands of pounds
	Web-plate, in	Flange-angles, in	Flange-plates, in	Web-plate and flange-angles, lb	Flange-plates, lb	
1 129.9	42×⅞	6×6×⅝	16×¾	159.3	81.6	183.8
1 147.9		6×4×¾	16×¾	156.9	81.6	118.1
1 156.0		6×6×¾	14×¾	177.3	71.4	183.8
1 211.6		6×6×⅝	16×⅞	159.3	95.2	183.8
1 219 8		6×6×¾	16×¾	177.3	81.6	183.8
1 300.9		6×6×¾	16×⅞	177.3	95.2	183.8
1 387.3		6×6×⅞	16×⅞	194.9	95.2	183.8
513.5	42×½	6×4×½		136.2		135.0
563.5		6×6×½		149.8		210.0
597.7		6×4×⅝		151.4		135.0
659.8		6×6×⅝		168.2		210.0
678.4		6×4×¾		165.8		135.0
752 8		6×6×¾		186.2		210.0
755 8		6×4×⅞		180.2		135.0
799 2		6×4×½	14×½	136.2	47.6	135.0
841.7		6×4×½	16×½	136.2	54.4	135.0
842.7		6×6×⅞		203.8		210.0
848.1		6×6×½	14×½	149.8	47.6	210.0
870 8		6×4×½	14×⅝	136.2	59.5	135.0
890 6		6×6×½	16×½	149.8	54.4	210.0
919 4		6×6×½	14×⅝	149.8	59.5	210.0
952.6		6×4×⅝	14×⅝	151.4	59.5	135.0
972.6		6×6×½	16×⅝	149.8	68.0	210.0
990.8		6×6×½	14×¾	149.8	71.4	210.0
1 005.7		6×4×⅝	16×⅝	151.4	68.0	135.0
1 012.9		6×6×⅝	14×⅝	168.2	59.5	210.0
1 023.7		6×4×⅝	14×¾	151.4	71.4	135.0
1 066.0		6×6×⅝	16×⅝	168.2	68.0	210.0
1 083.7		6×6×⅝	14×¾	168.2	71.4	210.0
1 101.7		6×4×¾	14×¾	165.8	71.4	135.0
1 147.5		6×6×⅝	16×¾	168.2	81.6	210.0
1 165.4		6×4×¾	16×¾	165.8	81.6	135.0
1 173.6		6×6×¾	14×¾	186.2	71.4	210.0
1 229.0		6×6×⅝	16×⅞	168.2	95.2	210.0
1 237.4		6×6×¾	16×¾	186.2	81.6	210.0
1 318.4		6×6×¾	16×⅞	186.2	95.2	210.0
1 321.2		6×4×⅞	16×⅞	180.2	95.2	135.0
1 404.7		6×6×⅞	16×⅞	203.8	95.2	210.0
466.9	48×⅜	6×4×⅜		110.4		121.5
512.7		6×6×⅜		120.8		180.0
567.4		6×4×½		126.0		121.5
628.9		6×6×½		139.6		180.0
664.9		6×4×⅝		141.2		121.5

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* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

† For explanation of table, see page 706.

Table IV[*][†] (Continued). Elements of Riveted Plate Girders

Section-modulus, axis 1-1, in³	Sizes			Weight per foot		Maximum end-reaction in thousands of pounds
	Web-plate, in	Flange-angles, in	Flange-plates, in	Web-plate and flange-angles, lb	Flange-plates, lb	
714.4	48×⅜	6×4×⅜	14×⅜	110.4	35.7	121.5
741.3		6×6×⅝		158.0		180.0
750.8		6×4×⅜	16×⅜	110.4	40.8	121.5
758.5		6×4×¾		155.6		121.5
759.5		6×6×⅜	14×⅜	120.8	35.7	180.0
795.9		6×6×⅜	16×⅜	120.8	40.8	180.0
797.0		6×4×⅜	14×½	110.4	47.6	121.5
841.9		6×6×⅜	14×½	120.8	47.6	180.0
848.3		6×4×⅞		170.0		121.5
850.1		6×6×¾		176.0		180.0
890.4		6×6×⅜	16×½	120.8	54.4	180.0
895.5		6×4×½	14×½	126.0	47.6	121.5
924.3		6×6×⅜	14×⅝	120.8	59.5	180.0
944.0		6×4×½	16×½	126.0	54.4	121.5
955.2		6×6×⅞		193.6		180.0
955.8		6×6×½	14×½	139.6	47.6	180.0
977.7		6×4×½	14×⅝	126.0	59.5	121.5
1 004.3		6×6×½	16×½	139.6	54.4	180.0
1 037.6		6×6×½	14×⅝	139.6	59.5	180.0
1 072.7		6×4×⅝	14×⅝	141.2	59.5	121.5
1 098.2		6×6×½	16×⅝	139.6	68.0	180.0
1 119.5		6×6×½	14×¾	139.6	71.4	180.0
1 133.3		6×4×⅝	16×⅝	141.2	68.0	121.5
1 147.1		6×6×⅝	14×⅝	158.0	59.5	180.0
1 154.4		6×4×⅝	14×¾	141.2	71.4	121.5
1 207.8		6×6×⅝	16×⅝	158.0	68.0	180.0
1 228.4		6×6×⅝	14×¾	158.0	71.4	180.0
1 245.2		6×4×¾	14×¾	155.6	71.4	121.5
1 301.2		6×6×⅝	16×¾	158.0	81.6	180.0
1 317.9		6×4×¾	16×¾	155.6	81.6	121.5
1 334.0		6×6×¾	14×¾	176.0	71.4	180.0
1 394.7		6×6×⅝	16×⅞	158.0	95.2	180.0
1 406.7		6×6×¾	16×¾	176.0	81.6	180.0
1 498.1		6×4×⅞	16×⅞	170.0	95.2	121.5
1 499.7		6×6×¾	16×⅞	176.0	95.2	180.0
1 601.3		6×6×⅞	16×⅞	193.6	95.2	180.0
591.2	48×7/16	6×4×½		136.2		141.8
652.7		6×6×½		149.8		210.0
688.7		6×4×⅝		151.4		141.8
765.0		6×6×⅝		168.2		210.0
782.3		6×4×¾		165.8		141.8
872.1		6×4×⅞		180.2		141.8
873.8		6×6×¾		186.2		210.0

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[*] From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

[†] For explanation of table, see page 706.

Table IV*† (Continued). Elements of Riveted Plate Girders

ection-dulus, is 1-1, in³	Sizes			Weight per foot		Maximum end-reaction in thousands of pounds
	Web-plate, in	Flange-angles, in	Flange-plates, in	Web-plate and flange-angles, lb	Flange-plates, lb	
918.8	48×7/16	6×4×½	14×½	136.2	47.6	141.8
967.3		6×4×½	16×½	136.2	54.4	141.8
979.0		6×6×⅞		203.8		210.0
979.0		6×6×½	14×½	149.8	47.6	210.0
1 000.8		6×4×½	14×⅝	136.2	59.5	141.8
1 027.6		6×6×½	16×½	149.8	54.4	210.0
1 060.8		6×6×½	14×⅝	149.8	59.5	210.0
1 095.8		6×4×⅝	14×⅝	151.4	59.5	141.8
1 121.4		6×6×½	16×⅝	149.8	68.0	210.0
1 142.5		6×6×½	14×¾	149.8	71.4	210.0
1 156.5		6×4×⅝	16×⅝	151.4	68.0	141.8
1 170.3		6×6×⅝	14×⅝	168.2	59.5	210.0
1 177.4		6×4×⅝	14×¾	151.4	71.4	141.8
1 230.9		6×6×⅝	16×⅝	168.2	68.0	210.0
1 251.5		6×6×⅝	14×¾	168.2	71.4	210.0
1 268.2		6×4×¾	14×¾	165.8	71.4	141.8
1 324.3		6×6×⅝	16×¾	168.2	81.6	210.0
1 341.0		6×4×¾	16×¾	165.8	81.6	141.8
1 357.0		6×6×¾	14×¾	186.2	71.4	210.0
1 417.7		6×6×⅝	16×⅞	168.2	95.2	210.0
1 429.8		6×6×¾	16×¾	186.2	81.6	210.0
1 521.0		6×4×⅞	16×⅞	180.2	95.2	141.8
1 522.7		6×6×¾	16×⅞	186.2	95.2	210.0
1 624.2		6×6×⅞	16×⅞	203.8	95.2	210.0
615.0	48×½	6×4×½		146.4		162.0
676.4		6×6×½		160.0		240.0
712.4		6×4×⅝		161.6		162.0
788.8		6×6×⅝		178.4		240.0
806.0		6×4×¾		176.0		162.0
895.8		6×4×⅞		190.4		162.0
897.6		6×6×¾		196.4		240.0
942.1		6×4×½	14×½	146.4	47.6	162.0
990.6		6×4×½	16×½	146.4	54.4	162.0
1 002.3		6×6×½	14×½	160.0	47.6	240.0
1 002.7		6×6×⅞		214.0		240.0
1 024.0		6×4×½	14×⅝	146.4	59.5	162.0
1 050.8		6×6×½	16×½	160.0	54.4	240.0
1 083.9		6×6×½	14×⅝	160.0	59.5	240.0
1 119.0		6×4×⅝	14×⅝	161.6	59.5	162.0
1 144.5		6×6×½	16×⅝	160.0	68.0	240.0
1 165.6		6×6×½	14×¾	160.0	71.4	240.0
1 179.6		6×4×⅝	16×⅝	161.6	68.0	162.0
1 193.4		6×6×⅝	14×⅝	178.4	59.5	240.0

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

† For explanation of table, see page 706.

Table IV*† (Continued). Elements of Riveted Plate Girders

Section-modulus, axis 1-1, in^3	Sizes			Weight per foot		Maximum end-reaction in thousands of pounds
	Web-plate, in	Flange-angles, in	Flange-plates, in	Web-plate and flange-angles, lb	Flange-plates, lb	
1 200.5	48×½	6×4×⅝	14×¾	161.6	71.4	162.0
1 254.1		6×6×⅝	16×⅝	178.4	68.0	240.0
1 274.5		6×6×⅝	14×¾	178.4	71.4	240.0
1 291.2		6×4×¾	14×¾	176.0	71.4	162.0
1 347.3		6×6×⅝	16×¾	178.4	81.6	240.0
1 364.0		6×4×¾	16×¾	176.0	81.6	162.0
1 380.0		6×6×¾	14×¾	196.4	71.4	240.0
1 440.6		6×6×⅝	16×⅞	178.4	95.2	240.0
1 452.8		6×6×¾	16×¾	196.4	81.6	240.0
1 543.9		6×4×⅞	16×⅞	190.4	95.2	162.0
1 545.6		6×6×¾	16×⅞	196.4	95.2	240.0
1 647.1		6×6×⅞	16×⅞	214.0	95.2	240.0

* From Pocket Companion, 1915 Edition, Carnegie Steel Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.
† For explanation of table, see page 706.

CHAPTER XXI

STRENGTH AND STIFFNESS OF WOODEN FLOORS

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The Problems Stated. The problems which are presented in this part of building-construction are, in general, (1) the designing of the joists and girders forming the framework of the floor to safely support the greatest load likely to come upon it, and (2) the determination of the maximum safe load for a floor already built. The first of these problems is the one with which architects and builders more commonly have to deal, and is, therefore, considered first.

Layout of the Floor-Framing. Before any calculations can be made for the sizes of the timbers it is necessary to know the spans of the joists, and, if there are openings in the floor, or the floor-joists have to support longitudinal partitions, a framing-plan should be made, showing the floor-area that will be supported by each joist, and also the position of partitions or special loads. If the floor is to be supported by posts and girders the position of these should also be accurately indicated on the framing-plan.* Where the joists are supported entirely by walls or partitions, the spans of the joists will of course be fixed by the plan of the building. When the distance between a wall and a partition is too great for a single span, there may be a question as to the best locations for the posts and girders. When planning a building in which wooden joists are to be used, it is important to keep in mind the general scheme of the floor-framing and particularly the spans. Whenever practicable the spans of wooden joists should not exceed 24 ft. When the distance between the supporting walls exceeds 30 ft, girders should be placed so that the maximum span of the joists will not exceed 24 ft for light buildings nor from 16 to 18 ft for warehouses.

In School Buildings it is desirable to have the rooms at least 27 ft wide, and hence in this class of buildings the joists usually have spans of from 27 to 30 ft. For a span of 30 ft, however, 16-in joists should be used, and as these are expensive, and often difficult to obtain, it is much better and more economical to make the schoolrooms 27 by 32 or 34 ft, than to make them 30 ft square. A schoolroom 27 ft wide by from 32 to 34 ft long, with windows on the long side, only, is economical and satisfactory, as it permits of using 3 by 14-in joists, 28 ft long, and also results in the most satisfactory lighting.

Continuous Joists. When joists are supported by a girder placed so that a 24-ft or 26-ft joist extends over the two spans, it is always better to have the joists continuous over the girder, as by that construction they make a much stiffer floor. (See Chapter XIX.)

Floor-Loads. Having decided on the arrangement of the joists, and drawn a framing-plan showing the span and the locations of all special timbers, the next step involves the determination of the loads for which the joists and girders are to be proportioned. Floor-loads are made up of two parts, the weight of materials composing the floor itself, and the ceiling below, if there is one; and the load liable to be put on the floor. The first is called the DEAD LOAD, and the second the LIVE LOAD. When the SAFE LOAD for a floor is spoken of the live load is generally meant.

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* For a detailed description of the manner of framing wooden floors the reader is referred to Building Construction and Superintendence, Part II, Carpenters' Work, by F. E. Kidder.

Weight of Wooden Floor-Construction. Wooden floors usually consist of (1) beams, commonly called JOISTS,* or FLOOR-JOISTS, (2) one or two thcknesses of flooring-boards, and, in a finished building, (3) a ceiling underneath the joists. In figuring the weight of ⅞-in flooring-boards it will be sufficiently accurate to estimate the weight of a single thickness at 3 lb per sq ft. The joists may also be figured at 3 lb per ft, board-measure, with the exception of hard-pine and oak joists, which should be figured at 4 lb per ft, board-measure. The weight of the joists must also be reduced to their equivalent weight per square foot of floor. Thus, the weight of a 2 by 12-in joist is about 6 lb per lin ft. If the joists are spaced 12 in on centers, this will be equal to 6 lb per sq ft; but if the joists are 16 in on centers there will be but one lineal foot of joist to every 1⅓ sq ft, which will be equivalent to 4⅞ lb per sq ft; and if they are 20 in on centers, the weight will be equal to 3⅓ lb per sq ft; spaced 24 in on centers, the weight will be 3 lb per sq ft. The weight of a lath-and-plaster ceiling should be taken at 10 lb per sq ft, and of a ¾-in wooden ceiling at 2½ lb per sq ft. A corrugated-iron ceiling weighs about 1 lb per sq ft. For stamped-steel ceilings, 2 lb per sq ft will cover the weight of the metal and furring. The following table, giving the weight of joists, will be found convenient in figuring the weight of floors:

Table I. Weight of Floor-Joists per Square Foot of Floor

Sizes of joists	Spruce, hemlock, white pine		Hard pine or oak	
	Spacing in inches, center to center		Spacing in inches, center to center	
	12	16	12	16
in	lb	lb	lb	lb
2× 6	3	2¼	4	3
2× 8	4	3	5⅓	4
3× 8	6	4½	8	6
2×10	5	3¾	6⅔	5
3×10	7½	5½	10	7½
2×12	6	4½	8	6
3×12	9	6¾	12	9
2×14	7	5¼	9⅓	7
3×14	10½	8½	14	10½

Weight of Crowds. I J. Johnson reports† results of some tests to ascertain the weight of crowds of men, in which he obtained weights of 134.2, 143.9,

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* Some building laws use the term FLOOR-BEAM instead of the word JOIST.

† See Engineering News, April 14, 1904.

148.1 and 156.9 lb per sq ft. The last-mentioned weight was obtained by packing 67 men in a room about 6 by 11 ft in size. Professor Johnson also found that with 50 men in the room, making a load of 122 lb per sq ft, the crowd was compacted "so that a man could elbow his way through it only with perseverance and determined effort."

Superimposed Loads. There is much difference of opinion as to what allowance should be made for the live load. Table II shows the minimum allowance for live loads for different classes of buildings, as fixed by the building laws of the cities mentioned. (See, also, page 149.)

Table II. Minimum Safe Superimposed Loads for Floors, Required by Various Building Laws

Classes of buildings	Minimum live load per square foot of floor					
	Buffalo, 1905	Boston, 1912	Chicago, 1911	Philadelphia, 1913	New York, 1906	St. Louis, 1910
Dwellings	40	50	40	70	60	60
Hotels, tenements and lodging-houses	70	50	50	70	60	60
Office-buildings	70	100	50	100	75 *	70 *
Buildings for public assembly	100	200	100	120	90	100 †
Stores, warehouses and mfg. bldgs.	120 ‡	125 ‡	100 ‡	120 ‡	120 ‡	150 ‡

* First floor, 150 lb. † Also schoolhouses. ‡ And upwards.

It was the opinion of Mr. Kidder that the following allowances for floor-loads, taken in connection with the values given for the safe strength of joists or beams, provide absolute safety with proper allowance for economy.

	Lb per sq ft
For dwellings, sleeping-rooms and lodging-rooms	40
For schoolrooms	50
For office-buildings, upper stories	60
For office-buildings, first story	80
For stables and carriage-houses	65
For banking-rooms, churches and theaters	80
For assembly-halls, dancing-halls and the corridors of all public buildings, including hotels	120
For drill-rooms	150

Live Loads for Stores and Buildings for Light Manufacturing. Floors for ordinary stores, light manufacturing and light storage should be computed for not less than 120 lb per sq ft, and for a concentrated load at any point of 4 000 lb.

Live Loads for Dwellings, etc. Floors of dwellings, tenements, lodging-houses and rooms in hotels, are seldom loaded with more than 20 lb per sq ft for the entire area, and a minimum load of 40 lb per sq ft should provide for all possible contingencies.

Live Loads for Office-Buildings. The floors of offices are, as a rule, not more heavily loaded than the floors of dwellings, but the possibilities for increased loads from safes and heavy furniture, and possibly from a more compact crowd of people, are greater, so that the minimum floor-load for offices should be somewhat increased. Some years ago the firm of Blackall & Everett, in Boston, found that the average live load in 210 offices, in three prominent office-buildings in that city, was between 16 and 17 lb per sq ft, while the average load for the 10 heaviest office-buildings was 33.3 lb per sq ft. As such loads, however, are as a rule unevenly distributed, some portions of the floor being generally much more heavily loaded than others, it would not appear to be safe to use this average to determine the strength of floor-beams and floor-arches, although it would probably answer for the columns. There seems to be a considerable difference of opinion among the leading architects and structural engineers as to just what allowance should be made for office-floors. Among some of the earlier fire-proof office-buildings, for example, may be mentioned the former Mills Building in San Francisco in which the live loads were assumed at 40 lb per sq ft for all floors above the first. In the Venetian Building, Chicago, the second, third and fourth floors were calculated for 60, and the upper floors for 35 lb per sq ft of live load, while in the Old Colony and Fort Dearborn Buildings in Chicago, the live loads on the floor-beams were assumed at 70 lb per sq ft. At the present time (1915), 50, 60, 70, 75, 100 and 150 lb per sq ft are the minimum live loads for the design of floors of office-buildings required by the building laws of six different cities. C. C. Schneider recommends* for the design of floors of office-buildings above the first floor, for the uniform load of the floor-area, 50; for concentrated loads applied at any point of the floor, 5 000; and for the uniform load for girders, 1 000; the 50 being in pounds per sq ft, the 5 000 in pounds and the 1 000 in pounds per linear foot.

Live Loads for Churches, Theaters and School-Houses. "An allowance of 120 lb per sq ft for the live load in churches, theaters and school-houses is much greater than the actual conditions require. The average size of a schoolroom is about 28 by 32 ft, and such a room usually contains seats for fifty-six scholars and the teacher. Assuming the average weight of each scholar at 120 lb, the average live load, including ten visiting adults and the desks and furniture, is 13 lb per sq ft. Even supposing that the scholars of two rooms were united for some special occasion, there would be only 22 lb per sq ft; and this is as great a load as it is possible to imagine in such a room, as the fixed desks prevent the crowding together of the scholars except at the sides of the room. From this reasoning, therefore, 50 lb per sq ft would appear ample for schoolrooms. As a matter of fact, 3 by 14-in long-leaf yellow-pine joists, 16 in on centers and with a 28-ft span, have been used for school-room floors for years; but such beams, if calculated by the formula for stiffness, would support a live load of only 43 lb per sq ft. (Table XII, page 643 and Table I, page 718.) The minimum floor-space allotted to a single seat in theaters is 4 sq ft, while the average is about 5 sq ft. Assuming the weight of an opera-chair at 35 lb and of the average adult at 140 lb, a liberal allowance, there results an average of 44 lb per sq ft of floor. A minimum of 80 lb per sq ft would therefore seem to provide for any possible crowding during a panic, except in corridors. On the other hand, it has been shown (see Weight of Crowds, page 718) that a crowd of able-bodied men may result in a load of about 120 lb per sq ft, and this should be the minimum for assembly-halls without fixed desks and also for the corridors of all public buildings. For armories, the minimum load should be increased on account of the vibration." †

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* "General Specifications for Structural Work of Buildings," 1910, page 57.

† F. E. Kidder.

The Average Floor-Loads for Stores has also been greatly over-estimated. W. L. B. Jenney found that the average load on the floors of the wholesale warehouse of Marshall Field & Company, in Chicago, was but 50 lb per sq ft, and very few retail stores will average over 80 lb per sq ft. An allowance of 120 lb per sq ft is sufficient for ordinary retail stores, with the possible exception of hardware stores.

Live Loads for Warehouses. Warehouses, on the other hand, may be very heavily loaded, and the floors in buildings intended for the storage of merchandise should be proportioned to the especial class of goods which they are designed to support. Table III, originally compiled by C. J. H. Woodbury,[*] and to which some additions have been made by the Insurance Engineering Experiment Station and by Mr. Kidder, will be found of assistance in deciding upon the live load to be assumed for warehouse-floors. The weights per square foot are for single packages. If the goods are piled two or more cases high, the weight per square foot of floor will of course be increased accordingly. In fact, the height to which the goods are liable to be piled is a very important consideration in fixing upon the floor-load. In Table III "the measurements were always taken to the outside of case or package, and gross weights of such packages are given."

Methods of Determining the Sizes of Joists, Beams or Girders Required for Any Building. As already explained, the first step is the making of a framing-plan of the floors or enough of it to show any special framing and also the span and floor-area supported by the different joists, beams or girders.

Table III. Weights of Merchandise

Materials	Measurements		Weights		
	Floor-space, sq ft	Contents, cu ft	Total, lb	Per sq ft	Per cu ft
WOOL					
Bale, East India	3.0	12.0	340	113	28
Bale, Australia	5.8	26.0	385	66	15
Bale, South America	7.0	34.0	1 000	143	29
Bale, Oregon	6.9	33.0	482	70	15
Bale, California	7.5	33.0	550	73	17
Bag, wool	5.0	30.0	200	40	7
Stack of scoured wool	......	......	......	......	5
WOOLLEN GOODS					
Case, flannels	5.5	12.7	220	40	17
Case, flannels, heavy	7.1	15.2	330	46	22
Case, dress goods	5.5	22.0	460	84	21
Case, cashmeres	10.5	28.0	550	52	20
Case, underwear	7.3	21.0	350	48	16
Case, blankets	10.3	35.0	450	44	13
Case, horse-blankets	4.0	14.0	250	63	18

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[*] The Fire Protection of Mills, page 118.

only single flooring will be used in the second story and attic. We will assume that the attic-joists are to be 2 by 8 in, 16 in on centers, and that the width of floor supported by the partition is 10 ft.

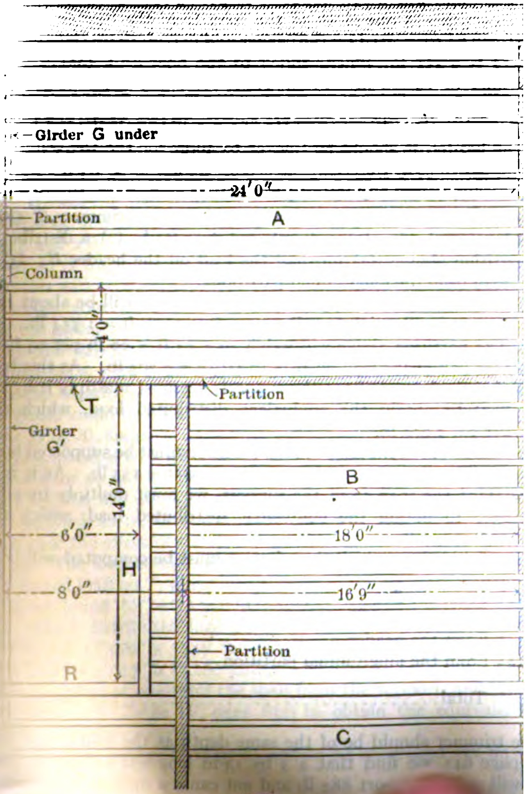
The second-floor area supported by a single joist is 12 in by 15 ft, or 15 sq ft. The weight of the floor-joists per sq ft is 5 lb, of the plastered ceiling 10 lb and of the flooring 3 lb, making the dead load per sq ft 18 lb. For the live or superimposed load we should allow 40 lb and hence the load per square foot on each second-floor joist due to the second floor and its load is 58 lb. As the floor-area for a single joist is 15 sq ft the load from the second floor is 15 sq ft by 58 lb per sq ft or 870 lb on each joist. We must now find what will be the load from the partition and attic-floor. The attic-floor and ceiling weigh about 16 lb per sq ft, and 24 lb is a sufficient allowance for the live load. The weight per linear foot on the partition will therefore be 400 lb. A partition of 2 by 4-in studs, lathed and plastered on both sides, weighs about 20 lb per sq ft of face; hence the partition itself weighs 180 lb per lin ft. The partition and attic-floor, therefore, bring a load of 580 lb on each second-floor joist, CONCENTRATED at a point ONE-FOURTH of the span from the inner end of the joist. To combine this concentrated load with the load from the second floor, we must multiply the concentrated load by 1.5 (Table IV, page 632), which gives an equivalent distributed load of 870 lb. Adding this to the second-floor load we have 1 740 lb as the total load for which each joist should be proportioned. From Table VIII, page 639, we find that the safe load for a 1 by 10-in spruce joist of 15-ft span is 518 lb; hence the breadth of each joist should be equal to 1 740/518 = 3.36 or about 3⅜ in. Deeper joists, therefore, must be used. If we try 2 by 12-in joists, 12 in on centers, the safe load for a 1 by 10-in spruce joist of 15-ft span is 747 lb. Hence the breadth is 1 755/747 = 2.35 or about 2⅜ in, indicating 2⅜ by 12-in joists, 12 in on centers. If the fiber-stress is assumed at 800 lb per sq in, the values of Table X, page 641, may be used. This will give, for 2 by 12-in joists, 12 in on centers and 15-ft span, 850 lb for the safe load for a 1 by 12-in joist; and 1 755/850 = about 2 in. The load per sq ft on each of these joists is 1 755/15 = 117 lb; and Tables XVI and XXV, pages 739 and 744, give 16 ft 6 in and 16 ft 1 in for the maximum safe spans.

Example 3. It is required to determine the sizes of the girders and joists in the floor shown in Fig. 3, all of the timbers being of long-leaf yellow pine, and the floor above being supported by posts and girders in the same way. The building is intended for lodging purposes, and the height of the story is 10 ft. There is to be a double floor and the ceilings and partitions are to be plastered. The floor-joists are to be spaced 16 in on centers.

Solution. We will first determine the size of the common joists at *A*, calling the span 24 ft. The floor-area supported by a single joist is 24 by 1⅓ ft, or 32 sq ft.

From Table XIII or XXII, pages 737 and 742, for a 24-ft span, 2½ by 14-in joists are probably required. We will allow 8¾ lb per sq ft for the weight of joists and bridging (Table I, page 718), 10 for the ceiling and 6 for the flooring, making 24¾ lb per sq ft for the dead load. For the live load we will allow 40 lb per sq ft. The load for which the joists should be proportioned is, therefore, 32 by 64¾ or 2 072 lb. We may use Table XII, page 643, to find the maximum load for a 1 by 14-in joist of 24-ft span. The deflection-load given in the table is 882 lb; hence the thickness of the joists must equal 2 072/882 = 2.35 or about 2⅜ in. Therefore 2½ by 14-in long-leaf yellow-pine joists, 16 in on centers, may be used, but they should run full 2⅜ in thick. The joists at *B* (Fig. 3) have to support a partition, but as the span is much less, and the

near the end of the joists, it will be safe to make them o
f.
(Fig. 3) have the same floor-load to support as at *A*, a
ght of the partition, which is concentrated at one-third o
pport. As the partition is 10 ft high, 13⅓ sq ft of partition
each joist, the joists being 16 in on centers. Assuming



Plan of Floor-frami [illegible] Partitio

weight of the [illegible] ave
borne by each [illegible] the
multiply by [illegible] ge
therefore, sh [illegible] d
68 = 2 540 lb, [illegible] in
joists.

The Header. We will next determine the required breadth for the header, *H* (Fig. 3), the depth being necessarily 14 in, the same as for the joists.

The header is 14 ft long and must support the floor half-way to the wall, or a floor-area of 14 by 9 ft, or 126 sq ft. Multiplying this area by 64¾ lb, the weight per square foot, we have 8 159 lb, the total floor-load to be supported, to which must be added a certain percentage of the partition. The portion of the partition supported by the header is (14 ft − 1 ft 4 in) = 12 ft 8 in long and 10 ft high, and will weigh about 20 lb per sq ft of face, or a total of 2 532 lb. As the partition is one-ninth of the span from the header, eight-ninths of its weight will be supported by the header and one-ninth by the wall. Eight-ninths of 2 532 is 2 251 lb, which, added to the floor-load, makes a total load for the header of 10 410 lb. From Table XII, page 643, we find that the safe load for a 1 by 14-in beam of long-leaf yellow pine, 14-ft span, is 1 867 lb; hence it will require a breadth of 10 410/1 867 = 5.58 in. If the tail-beams are framed into the header, it should be thicker to allow for the weakening effects of the framing; so that, in this case, the header should be at least 6 by 14 in in actual cross-section, before any framing is done.

The Trimmers. We will next consider the trimmer, *T* (Fig. 3). This beam has four loads: (1) a distributed floor-load; (2) a distributed load from the partition above; (3) one-half the load on the header *H*; (4) and a small direct load from the longitudinal partition.

(1) The strip of floor supported by the trimmer will be about 12 in wide and 24 ft long, and will weigh 64¾ lb per sq ft × 24 sq ft = 1 554 lb.

(2) The partition above will weigh 10 × 24 ft × 20 lb per sq ft = 4 800 lb.

(3) One-half of the load on *H* is 10 410/2 = 5 205 lb. As this is concentrated at one-fourth the span from the support, we must multiply it by 1.5 (Table IV, page 632) to obtain the equivalent distributed load, which then becomes 5 205 × 1.5 = 7 808 lb.

(4) About 8 in of the longitudinal partition must be supported by the trimmer, and this will weigh 10 × ⅔ ft × 20 lb per sq ft = 133 lb. As it is concentrated at one-third the span from the support, we must multiply by 1.78 (Table IV, page 632) to obtain the equivalent distributed load, which then becomes 133 × 1.78 = 237 lb.

The total load for which the trimmer must be computed will be, therefore:

(1) From the floor	1 554 lb
(2) From the partition above	4 800 lb
(3) From the header	7 808 lb
(4) From the longitudinal partition	237 lb
Total	14 399 lb

The trimmer should be of the same depth as the joists, 14 in. From Table XII, page 643, we find that a 1 by 14-in long-leaf yellow-pine beam of 24-ft span will safely support 882 lb and not cause a deflection of more than 1/360 of the span. Hence, the breadth of the trimmer would be 14 399/882 = 16.34 in, which is greater than the depth. This would suggest the substitution of a steel I beam of proper size or the use of a deeper wooden beam, such as an 11 by 16 or a 12 by 16-in beam. If the deflection of the wooden beam is not taken into account, the strength-value, 1 090 lb of Table XII, page 643, may be used, giving 14 399/1 090 = 13.21 in as the width of the beam. This would agree with the New York Building Laws for strength. If the flexure fiber-stress is taken at 1 300 lb per sq in, permitted by the Chicago code, Table XIII, page 14, may be used, giving 14 399/1 179 = 12.21 in for the width of the trimmer.

If 1 800 lb per sq in is taken for *S*, Table XV, page 646, is used, giving 14 399/1 633 = 8.81 in for the width. Hence, the architect will be governed by laws in cities, or by engineering judgment or experience elsewhere, and this applies to the joists as well as to the girders. If wooden trimmers are used, they should be hung in beam-hangers (see last part of this chapter). The load on the trimmer, *R*, will be the same as on the trimmer, *T*, except for the cross-partition. Deducting the weight of this partition, we have 14 399 − 4 800 = 9 599 lb for the equivalent distributed load on *R*, which, from Table XII, page 643, gives, for the required breadth 10.88 in or 8.8 in, depending upon whether the deflection is or is not considered. Other variations in the required width of a 14-in wooden girder will result from the use of other fiber-stresses.

The Girders. The floor-area supported by the girder, *G* (Fig. 3), is equal to 12 by 24 ft, or 288 sq ft. As a general rule, it will be safe in estimating the live load on girders to take only 85% of the load assumed for the floor-beams, because there will always be some portion of the floor supported by the girder that is not loaded, and probably other portions that will not be loaded up to the assumed load. Hence, the live load would be 85% of 40 lb, or 34 lb. The dead load of the floor and ceiling will be about 25 lb, and the girder itself will weigh between 1 and 2 lb per sq ft, say 2 lb per sq ft of floor, more, so that we will use 61 lb per sq ft for the total floor-load on this girder. As girder *G* supports 288 sq ft, this will be equivalent to 17 568 lb. The girder supports, also, a partition, 9 ft high, above, which will weigh 12 × 9 × 20 = 2 160 lb. The total load for which the girder should be proportioned is, therefore, 19 728 lb. Assuming 14 in for the depth of the girder, we find from Table XII, page 643, that the safe load for a 1 by 14-in long-leaf yellow-pine beam of 12-ft span is 1 867 lb; hence the breadth of girder, *G*, should be 19 728/1 867 = 10.56 in and an 11 by 14-in girder could be used.

The girder, *G'* (Fig. 3), supports a floor-area at the left of 12 × 12 = 144 sq ft, which represents a distributed load of 8 784 lb. On the right side of the girder there is a strip of floor 40 in wide by 12 ft long (8 in of the floor being included in the load on *T*) which will weigh 2 440 lb. This may be considered as a concentrated load applied 20 in, or one-seventh the span, from the end of the girder, in which case the effect of the load is practically the same as if the load were distributed. The load coming upon girder *G'* from *T* will equal one-half the actual distributed load on *T*, plus three-eighths (½ of ¾) of the load on *H*. The load on *H* we found to be 10 410 lb, and three-eighths of this is about 3 900 lb. The actual distributed load on *T* we found to be 1 554 + 4 800 = 6 354 lb, and one-half of this is 3 177 lb. Hence the trimmer, *T*, transmits a load of 3 900 + 3 177 = 7 077 lb to the girder, which must be considered as a concentrated load applied at one-third the span from the support, and hence we must multiply it by 1.78 (Table IV, page 632) to obtain the equivalent distributed load, which gives 12 597 lb.

The load for which the girder, *G'* (Fig. 3), should be computed will be

From the floor at the left	8 784 lb
From the floor at the right	2 440 lb
From the trimmer, *T*	12 597 lb
From the partition above	2 160 lb
Total	25 981 lb

From Table XII, page 643, we find that this load will require a (13.9 by 14-in) 14 by 14-in girder. For this floor, therefore, the requirements, if long-leaf yellow pine is used, and if the maximum flexure fiber-stress, *S*, is taken at 1 200 lb per sq in (the value in the New York City building law, for example) and the modulus of elasticity, E, at 1 500 000 lb per sq in, are as follows: an 11 by 14-in girder at G; a 14 by 14-in girder at G'; an 11 by 16, or 12 by 16-in wooden beam or a steel I beam for the trimmer, T; an 11 by 14-in beam for the trimmer, R; a 6 by 14-in beam for the header, H; 2½ by 14-in joists at A and B; and 3 by 14-in joists at C. For these stress-requirements the architect might decide to use steel I beams for girders G, G', etc., and for the trimmers, T and R. For Chicago, Table XIII, page 644, may be used for long-leaf yellow pine; for Boston or New Orleans, Table XIV, page 645; for Baltimore, Buffalo, Milwaukee and New Haven, Table XV, page 646; and for Philadelphia and Minneapolis, Table XII, page 643, with the strength-values increased one-third. Of course, the sizes of the timbers are diminished as the assumed safe fiber-stresses are increased. .

This example illustrates nearly all of the computations that are required to determine the sizes of the joists and special beams or girders in any ordinary floor-construction. The method of computation is the same for any floor-load, the only difference being that the greater the live load assumed the greater will be the loads for which the beams must be proportioned. As will be seen, the most laborious computations are those for beams which receive loads from different sources, and it will generally be found that the weakest portions of any particular floor are the headers, trimmers and girders, and the beams which support partitions.

The Strength of Mill-Floors. The beams and girders for mill-floors should be computed by the same general method illustrated in the foregoing examples, involving, (1) the determination of the loads on the beams and girders and, (2) the sizes of the beams and girders required to support such loads.

Required Thickness of Plank Flooring. The thickness of the plank flooring in mill construction may be determined by formulas (1) and (2):

$$\left.\begin{array}{r}\text{Thickness of plank in in}\\ \text{required for strength}\end{array}\right\} = \sqrt{\frac{\text{weight per sq ft} \times l^2}{24 \times A}} \qquad (1)$$

$$\left.\begin{array}{r}\text{Thickness of plank in in}\\ \text{required for stiffness}\end{array}\right\} = \sqrt[3]{\frac{\text{weight per sq ft} \times l^3}{19.2 \times e_1}} \qquad (2)$$

In these formulas, l is the span in feet, from center to center of beams, A the constants for strength (page 628), and e_1 the constant for stiffness (page 664).

When the planks are connected by ¾-in splines, and extend over two spans, Formula (1) may be used. If the planks are in single lengths from beam to beam, or are not splined, then Formula (2) should be used.

Tables IV to XI,* inclusive, show the safe loads for plank flooring of different woods, thicknesses and spans, derived from the formulas for strength and stiffness, the values in the first horizontal line in the case of each thickness of plank denoting the loads given by the formula for strength and the figures in the second line those given by the formula for stiffness. The span is supposed to be measured from center to center of beams. The values given by the formula for strength should be considered safe only for splined floors and where the planks are continuous over at least two spans. If the thickness of the planks falls short ¼ or even ⅛ in from the dimensions given, the safe loads must be materially reduced.

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* Tables VIII to XI, inclusive, were calculated by Mr. F. E. Kidder and are retained from the preceding edition of the Pocket-Book. Tables IV to VII, inclusive, are added to conform to the more conservative fiber-stresses of the building codes and of the other chapters of the new edition. In the judgment of many constructors the higher values of Tables VIII to XI are safe when the most favorable conditions of quality and dryness of materials prevail. In using any of the tables, care must be taken to notice whether or not the safe loads given include the weight of the flooring itself. In the revision of this chapter the author is indebted to Professor F. H. Safford, of the University of Pennsylvania, for the computations required for the new Tables IV to VII and for the checking of Tables VIII to XI.

In Table IV, the modulus of elasticity, E, on which e_1 in the stiffness-formula depends, is 1 500 000 lb per sq in, and the safe fiber-stress, S, on which the constant for strength, A, depends, is 1 200 lb per sq in, A being 67. The safe loads given are within the requirements of all cities for strength and stiffness for long-leaf yellow pine, and of Chicago and most other cities for Douglas fir.

In Table V, E is 1 200 000 lb per sq in, S, 1 000 lb per sq in, and A is 56. The loads given satisfy the requirements of Chicago and of most other cities for strength for short-leaf yellow pine. The values given for stiffness, also, are recommended for this wood.

In Table VI, E is 1 200 000 lb per sq in, S, 800 lb per sq in, and A is 44. The loads given satisfy the requirements of all cities for strength, for spruce, Norway pine and white pine, and the values given for stiffness, also, are recommended for spruce. For Norway pine, $E = 1\ 100\ 000$ lb per sq in may be used.

In Table VII, E is 1 000 000 lb per sq in, S, 700 lb per sq in, and A is 39. The loads given for strength can be used for any woods of that safe fiber-stress, and the loads for stiffness are recommended for white pine.

In Tables VIII, IX, X and XI, the safe loads are calculated from still other values of S, A, E and e_1, indicated with each table, and may be used by those who wish to assume larger safe values for the strength and stiffness-factors in cases where there are no restrictions from building laws. For any other values of A or e_1 required, such values must be inserted in Formula (1) or (2) and the thicknesses of the planks determined or the safe load determined for any given thickness of planks.

Table IV. Safe Live Loads* in Pounds per Square Foot for Plank Flooring

See explanation on pages 730–1. The loads are based on the following values. Strength: $S = 1\,200$ lb per sq in, $A = 67$; stiffness: $E = 1\,500\,000$ lb per sq in, $e_1 = 116$

LONG-LEAF YELLOW PINE AND DOUGLAS FIR

Thickness of planks, in	Distance between centers of floor-beams, in feet								
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1⅞	353	226	157	115	88	70	.....	.....	.....
	229	117	68	43	29	20	.....	.....	.....
2⅜	567	363	252	185	142	112	91	75	63
	466	239	138	87	58	41	30	22	17
2¾	760	486	338	248	190	150	122	100	84
	724	371	214	135	90	64	46	35	27
3½	.....	788	547	402	308	243	197	163	137
	.....	764	442	278	187	131	95	72	55
4	.....	.....	715	525	402	318	257	213	179
	.....	.....	660	416	278	196	143	107	82
5	.....	.....	.....	820	628	496	402	332	279
	.....	.....	.....	812	544	382	278	209	161
6	.....	.....	.....	.....	904	715	579	478	402
	.....	.....	.....	.....	940	660	481	361	278

* Weight of ceiling, if any, and also of the flooring itself is to be deducted from these values.

Table V. Safe Live Loads* in Pounds per Square Foot for Plank Flooring

See explanation on pages 730–1. The loads are based on the following values. Strength: $S = 1\,000$ lb per sq in, $A = 56$; stiffness: $E = 1\,200\,000$ lb per sq in, $e_1 = 92$

SHORT-LEAF YELLOW PINE

Thickness of planks, in	Distance between centers of floor-beams, in feet								
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1⅞	295	189	131	96	74	.....	.....	.....	.....
	182	93	54	34	23	.....	.....	.....	.....
2⅜	474	303	211	155	118	94	76	.....	.....
	370	189	110	69	46	32	24	.....	.....
2¾	635	406	282	207	159	125	102	84	71
	574	294	170	107	72	50	37	28	21
3½	1 029	659	457	336	257	203	165	136	114
	.....	606	351	221	148	104	76	57	44
4	.....	860	597	439	336	265	215	178	149
	.....	.....	523	330	221	155	113	85	65
5	.....	.....	933	686	525	415	336	278	233
	.....	.....	.....	644	431	303	221	166	128
6	.....	.....	.....	987	756	597	484	400	336
	.....	.....	.....	.....	745	523	382	287	221

* Weight of ceiling, if any, and also of the flooring itself is to be deducted from these values.

Table VI. Safe Live Loads* in Pounds per Square Foot for Plank Flooring

See explanation on pages 730–1. The loads are based on the following values.
Strength: $S = 800$ lb per sq in, $A = 44$; stiffness: $E = 1\,200\,000$ lb per sq in, $e_1 = 92$

SPRUCE, NORWAY PINE AND WHITE PINE

Thickness of planks, in	Distance between centers of floor-beams, in feet								
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1⅞	232 182	148 93	103 54	76 34	58 23	....	....	....	....
2⅜	372 370	238 189	165 110	122 69	93 46	74 32	60 24	....	....
2¾	499	319 294	222 170	163 107	125 72	99 50	80 37	66 28	....
3½	809	517	359 351	264 221	202 148	160 104	129 76	107 57	89 44
4	....	676	469	345 330	264 221	209 155	169 113	140 85	117 65
5	....	....	733	539	412	326 303	264 221	218 166	183 128
6	....	....	....	776	594	469	380	314 287	264 221

* Weight of ceiling, if any, and also of the flooring itself is to be deducted from these values.

Table VII. Safe Live Loads* in Pounds per Square Foot for Plank Flooring

See explanation on pages 730–1. The loads are based on the following values.
Strength: $S = 700$ lb per sq in, $A = 39$; stiffness: $E = 1\,000\,000$ lb per sq in, $e_1 = 77$

FOR HEMLOCK AND WOODS OF SIMILAR STRENGTH AND STIFFNESS

Thickness of planks, in	Distance between centers of floor-beams, in feet								
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1⅞	206 152	132 78	91 45	67 28	....	....	....	....	....
2⅜	330 309	212 158	147 92	108 58	82 39	65 27	....	....	....
2¾	442 480	283 246	197 142	146 90	111 60	87 42	71 31	....	....
3½	717	459	319 293	234 185	179 124	142 87	115 63	95 48	80 37
4	936	599	416	306 276	234 185	185 130	150 95	124 71	104 55
5	....	936	650	478	366 361	289 253	234 185	193 139	163 107
6	....	....	936	688	526	416	337 319	278 240	234 185

* Weight of ceiling, if any, and also of the flooring itself is to be deducted from these values.

Table VIII. Safe Live Loads* in Pounds per Square Foot for Plank Flooring

See explanation on pages 730–1. The loads are based on the following values.
Strength: $S = 1\,800$ lb per sq in, $A = 100$; stiffness: $E = 1\,780\,000$ lb per sq in, $e_1 = 137$
Recommended by Mr. Kidder for

LONG-LEAF YELLOW PINE

Thickness of planks, in	Distance between centers of floor-beams, in feet								
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1⅞	515 258	325 126	222 68	160 38	120 21	92 11	72 5	....	....
2⅜	831 536	527 268	362 149	262 88	197 54	153 34	121 24	97 12	80 6
2¾	1 118 838	710 421	488 237	354 144	267 91	208 59	165 38	134 25	110 15
3⅛	....	1 158 884	798 504	582 310	442 202	345 136	276 94	225 67	186 47
4	....	....	1 046 759	763 470	580 308	454 210	364 148	296 106	246 77
5	....	....	....	1 200 934	913 618	716 427	576 304	471 223	392 166
6	....	....	....	....	1 322 1 081	1 038 751	836 540	686 398	572 300

* Weight of ceiling, if any, to be deducted. The weight of the flooring has been deducted from values derived from formulas. Deduction about 72 lb per cu ft floor-material.

Table IX. Safe Live Loads* in Pounds per Square Inch for Plank Flooring

See explanation on pages 730–1. The loads are based on the following values.
Strength: $S = 1\,620$ lb per sq in, $A = 90$; stiffness: $E = 1\,425\,000$ lb per sq in, $e_1 = 110$
Recommended by Mr. Kidder for

DOUGLAS FIR AND SHORT-LEAF YELLOW PINE

Thickness of planks, in	Distance center to center of floor-beams, in feet								
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1⅞	462 205	291 99	199 52	143 28	106 15	81 7	64	....	... .. .
2⅜	747 428	473 212	324 117	234 68	176 41	136 25	107 14	....	.. . ..
2¾	1 005 670	637 335	438 187	317 112	239 69	185 44	147 28	119 17	97 9
3½	....	1 040 706	717 401	522 246	395 159	308 106	246 72	200 50	165 34
4	....	1 362 1 061	940 606	685 374	520 244	406 165	325 115	265 81	220 58
5	....	....	1 476 1 198	1 078 745	819 491	642 338	516 240	422 174	351 128
6	....	....	....	1 560 1 302	1 187 863	932 597	749 428	614 314	512 236

* Weight of ceiling, if any, to be deducted. The weight of the flooring has been deducted from values derived from formulas. Deduction about 72 lb per cu ft floor-material.

Table X. Safe Live Loads * in Pounds per Square Foot for Plank Flooring

See explanation on pages 730-1. The loads are based on the following values.
Strength: $S = 1\ 260$ lb per sq in, $A = 70$; stiffness: $E = 1\ 294\ 000$ lb per sq in, $e_1 = 100$.
Recommended by Mr. Kidder for

SPRUCE

Thickness of planks, in	Distance between centers of floor-beams, in feet								
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1⅞	360 188	227 92	155 49	111 28	83 15	64 8	50	....	....
2⅜	581 391	368 194	252 108	182 64	137 39	105 24	83 15	67	54 .....
2¾	782 612	496 307	341 173	247 104	186 66	144 42	115 28	93 18	76 .....
3½	1 228 1 274	781 644	548 367	391 225	296 146	231 98	184 68	150 47	124 33
4	....	1 060 968	731 554	533 343	405 225	317 153	253 108	207 77	171 56
5	....	....	1 148 1 093	839 682	638 450	500 311	402 212	329 162	273 120
6	....	....	....	1 213 1 188	924 789	725 548	583 394	478 290	400 220

* Weight of ceiling, if any, to be deducted. The weight of the flooring has been deducted from values derived from formulas. Deduction about 72 lb per cu ft floor-material.

Table XI. Safe Live Loads * in Pounds per Square Foot for Plank Flooring

See explanation on pages 730-1. The loads are based on the following values.
Strength: $S = 1\ 080$ lb per sq in, $A = 60$; stiffness: $E = 1\ 073\ 000$ lb per sq in, $e_1 = 82$
Recommended by Mr. Kidder for

WHITE PINE

Thickness of planks, in	Distance between centers of floor-beams, in feet								
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1⅞	307 153	193 74	131 39	94 21	70 11	53 5	41	....	....
2⅜	496 318	314 157	214 86	154 50	116 40	89 18	70 10	56	....
2¾	668 499	424 249	290 139	210 83	158 52	122 33	97 20	78 12	63 .....
3½	1 088 1 041	691 526	476 298	346 183	261 119	203 78	162 53	131 36	108 25
4	....	906 791	625 451	455 278	345 181	269 123	215 85	175 60	145 43
5	....	....	982 893	716 555	544 366	426 251	342 178	281 129	232 95
6	....	....	1 419 1 553	1 037 970	789 643	619 445	497 319	407 234	339 175

* Weight of ceiling, if any, to be deducted. The weight of the flooring has been deducted from values derived from formulas. Deduction about 72 lb per cu ft floor-material.

Tables for the Maximum Span of Floor-Joists. As the timbers commonly used for floor-joists are sawed to regular sizes and are usually spaced either 12 or 16 in on centers, it is practicable to show by means of tables the sizes of joists required to support given loads with given spans and spacings. Tables giving the MAXIMUM SAFE SPANS are the most convenient for general use, and the following tables have accordingly been prepared. They show at a glance the maximum spans for which different sizes of floor-joists and ceiling-joists should be used for different loads and spacings, and it is believed that they will be found applicable to most buildings in which wooden floor-joists are used. By knowing the size of a room and the purpose for which it is to be used, the sizes of the floor-joists required can be determined at a glance. Incidentally the tables show, also, the kind of wood most economical to use. If, owing to the room being irregular in shape, the joists must be of different lengths, the spacing or thickness of the joists may be varied, so that the same depth may be used throughout.

Precautions Required in Using Tables. The precautions necessary in using these tables are in regard to the superimposed loads and the ACTUAL SIZES of the timbers. The TOTAL LOADS for which the maximum spans have been computed are given at the head of each table. The actual weight of the floor (joists, flooring, plastering and deafening, if any) subtracted from the total load will give the SUPERIMPOSED LOAD, that is, the load which the floor is expected to carry. If the ACTUAL SIZES of the joists are less than the NOMINAL DIMENSIONS, the spans or spacings must be reduced from those given in the tables, and as the STOCK SIZES of joists generally run from ¼ in to ⅜ in scant of the NOMINAL DIMENSIONS, this fact should always be taken into account when determining upon the sizes of joists. In this connection it will be convenient to remember that 2-in joists, spaced 16 in on centers, have the same strength as 1½-in joists, 12 in on centers. A reduction should also be made for any CUTTING OF THE JOISTS that may be required. No allowance has been made for PARTITIONS, and when they are to be supported by the floor-joists, additional joists should be used or the span reduced according to the relative direction or position of the partitions and joists.

Tables XII to XX. Tables XII to XVI, inclusive, were computed by the FORMULA FOR STIFFNESS (Chapter XVI, page 636 and Chapter XVIII, page 665), on the assumption that the deflection should not exceed 1/40 in per foot of span. They are based on the values of *E* (the modulus of elasticity) recommended by F. E. Kidder. Tables XVII to XX, inclusive, were computed by the FORMULA FOR STRENGTH (Chapter XVI, page 635), and values for *S* (the safe fiber-stress) recommended by Mr. Kidder. The spans given in Tables XII to XX, inclusive, come within the requirements of the Buffalo and Denver building laws, and Tables XII, XIV, XV, XVI and XVII comply with the Chicago law and very nearly with the New York law; but to comply with the Boston law a reduction of about one-sixth must be made from the spans given.

Tables XXI to XXIX,* inclusive, were computed for reduced values of *E* (the modulus of elasticity), *S* (the fiber-stress for flexure) and *A* (the constant for flexural strength) in the formulas used, these values agreeing generally with the stresses throughout the revised handbook. Of these new tables, also, Tables XXI to XXV, inclusive, were computed by the FORMULA FOR STIFFNESS, and Tables XXVI to XXIX, inclusive, by the FORMULA FOR STRENGTH.

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* In the revision of this chapter the author is indebted to Mr. A. T. North, M. Am. Soc. C. E., for valuable assistance in the computations required for the new Tables XXI to XXIX.

Table XII. Maximum Span for Ceiling-Joists

See explanatory notes on page 736

Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	Hemlock, * E = 1 045 000		White pine, E = 1 073 000		Norway pine or spruce, E = 1 294 000		Douglas fir or Texas pine, E = 1 425 000		Long-leaf yellow pine, E = 1 780 000	
Total load, 20 pounds per square foot											
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
2×4	12	9	3	9	5	10	1	10	5	11	2
2×4	16	8	5	8	6	9	1	9	5	10	1
2×6	12	14	0	14	1	15	1	15	7	16	8
2×6	16	12	8	12	10	13	8	14	2	15	2
2×8	12	18	8	18	10	20	1	20	9	22	4
2×8	16	17	0	17	2	18	4	18	11	20	5
2×8	20	15	9	15	10	17	0	17	6	18	10
Total load, 24 pounds per square foot											
2×10	12	22	0	22	2	23	8	24	5	26	4
2×10	16	20	0	20	2	21	7	22	3	23	10
2×10	20	18	6	18	8	20	0	20	7	22	2
2×12	12	26	5	26	8	28	5	29	4	31	7
2×12	16	24	0	24	2	25	10	26	8	28	8
2×12	20	22	3	22	5	24	0	24	8	26	8

* E is the modulus of elasticity and is in pounds per square inch.

Table XIII. Maximum Span for Floor-Joists for Dwellings, Tenements and Grammar-School Rooms with Fixed Desks

See explanatory notes on page 736

Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	Hemlock, * E = 1 045 000		White pine, E = 1 073 000		Norway pine or spruce, E = 1 294 000		Douglas fir or Texas pine, E = 1 425 000		Long-leaf yellow pine, E = 1 780 000	
Total load, 60 pounds per square foot											
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
2×6	12	9	9	9	10	10	5	10	10	11	7
2×6	16	8	9	8	10	9	6	9	10	10	6
3×6	12	11	1	11	2	12	0	12	5	13	4
3×6	16	10	1	10	2	10	10	11	2	12	1
2×8	12	12	11	13	1	13	11	14	5	15	6
2×8	16	11	9	11	10	12	8	13	1	14	1
3×8	12	14	9	14	11	16	0	16	6	17	8
3×8	16	13	6	13	7	14	6	15	0	16	2
2×10	12	16	2	16	4	17	5	18	0	19	4
2×10	16	14	9	14	10	15	9	16	4	17	7
Total load, 66 pounds per square foot											
3 ×10	12	18	0	18	1	19	3	20	0	21	6
3 ×10	16	16	3	16	5	17	7	18	2	19	6
2 ×12	12	18	10	19	0	20	3	20	10	22	6
2 ×12	16	17	2	17	3	18	4	19	0	20	6
3 ×12	12	21	6	21	8	23	2	24	0	25	9
3 ×12	16	19	7	19	8	21	1	21	9	23	5
2 ×14	12	22	0	22	2	23	8	24	4	26	3
2 ×14	16	20	0	20	1	21	6	22	2	23	10
2½×14	12	23	8	23	10	25	6	26	3	28	3
2½×14	16	21	6	21	8	23	2	23	10	25	8
3 ×14	12	25	4	25	4	27	1	28	0	30	1
3 ×14	16	23	0	23	0	24	7	25	4	27	4

* E is the modulus of elasticity and is in pounds per square inch.

Table XIV. Maximum Span for Floor-Joists for Office-Buildings

See explanatory notes on page 736

Total load, 93 pounds per square foot

Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	White pine, * $E = 1\ 073\ 000$		Norway pine or spruce, $E = 1\ 294\ 000$		Douglas fir or Texas pine, $E = 1\ 425\ 000$		Long-leaf yellow pine, $E = 1\ 780\ 000$	
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
3×8	12	12	10	13	9	14	2	15	4
3×8	16	11	8	12	6	12	10	13	10
2×10	12	14	1	15	1	15	6	16	7
2×10	16	12	9	13	8	14	1	15	2
3×10	12	16	1	17	3	17	9	19	2
3×10	16	14	8	15	8	16	2	17	5
2×12	12	16	10	18	1	18	8	20	1
2×12	16	15	4	16	5	17	0	18	3

Total load, 96 pounds per square foot

Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	White pine, * $E = 1\ 073\ 000$		Norway pine or spruce, $E = 1\ 294\ 000$		Douglas fir or Texas pine, $E = 1\ 425\ 000$		Long-leaf yellow pine, $E = 1\ 780\ 000$	
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
3 ×12	12	19	2	20	6	21	2	22	9
3 ×12	16	17	5	18	7	19	3	20	8
2 ×14	12	19	6	20	10	21	7	23	2
2 ×14	16	17	9	19	0	19	7	21	2
2½×14	12	21	1	22	6	23	2	25	0
2½×14	16	19	2	20	4	21	2	22	8
3 ×14	12	22	4	23	10	24	8	27	7
3 ×14	16	20	4	21	8	22	5	24	1

* E is the modulus of elasticity and is in pounds per square inch.

Table XV. Maximum Span for Floor-Joists for Churches and Theaters with Fixed Seats

See explanatory notes on page 736

Total load, 102 pounds per square foot

Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	White pine, * $E = 1\ 073\ 000$		Norway pine or spruce, $E = 1\ 294\ 000$		Douglas fir or Texas pine, $E = 1\ 425\ 000$		Long-leaf yellow pine, $E = 1\ 780\ 000$	
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
3×8	12	12	6	13	4	13	9	14	10
3×8	16	11	4	12	2	12	6	13	6
2×10	12	13	7	14	7	15	1	16	2
2×10	16	12	4	13	3	13	8	14	9
3×10	12	15	8	16	9	17	3	18	7
3×10	16	14	2	15	2	15	8	16	10
2×12	12	16	5	17	7	18	1	19	6
2×12	16	14	10	15	11	16	5	17	8

Total load, 105 pounds per square foot

Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	White pine, * $E = 1\ 073\ 000$		Norway pine or spruce, $E = 1\ 294\ 000$		Douglas fir or Texas pine, $E = 1\ 425\ 000$		Long-leaf yellow pine, $E = 1\ 780\ 000$	
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
3 ×12	12	18	7	19	11	20	6	22	1
3 ×12	16	16	10	18	1	18	7	20	1
2 ×14	12	19	0	20	3	20	10	22	6
2 ×14	16	17	3	18	5	19	0	20	6
2½×14	12	20	4	21	9	22	6	24	3
2½×14	16	18	7	19	10	20	6	22	1
3 ×14	12	21	8	23	2	23	10	25	9
3 ×14	16	19	8	21	1	21	9	23	4

* E is the modulus of elasticity and is in pounds per square inch.

Table XVI. Maximum Span for Floor-Joists for Assembly-Halls and Corridors

See explanatory notes on page 736

Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	White pine, * $E=1\ 073\ 000$		Norway pine or spruce, $E=1\ 294\ 000$		Douglas fir or Texas pine, $E=1\ 425\ 000$		Long-leaf yellow pine, $E=1\ 780\ 000$	
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
Total load, 123 pounds per square foot									
3×8	12	11	7	12	7	13	0	14	0
3×8	16	10	8	11	4	11	9	12	8
2×10	12	12	10	13	9	14	2	15	2
2×10	16	11	7	12	6	12	10	13	10
3×10	12	14	8	15	8	16	2	17	5
3×10	16	13	4	14	3	14	9	15	10
2×12	12	15	4	16	6	17	0	18	3
2×12	16	14	0	15	0	15	5	16	7
Total load, 126 pounds per square foot									
3 ×12	12	17	6	18	8	19	3	20	9
3 ×12	16	15	10	17	0	17	7	18	11
2 ×14	12	17	10	19	1	19	8	21	2
2 ×14	16	16	2	17	4	17	11	19	3
2½×14	12	19	3	20	6	21	2	22	9
2½×14	16	17	6	18	8	19	3	20	9
3 ×14	12	20	5	21	9	22	6	24	3
3 ×14	16	18	7	19	10	20	6	22	1

* E is the modulus of elasticity and is in pounds per square inch.

Table XVII. Maximum Span for Floor-Joists for Retail Stores

See explanatory notes on page 736

Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	White pine, $S=1\ 080$ lb per sq in * $A=60$		Norway pine or spruce, $S=1\ 260$ lb per sq in $A=70$		Douglas fir or Texas pine, $S=1\ 620$ lb per sq in $A=90$		Long-leaf yellow pine, $S=1\ 800$ lb per sq in $A=100$	
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
Total load, 174 pounds per square foot									
3×8	12	11	6	12	5	14	1	14	9
3×8	16	9	11	10	2	12	2	12	9
2×10	12	11	8	12	8	14	5	15	1
2×10	16	10	2	10	11	12	5	13	1
3×10	12	14	4	15	6	17	7	18	7
3×10	16	12	5	13	5	15	2	16	0
2×12	12	14	1	15	2	17	2	18	2
2×12	16	12	2	13	1	14	11	15	8
Total load, 177 pounds per square foot									
3 ×12	12	17	2	18	5	20	11	22	1
3 ×12	16	14	10	16	0	18	2	19	1
2 ×14	12	16	3	17	7	19	11	21	1
2 ×14	16	14	2	15	2	17	3	18	2
2½×14	12	18	2	19	7	22	3	23	6
2½×14	16	15	9	17	0	19	3	20	4
3 ×14	12	19	11	21	6	24	5	25	8
3 ×14	16	17	3	18	7	21	2	22	3

*** A in the tables is the coefficient of strength for beams and is one-eighteenth of the allowable flexural fiber-stress, S. For values of A for other woods, see Table II, page 628.**

Table XVIII.* Maximum Span for Rafters. Shingled Roofs not Plastered

See explanatory notes on page 736

Total load, 48 pounds per square foot											
Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	Hemlock, $S=990$ lb per sq in † $A=55$		White pine, $S=1\ 080$ lb per sq in $A=60$		Norway pine or spruce, $S=1\ 260$ lb per sq in $A=70$		Douglas fir or Texas pine, $S=1\ 620$ lb per sq in $A=90$		Long-leaf yellow pine, $S=1\ 800$ lb per sq in $A=100$	
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
2×4	16	7	4	7	9	8	4	9	6	10	10
2×4	20	6	7	6	10	7	6	8	6	8	10
2×6	16	11	1	11	7	12	6	14	2	15	0
2×6	20	9	11	10	4	11	2	12	8	13	4
3×6	16	13	7	14	2	15	3	17	5	18	3
3×6	20	12	2	12	8	13	8	15	7	16	4
2×8	16	14	9	15	6	16	8	18	11	20	0
2×8	20	13	3	13	10	14	11	16	11	17	10
2×8	24	12	1	12	7	13	7	15	6	16	3
2×10	16	18	6	19	3	20	10	23	8	25	0
2×10	20	16	7	17	3	18	8	21	2	22	3
2×10	24	15	1	15	9	17	0	19	3	20	4

Table XIX.* Maximum Span for Rafters. Slate Roofs not Plastered, or Shingle Roofs Plastered

See explanatory notes on page 736

Total load, 57 pounds per square foot											
Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	Hemlock, $S=990$ lb per sq in † $A=55$		White pine, $S=1\ 080$ lb per sq in $A=60$		Norway pine or spruce, $S=1\ 260$ lb per sq in $A=70$		Douglas fir or Texas pine, $S=1\ 620$ lb per sq in $A=90$		Long-leaf yellow pine, $S=1\ 800$ lb per sq in $A=100$	
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
2×4	16	6	9	7	1	7	7	8	8	9	2
2×4	20	6	0	6	4	6	9	7	9	8	2
2×6	16	10	2	10	7	11	6	13	0	13	8
2×6	20	9	1	9	6	10	2	11	7	12	3
3×6	16	12	6	13	0	14	1	15	11	16	9
3×6	20	11	1	11	8	12	7	14	3	15	0
2×8	16	13	7	14	2	15	3	17	4	18	3
2×8	20	12	2	12	8	13	8	15	6	16	4
2×8	24	11	1	11	7	12	6	14	2	14	11
3×8	16	16	7	17	4	18	9	21	3	22	5
3×8	20	14	10	15	6	16	9	19	0	20	1
3×8	24	13	7	14	2	15	3	17	4	18	4
2×10	16	17	0	17	8	19	2	21	7	22	10
2×10	20	15	2	15	10	17	1	19	4	20	6
2×10	24	13	10	14	6	15	7	17	8	18	8

* Tables XVIII, XIX and XX are intended for climates where a 2-ft snow-fall may be expected. In the Southern States, where there is very little snow, the spans in Table XVIII will be safe for slate or gravel roofs if the joists are sawed to the full dimensions. Variations in "Safe spans" in different tables, for the same kind of wood, depend upon the assumed safe flexural fiber-stress or modulus of elasticity or both.

† A in the tables is the coefficient of strength for beams and is one-eighteenth of the allowable flexural fiber-stress, S. For values of A for other woods, see Table II, page 628.

Table XX.* Maximum Span for Rafters. Slate Roofs Plastered, or Gravel Roofs not Plastered

See explanatory notes on page 736

Total load, 66 pounds per square foot

Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	Hemlock, $S=990$ lb per sq in † $A=55$		White pine, $S=1\,080$ lb per sq in $A=60$		Norway pine or spruce, $S=1\,260$ lb per sq in $A=70$		Douglas fir or Texas pine, $S=1\,620$ lb per sq in $A=90$		Long-leaf yellow pine, $S=1\,800$ lb per sq in $A=100$	
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
2×6	16	9	5	9	10	10	8	12	1	12	9
2×6	20	8	6	8	10	9	6	10	9	11	5
3×6	16	11	7	12	1	13	1	14	10	15	7
3×6	20	10	4	10	10	11	8	13	3	14	0
2×8	16	12	7	13	2	14	2	16	2	17	0
2×8	20	11	3	11	9	12	9	14	5	15	2
2×8	24	10	3	10	9	11	7	13	2	13	10
3×8	16	15	5	16	1	17	5	19	9	20	10
3×8	20	13	9	14	5	15	3	17	8	18	8
3×8	24	12	7	13	2	14	2	16	2	17	0
2×10	16	15	9	16	6	17	9	20	2	21	3
2×10	20	14	1	14	8	15	11	18	0	19	0
2×10	24	12	10	13	5	14	6	16	6	17	5
2×12	16	18	10	19	9	21	4	24	2	25	6
2×12	20	16	10	17	8	19	1	21	8	22	10
2×12	24	15	5	16	1	17	5	19	9	20	10

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* Tables XVIII, XIX and XX are intended for climates where a 2-ft snow-fall may be expected. In the Southern States, where there is very little snow, the spans in Table XVIII will be safe for slate or gravel roofs if the joists are sawed to the full dimensions. Variations in "Safe spans" in different tables, for the same kind of wood, depend upon the assumed safe flexural fiber-stress or modulus of elasticity or both.

† *A* in the tables is the coefficient of strength for beams and is one-eighteenth of the allowable flexural fiber-stress, *S*. For values of *A* for other woods, see Table II, page 628.

Table XXI. Maximum Span for Ceiling-Joists

See explanatory notes on page 736

Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	Hemlock, * $E = 900\ 000$		White pine, $E = 1\ 000\ 000$		Norway pine, $E = 1\ 100\ 000$		Short-leaf yellow pine, spruce, $E = 1\ 200\ 000$		Long-leaf yellow pine, Douglas fir, $E = 1\ 500\ 000$	
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
Total load, 20 pounds per square foot											
2×4	12	8	11	9	3	9	6	9	10	10	7
2×4	16	8	1	8	5	8	8	8	11	9	7
2×6	12	13	5	13	10	14	4	14	9	15	10
2×6	16	12	2	12	7	13	0	13	5	14	5
2×8	12	17	10	18	6	19	1	19	8	21	2
2×8	16	16	3	16	10	17	4	17	10	19	3
2×8	20	15	1	15	7	16	1	16	7	17	10
Total load, 24 pounds per square foot											
2×10	12	21	0	21	9	22	5	23	1	24	11
2×10	16	19	1	19	8	20	5	21	0	22	2
2×10	20	17	8	18	4	18	11	19	6	21	0
2×12	12	25	2	26	0	26	11	27	9	29	11
2×12	16	22	11	23	9	24	6	25	2	27	2
2×12	20	21	3	22	0	22	9	23	5	25	2

* *E* is the modulus of elasticity and is in pounds per square inch.

Table XXII. Maximum Span for Floor-Joists for Dwellings, Tenements and Grammar-School Rooms with Fixed Desks

See explanatory notes on page 736

Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	Hemlock, * $E = 900\ 000$		White pine, $E = 1\ 000\ 000$		Norway pine, $E = 1\ 100\ 000$		Short-leaf yellow pine, spruce, $E = 1\ 200\ 000$		Long-leaf yellow pine, Douglas fir, $E = 1\ 500\ 000$	
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
Total load, 60 pounds per square foot											
2× 6	12	9	3	9	7	9	11	10	3	11	0
2× 6	16	8	5	8	9	9	0	9	3	10	0
3× 6	12	10	8	11	0	11	4	11	8	12	7
3× 6	16	9	8	10	0	10	4	10	8	11	5
2× 8	12	12	4	12	10	12	3	13	8	14	8
2× 8	16	11	3	11	8	12	0	12	4	13	4
3× 8	12	14	2	14	8	15	2	15	7	16	10
3× 8	16	12	11	13	4	13	9	14	2	15	3
2×10	12	15	6	16	0	16	7	17	0	18	3
2×10	16	14	1	14	7	15	0	15	6	16	8
Total load, 66 pounds per square foot											
3 ×10	12	17	2	17	9	18	4	18	11	20	4
3 ×10	16	15	7	16	2	16	8	17	2	18	6
2 ×12	12	18	0	18	8	19	3	19	8	21	4
2 ×12	16	16	4	16	11	17	8	18	0	19	5
3 ×12	12	20	7	21	4	22	0	22	8	24	5
3 ×12	16	18	8	19	4	20	0	20	7	22	2
2 ×14	12	21	0	21	11	22	5	23	1	24	10
2 ×14	16	19	1	19	9	20	5	21	0	22	7
2½×14	12	22	7	23	5	24	2	24	11	26	10
2½×14	16	20	6	21	3	21	11	22	7	24	4
3 ×14	12	24	0	24	10	25	8	26	5	28	6
3 ×14	16	21	10	22	7	23	4	24	0	25	10

* *E* is the modulus of elasticity and is in pounds per square inch.

Table XXIII. Maximum Span for Floor-Joists for Office-Buildings

See explanatory notes on page 736

Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	Hemlock, * E=900 000		White pine, E=1 000 000		Norway pine, E=1 100 000		Short-leaf yellow pine, spruce, E=1 200 000		Long-leaf yellow pine, Douglas fir, E=1 500 000	
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
Total load, 93 pounds per square foot											
3×8	12	12	3	12	8	13	1	13	6	14	6
3×8	16	11	1	11	6	11	11	12	3	13	2
2×10	12	13	4	13	10	14	3	14	8	15	10
2×10	16	12	2	12	7	13	0	13	4	14	5
3×10	12	15	4	15	10	16	4	16	10	18	2
3×10	16	13	11	14	5	14	10	15	4	16	7
2×12	12	16	0	16	7	17	2	17	8	19	0
2×12	16	14	7	15	1	15	7	16	0	17	3
Total load, 96 pounds per square foot											
3 ×12	12	18	2	18	10	19	5	20	0	21	6
3 ×12	16	16	6	17	1	17	8	18	2	19	7
2 ×14	12	18	6	19	2	19	10	20	5	21	11
2 ×14	16	16	10	17	5	18	0	18	6	19	11
2½×14	12	19	11	20	8	21	4	22	0	23	8
2½×14	16	18	2	18	9	19	5	19	11	21	6
3 ×14	12	21	2	21	11	22	8	23	4	25	2
3 ×14	16	19	3	19	11	20	7	21	2	22	10

* E is the modulus of elasticity and is in pounds per square inch.

Table XXIV. Maximum Span for Floor-Joists for Churches and Theaters with Fixed Seats

See explanatory notes on page 736

Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	Hemlock, * E=900 000		White pine, E=1 000 000		Norway pine, E=1 100 000		Short-leaf yellow pine, spruce, E=1 200 000		Long-leaf yellow pine, Douglas fir, E=1 500 000	
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
Total load, 102 pounds per square foot											
3×8	12	11	10	12	3	12	8	13	1	14	1
3×8	16	10	9	11	2	11	6	11	11	12	9
2×10	12	12	11	13	5	13	10	14	3	15	4
2×10	16	11	9	12	2	12	7	13	0	13	11
3×10	12	14	10	15	4	15	10	16	4	17	7
3×10	16	13	6	13	11	14	5	14	10	16	0
2×12	12	15	7	16	1	16	8	17	1	18	5
2×12	16	14	2	14	8	15	1	15	7	16	9
Total load, 105 pounds per square foot											
3 ×12	12	17	8	18	3	18	10	19	5	20	11
3 ×12	16	16	0	16	7	17	1	17	8	19	0
2 ×14	12	18	0	18	7	19	3	19	8	21	4
2 ×14	16	16	4	16	11	17	5	18	0	19	4
2½×14	12	19	4	20	1	20	8	21	4	23	0
2½×14	16	17	7	18	3	18	10	19	4	20	11
3 ×14	12	20	7	21	4	22	0	22	8	24	5
3 ×14	16	18	8	19	4	20	0	20	7	22	2

* E is the modulus of elasticity and is in pounds per square inch.

Table XXV. Maximum Span for Floor-Joists for Assembly-Halls and Corridors

See explanatory notes on page 736

Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	Hemlock, * $E = 900\ 000$		White pine, $E = 1\ 000\ 000$		Norway pine, $E = 1\ 100\ 000$		Short-leaf yellow pine, spruce, $E = 1\ 200\ 000$		Long-leaf yellow pine, Douglas fir, $E = 1\ 500\ 000$	
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
Total load, 123 pounds per square foot											
3× 8	12	11	2	11	7	11	11	12	3	13	3
3× 8	16	11	0	10	6	10	10	11	2	12	0
2×10	12	12	2	12	7	13	0	13	5	14	5
2×10	16	11	1	11	5	11	10	12	2	13	1
3×10	12	13	11	14	5	14	11	15	4	16	6
3×10	16	12	8	13	1	13	7	13	11	15	0
2×12	12	14	7	15	2	15	8	16	1	17	4
2×12	16	13	3	13	9	14	2	14	8	15	9
Total load, 126 pounds per square foot											
3 ×12	12	16	7	17	2	17	9	18	3	19	8
3 ×12	16	15	1	15	7	16	1	16	7	17	10
2 ×14	12	16	11	17	6	18	1	18	7	20	1
2 ×14	16	15	4	15	11	16	5	16	11	18	3
2½×14	12	18	2	18	10	19	6	20	1	21	7
2½×14	16	16	8	17	3	17	10	18	4	19	9
3 ×14	12	19	4	20	1	20	8	21	4	22	11
3 ×14	16	17	7	18	3	18	10	19	4	20	10

* *E* is the modulus of elasticity and is in pounds per square inch.

Table XXVI. Maximum Span for Floor-Joists for Retail Stores

See explanatory notes on page 736

Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	Hemlock, $S = 600$ lb per sq in * $A = 33\frac{1}{3}$		White pine, spruce, $S = 700$ lb per sq in $A = 38.88$		Norway pine, Douglas fir, $S = 800$ lb per sq in $A = 44.44$		Southern short-leaf yellow pine, $S = 1\ 000$ lb per sq in $A = 55.55$		Southern long-leaf yellow pine, $S = 1\ 200$ lb per sq in $A = 66\frac{2}{3}$	
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
Total load, 174 pounds per square foot											
3× 8	12	8	7	9	3	9	11	11	1	12	2
3× 8	16	7	5	8	0	8	7	9	7	10	6
2×10	12	8	9	9	5	10	1	11	4	12	5
2×10	16	7	7	8	2	8	9	9	10	10	9
3×10	12	10	9	11	7	12	5	13	10	15	2
3×10	16	9	3	10	0	10	9	12	0	13	2
2×12	12	10	6	11	4	12	2	13	7	14	10
2×12	16	9	1	9	10	10	6	11	9	12	10
Total load, 177 pounds per square foot											
3 ×12	12	12	6	13	6	14	6	16	2	17	9
3 ×12	16	10	10	11	9	12	6	14	0	15	4
2 ×14	12	12	2	13	1	14	0	15	8	17	2
2 ×14	16	10	6	11	4	12	2	13	7	14	11
2½×14	12	13	7	14	8	15	8	17	6	19	2
2½×14	16	11	9	12	8	13	7	15	2	16	8
3 ×14	12	16	8	18	0	19	3	21	6	23	7
3 ×14	16	14	5	15	7	16	8	18	8	20	5

* *A* in the tables is the coefficient of strength for beams and is one-eighteenth of the wable flexural fiber-stress *S*. For values of *A* for other woods, see Table II, page

Table XXVII.* Maximum Span for Rafters. Shingled Roofs, not Plastered

See explanatory notes on page 736

Total load, 48 pounds per square foot

Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	Hemlock, $S = 600$ lb per sq in † $A = 33\frac{1}{3}$		White pine, spruce, $S = 700$ lb per sq in $A = 38.88$		Norway pine, Douglas fir, $S = 800$ lb per sq in $A = 44.44$		Southern short-leaf yellow pine, $S = 1\,000$ lb per sq in $A = 55.55$		Southern long-leaf yellow pine, $S = 1\,200$ lb per sq in $A = 66\frac{2}{3}$	
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
2× 4	16	5	9	6	3	6	8	7	5	8	2
2× 4	20	5	2	5	7	5	11	6	8	7	4
2× 6	16	8	8	9	4	10	0	11	2	12	3
2× 6	20	7	9	8	4	8	11	10	0	10	11
3× 6	16	10	7	11	5	12	3	13	8	15	0
3× 6	20	9	6	10	3	10	11	12	3	13	5
2× 8	16	11	6	12	6	13	4	14	11	16	4
2× 8	20	10	4	11	2	11	11	13	4	14	7
2× 8	24	9	5	10	2	10	11	12	2	13	4
2×10	16	14	5	15	7	16	8	18	8	20	5
2×10	20	12	11	13	11	14	11	16	8	18	3
2×10	24	11	9	12	9	13	7	15	2	16	8

Table XXVIII.* Maximum Span for Rafters. Slate Roofs, not Plastered, or Shingled Roofs, Plastered

See explanatory notes on page 736

Total load, 57 pounds per square foot

Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	Hemlock, $S = 600$ lb per sq in † $A = 33\frac{1}{3}$		White pine, spruce, $S = 700$ lb per sq in $A = 38.88$		Norway pine, Douglas fir, $S = 800$ lb per sq in $A = 44.44$		Southern short-leaf yellow pine, $S = 1\,000$ lb per sq in $A = 55.55$		Southern long-leaf yellow pine, $S = 1\,200$ lb per sq in $A = 66\frac{2}{3}$	
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
2× 4	16	5	3	5	9	6	1	6	10	7	6
2× 4	20	4	9	5	1	5	6	6	1	6	8
2× 6	16	7	11	8	7	9	2	10	3	11	3
2× 6	20	7	1	7	8	8	2	9	2	10	1
3× 6	16	9	9	10	6	11	3	12	7	13	9
3× 6	20	8	8	9	5	10	1	11	3	12	4
2× 8	16	10	7	11	5	12	3	13	8	15	0
2× 8	20	9	6	10	3	10	11	12	3	13	5
2× 8	24	8	8	9	4	10	0	11	2	12	3
3× 8	16	13	0	14	0	15	0	16	9	18	4
3× 8	20	11	7	12	6	13	5	15	0	16	4
3× 8	24	10	7	11	5	12	3	13	8	15	0
2×10	16	13	3	14	4	15	3	17	1	18	9
2×10	20	11	10	12	9	13	8	15	3	16	9
2×10	24	10	10	11	8	12	6	13	11	15	3

* Tables XXVII, XXVIII and XXIX are intended for climates where a 2-ft snow-fall may be expected. In the Southern States, where there is very little snow, the spans in Table XXVII will be safe for slate or gravel roofs if the joists are sawed to the full dimensions. Variations in "Safe spans" in different tables, for the same kind of wood, depend upon the assumed safe flexural fiber-stress or modulus of elasticity or both.

† See foot-note with Table XXVI.

Table XXIX.[*] Maximum Span for Rafters. Slate Roofs, Plastered, or Gravel Roofs, not Plastered

See explanatory notes on page 736

Total load, 66 pounds per square foot											
Sizes of joists	Distance on centers	Hemlock, $S=600$ lb per sq in † $A=33\frac{1}{3}$		White pine, spruce, $S=700$ lb per sq in $A=38.88$		Norway pine, Douglas fir, $S=800$ lb per sq in $A=44.44$		Southern short-leaf yellow pine, $S=1\,000$ lb per sq in $A=55.55$		Southern long-leaf yellow pine, $S=1\,200$ lb per sq in $A=66\frac{2}{3}$	
in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
2× 6	16	7	5	8	0	8	6	9	6	10	5
2× 6	20	6	7	7	2	7	7	8	6	9	4
3× 6	16	9	0	9	9	10	5	11	8	12	10
3× 6	20	8	1	8	9	9	4	10	5	11	5
2× 8	16	9	10	10	8	11	4	12	8	13	11
2× 8	20	8	10	9	6	10	2	11	4	12	5
2× 8	24	8	0	8	8	9	3	10	5	11	4
3× 8	16	12	1	13	0	13	11	15	7	17	1
3× 8	20	10	9	11	8	12	5	13	11	15	3
3× 8	24	9	10	10	8	11	4	12	8	13	11
2×10	16	12	4	13	3	14	2	15	11	17	5
2×10	20	11	0	11	11	12	9	14	2	15	7
2×10	24	10	1	10	10	11	10	13	0	14	2
2×12	16	14	9	15	11	17	1	19	1	20	11
2×12	20	13	2	14	3	15	3	17	1	18	8
2×12	24	12	1	13	0	13	11	15	7	17	1

[*] Tables XXVII, XXVIII and XXIX are intended for climates where a 2-ft snow-fall may be expected. In the Southern States, where there is very little snow, the spans in Table XXVII will be safe for slate or gravel roofs if the joists are sawed to the full dimensions. Variations in "Safe spans" in different tables, for the same kind of wood, depend upon the assumed safe flexural fiber-stress or modulus of elasticity or both.

† See foot-note with Table XXVI.

To Determine the Strength of an Existing Floor. When a building is leased for mercantile or manufacturing purposes the tenant will generally desire to know the greatest load which it will be safe to put upon the floors, and some building laws require that the safe load for the floors in certain classes of buildings shall be computed and posted in a conspicuous place in each story. It is therefore important that every architect should know how to compute the safe strength of any existing floor. The problem is practically the reverse of that of proportioning a floor to a given load. In speaking of the strength of a floor a distinction should be made between the safe strength and the safe load. The SAFE STRENGTH should mean the maximum safe load for the beams, including the weight of the construction, flooring and ceiling, while the SAFE LOAD refers to the maximum load which may safely be placed upon the floor. The safe load is found by first computing the safe strength and then subtracting the weight of the materials forming the floor, including the ceiling below, if there is one. The most convenient measurement for either the SAFE STRENGTH or the SAFE LOAD of a floor is in pounds per square foot. The following examples will serve to show the method of determining the safe load for an ordinary warehouse-floor.

Example 4. It is required to determine the safe load per square foot for a floor framed as shown in Fig. 4, the building being in a city the laws of which allow 1 200 lb per sq in for the safe flexure fiber-stress for the wood of which the joists and girders are made. The joists are covered with two thicknesses of ⅞-in flooring and the ceiling below is corrugated iron.

Solution. The first step will be to find the SAFE STRENGTH of the 22-ft joists. As this is a warehouse-floor we will use the tables for strength throughout. From Table XII, page 643, for $S = 1\,200$ lb per sq in, we find the safe strength of a 1 by 14-in joist of 22-ft span to be 1 188 lb; hence the strength of a 2½ by 14-in joist will be 1 188 × 2½ = 2 970 lb. As the joists are 16 in on centers, each joist supports a floor-area of 1⅓ × 22 ft = 29⅓ sq ft. The SAFE STRENGTH PER SQUARE FOOT of this portion of the floor will therefore be 2 970/29.3 = 101 lb. Suppose the estimated weight of the floor per square foot is 8 lb for the joists, 6 lb for the flooring and 1 lb for the corrugated-iron ceiling, or, say, 15 lb in all. Then the SAFE LOAD PER SQUARE FOOT for the 22-ft joists will be 101 − 15 = 86 lb.

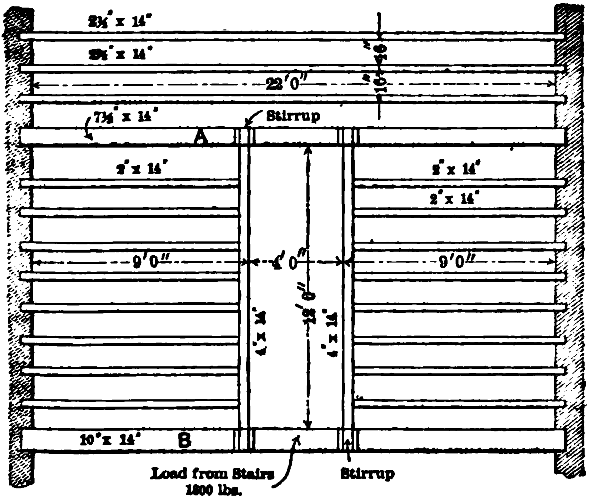

Fig. 4. Plan of a Warehouse-floor

The Headers. We will next find the safe load for the 4 by 14-in headers at each side of the stair-well. As the tail-beams are framed into the headers, we should deduct one inch from the thickness of each header for the loss of strength in framing, leaving 3 by 14 in for the effective dimension of each. From Table XII, page 643, we find the safe strength of a 1 by 14-in beam of 12-ft span to be 1 867 lb. Hence the strength of the 3 by 14 will be 1 867 × 3 = 5 601 lb. The floor-area supported by each header is 4½ × 12 ft = 54 sq ft; hence the SAFE STRENGTH of the header per square foot of floor is 5 601/54 = 104 lb. Deducting the weight of the floor per square foot, we have 104 − 15 = 89 lb for the SAFE LOAD.

Trimmer A. Trimmer *A* (Fig. 4) supports about the same amount of flooring as one of the common joists, and supports, also, the ends of the headers. Deducting 2½ in, the thickness of the common joists, we have a 5 by 14-in b left to support the headers. As the headers are supported in iron stirrups, or beam-hangers, no deduction in strength need be made for framing. To find the safe strength of a beam loaded with two concentrated loads, equidistant from the supports, we must use Formula (14), Fig. 11, page 631. In this case m = 8 ft 10 in, or $8\frac{5}{6}$ ft and $A = 1\,200/18 = 66.7$ (Table XII, page 643).

Applying the formula, the safe load at each joint = $5 \times 14 \times 14 \times 66.7/4 \times 8\frac{5}{6} = 1\,848$ lb.

The floor-area supported by one stirrup is equal to one-half of the area supported by the header, or 27 sq ft; hence the safe strength per square foot of the 5 by 14-in header is $1\,848/27 = 68$ lb, and deducting 15 lb per sq ft for the weight of the floor, we have 53 lb per sq ft as the safe load that the trimmer will support on the floor at each side of the stairs. Considering, as found above, that the safe load for the $2\frac{1}{2}$ in, which we deducted to take the place of a common joist, is 86 lb per sq ft, we might consider the safe load for the trimmer as the average of 86 and 53, or about 70 lb per sq ft.

Trimmer B. This 10 by 14-in timber (Fig. 4) has to support the same floor-loads as trimmer *A*, and also the lower end of a flight of stairs for which an allowance of at least 1 800 lb should be made. This stair-load being practically concentrated at the middle of the trimmer is equivalent to a distributed load of 3 600 lb. As the safe load for a 1 by 14-in joist of 22-ft span is 1 188 lb (Table XII, page 643), it will require a thickness of $3\,600/1\,188 = 3$ in to support the stairs, leaving 7 in to support the floor-loads. As this is $\frac{1}{2}$ in less than the thickness of trimmer *A*, it is evident that the strength of the floor at *B* will be a little less than at *A*; but as it is improbable that the entire floor-space will be loaded at any given time, it would be safe to rate the strength of the floor at each side of the stairway at 70 lb per sq ft, LIVE LOAD, and beyond the stairway at 86 lb.

Partitions. When the floor supports partitions, the weight of the latter and any load resting upon them must be taken into account in determining the safe load for the floor. If a partition runs the same way as the joists, then only the joist directly under the partition, and the joists at each side will be affected; but if a partition runs across the joists, then it affects the safe load of the entire floor.

Example 5. Suppose that the 22-ft joists in the floor shown in Fig. 4 have to support a plastered partition 12 ft high, running across the joists half-way between the walls. What will be the safe load for the floor?

Solution. A plastered partition with 2 by 4 or 2 by 6-in studs, set 16 in on centers, weighs about 20 lb per sq ft of partition-face; hence a partition 12 ft high will weigh 240 lb per lin ft of partition. As the joists are 16 in on centers, each joist supports $1\frac{1}{3}$ lin ft of partition, weighing 320 lb. As this load is concentrated at the middle span of the joists it is equivalent to a distributed load of 640 lb. In Example 4, we found the safe distributed load for the $2\frac{1}{2}$ by 14-in joists of 22-ft span to be 2 970 lb. Subtracting 640 lb from this we have 2 330 lb, which may be used for the floor. As the floor-area supported by one joist is $29\frac{1}{3}$ sq ft, the safe strength of the floor per square foot is $2\,330/29\frac{1}{3} = 79$ lb, and the safe load is $79 - 15 = 64$ lb per sq ft. Hence the partition decreases the safe load by $86 - 64 = 22$ lb per sq ft. Whenever the upper-floor joists are supported by a partition carried by a floor below, the effect of the partition and its load upon the strength of the lower floor should be very carefully computed.

Bridging of Floor-Joists. By BRIDGING is meant a system of bracing for floor-joists, either by means of small struts, as in Fig. 5, or by means of single pieces of boards set at right-angles to the joists and fitting in between them. The effect of this bracing is of decided advantage in sustaining any CONCENTRATED LOAD upon a floor; but it does not materially strengthen a floor to resist a UNIFORMLY DISTRIBUTED LOAD. The bridging also stiffens the joists, and prevents them from turning sidewise. It is customary to insert rows of cross-bridging from 5 to 8 ft apart; and to be effective the rows of bridging should be in straight lines along the floor, so that each bridging-strut may abut directly opposite those adjacent to it. The method of bridging shown in Fig. 5, and known as CROSS-BRIDGING, is considered to be by far the best, as it allows the thrust to act parallel to the axis of the strut, and not across the grain, as must be the case where single pieces of boards are used. The bridging should be of 1¼ by 3-in stock, for 2 by 10-in and smaller joists, and of 2 by 3-in stock for 12- and 14-in joists.

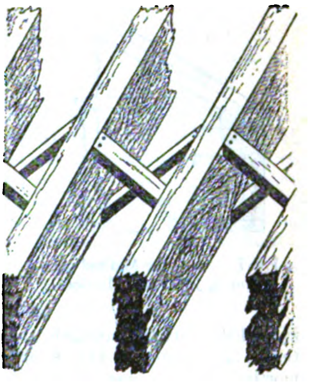

Fig. 5. Floor-joists with Bridging

Framing of Wooden Floor-Beams. In dwellings, tenements and lodging-houses it is frequently necessary to frame the timbers so that they are flush with one another. The old methods of framing the tail-beams and headers or headers and trimmers by mortise-and-tenon joints are now generally superseded by hanging the timbers in stirrups or malleable-iron joist-hangers. In this construction the entire strength of the timbers is retained, while the cost of the hangers is often less than the labor-cost in preparing the mortise-and-tenon joints. All headers 6 ft or more in length should be carried in joist-hangers or stirrups and this is usually required in the building codes of the large cities. In warehouses and all first-class buildings the framing should be done by means of joist-hangers. For light floors, with moderate spans, it is generally safe to frame the tail-beams into a header, provided the latter is strong enough to carry the load and allow 1 in in thickness for the mortising. Headers, also, carrying not more than two tail-beams are often framed into the trimmers. In case the old methods of framing are used instead of the superior methods with joist-hangers, the best shape and proportions for the tenons and ends of the tail-beams or headers are those shown in Fig. 6. This form of framing

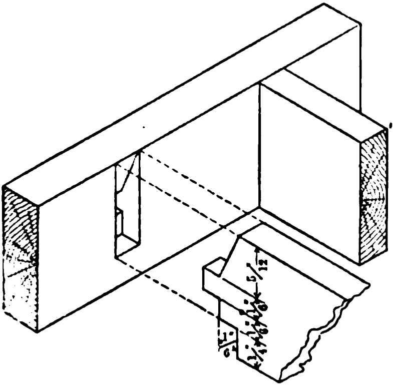

Fig. 6. Framing of Joists into Header

probably offers as large a proportion of the strength of the timbers as it i possible to utilize, although for tail-beams it was the opinion of Mr. Kidde that a single tenon like that shown in Fig. 7 is fully as strong, especially whe the header is built up of 2-in planks spiked together. In either case, if the floo

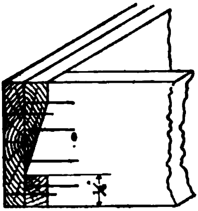

Fig. 7. Alternate Method of Framing Joists into Header

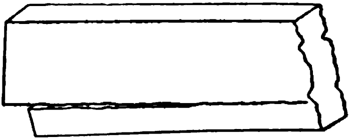

Fig. 8. Framed Joist Split by Load

is loaded to its full strength, the tail-beam will split at the bottom of th tenon, as shown in Fig. 8, which illustrates the weakening effect of th mortise-and-tenon framing.

Stirrups and Joist-Hangers. The first device used for framing headers t trimmers without mortising was the wrought-iron stirrup shown in Fig. 9 These are made either single or double, depending upon whether one or tw beams are to be supported. To prevent the floor from spreading and thus per

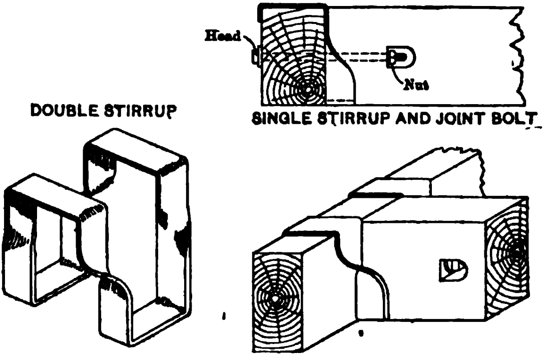

Fig. 9. Framing with Wrought-iron Stirrups

mitting the header to slip out of the stirrup, a joint-bolt may be inserted, a shown in the two right-hand illustrations of Fig. 9. To determine the strengt of a stirrup, multiply the sectional area of the iron, in square inches, by 12 00 lb per sq in. (Table 1, page 376.)

The following sizes of iron should, in general, be used for the different siz of joists to be supported:

Sizes of joists or timbers to be supported, in inches	Sections of stirrup-iron in inches
2 by 8 to 3 by 10	¼ by 2½
4 by 10 to 4 by 12	⅜ by 2½
6 by 12 to 3 by 14	⅜ by 3
8 by 12 to 4 by 14	½ by 3½
6 by 14	½ by 4
8 by 14 to 10 by 14	⅝ by 4

Joist-Hangers. Aside from the matter of strength there are objections to the use of stirrups. If the timber on which they rest is not perfectly dry, the stirrups will settle by an amount equal to the shrinkage of the beam on which they rest, and let down the header with them, and the projection of the iron above the top of the timbers will necessitate cutting out the flooring. If the stirrups are exposed in this way their appearance is objectionable. While they may be designed to resist any tensional stress the resistance of steel to bending is comparatively small, and the resulting crushing of the timber where they go over the edge is the chief objection to the use of stirrups of this type for heavily loaded floors. The small bearing of a timber on a stirrup is not sufficient to distribute the load on the wood over the required area. This increases the bearing per square inch, allows the hanger to crush into the edge and tends to straighten out the stirrup as shown in Fig. 29, page 757. The same serious objection applies to the use of steel stirrup-hangers in brick walls to carry beams free of the walls. As previously explained, all the load is brought to the extreme edge, causing a much greater load per square inch on the masonry than is allowable. Fig. 10 * shows the effect of crushing, in a warehouse-building in Minneapolis, Minn. Wall-hangers made of steel stirrups should not be used. Patented steel hangers riveted to bearing-plates are likewise very undesirable as the crushing effect is greatest at the outer edge, due to the straightening-out tendency of the hanger at this point.

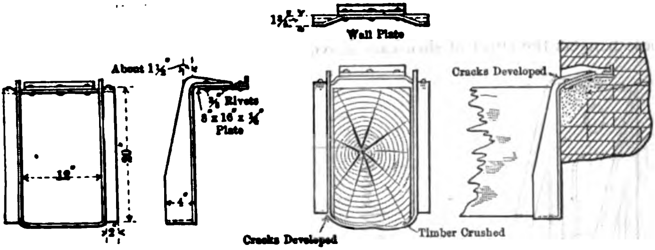

Fig. 10. Failure of Steel Stirrup Wall-hanger

Figs. 11 and 12 illustrate the Duplex and Goetz joist-hangers, which are patented and are claimed to be superior to the old-style stirrups. The Duplex hanger is used not only for ordinary building-construction, but for the most heavily loaded mill-construction in factories and warehouses. As these hangers are made of malleable iron they will not straighten out when heated, in case of fire, and drop the beams. That is what happens to wrought-steel stirrups when the twist becomes heated. This hanger has proven perfectly satisfactory and is extensively used. Both are made in sizes to fit all regular sizes of joists or girders, and have ample strength for the purpose for which they are intended.

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* Taken from a paper on "Joist and Wall-Hangers," read by Mr. F. E. Kidder at a meeting of the Colorado Chapter of the American Institute of Architects, February 27, 1903.

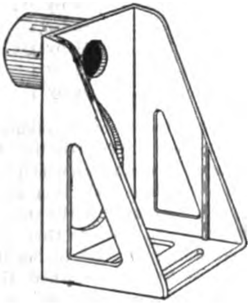

Fig. 11. Duplex Joist-hanger

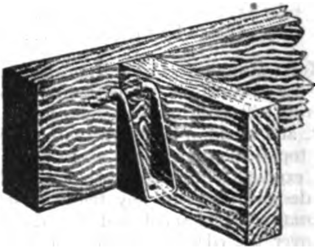

Fig. 12. Goetz Joist-hanger

As shown by the illustrations, they are made to be inserted in round holes bored in the side of the carrying timbers, at or a little above the center line. With these hangers the effect of shrinkage is reduced one-half, and the other two objections to the stirrup, previously mentioned, are overcome. The Duplex hanger has ridges on the inside of the side brackets to hold the beam.

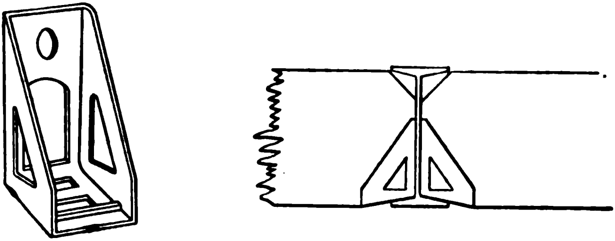

Fig. 13. Duplex I-beam Hangers

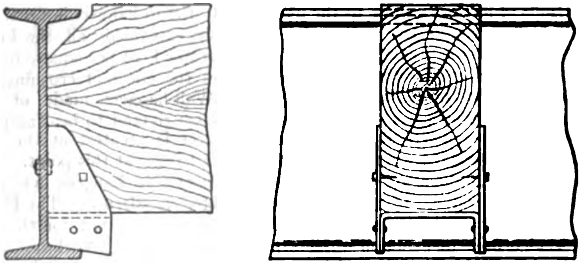

Fig. 14. Duplex I-beam Shelf-hanger. Joists Raised Less than Four Inches

For timbers of larger size and for the heaviest construction, the Duplex hangers, shown in Fig. 32, page 789, are used and are bolted to the beams. By this construction the entire building is tied together laterally.

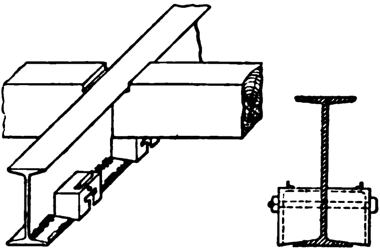

Fig. 15. Duplex I-beam Box Hanger. Joists Raised More than Four Inches

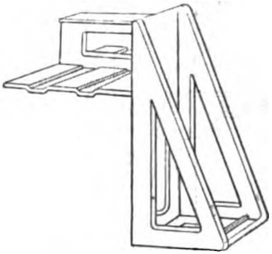

Fig. 16. Duplex Wall-hanger for Joists

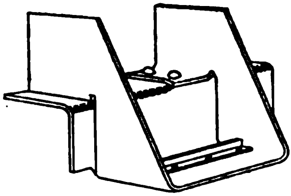

Fig. 17. Duplex Steel Wall-hanger for Large Beams

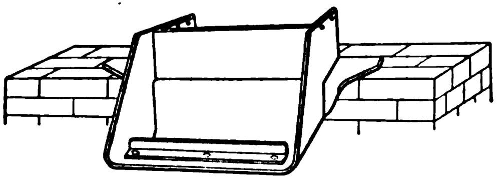

Fig. 18. Duplex Extra-heavy Wall-hanger for Mill-construction

Fig. 13 shows the Duplex I-beam hanger for framing floor-joists to I beams. This hanger is made to exactly fit into the flange of the I beam. It has a rib on the bottom, ⅜ in high, which serves as a tie when the joist is placed in the hanger, and it provides a bearing of at least 4½ in for the joist. It is made to carry any joist of regular size, and offers one of the best devices for framing wooden joists to I beams of the same depth. The hangers are bolted to the web of the I beam. Fig. 14 shows the Duplex I-beam shelf-hanger which is used when the construction requires the joists to be raised above the lower flange of the I beam less than 4 in. Fig. 15 illustrates the Duplex I-beam box-hanger and is recommended where the joists are raised more than 4 in above the lower flange of the I beam. In both these constructions the hangers are bolted singly or opposite, as required, on the I beam and the loads are carried on the lower flanges of the beams. Fig. 16 shows a similar hanger made to support the wall-end of a floor-joist. This form of construction is considered much superior to the method of building the joists into a wall, as it absolutely prevents dry-rot, and permits the joists to fall, in case of fire, without throwing the wall. It also gives the load a good bearing on the wall. Fig. 17 illustrates the Duplex steel wall-hanger for larger timbers, and Fig. 18 shows the Duplex extra-heavy wall-hanger for the heaviest mill-construction. These hangers bear the label of approval of the National Board of Fire Underwriters and are generally considered the best-designed wall-hangers now on the market. This hanger gives an extra bearing on the masonry and is so constructed that it reacts as a unit and distributes the load equally over the entire surface of the masonry. There is no tendency for a hanger of this type to crush in at the edge of the masonry and straighten out, as is the case with some other types of wall-hangers. Fig. 19 shows the Duplex wall-hanger used in connection with walls constructed of concrete blocks. These hangers are often used in repair-work in party walls, as they avoid the cutting of large holes in the walls, and also provide an easy and simple method of carrying the joists clear of the walls. The Ideal hanger illustrated in Fig. 20 is made of wrought steel and corrugated at the points where it is bent over. This reinforces it and tends to prevent bending at these points. Fig. 21 illustrates another form of the Ideal hanger with holes for spiking to a timber. This hanger, also, is corrugated. In these hangers the full strength of the steel is retained as the fibers of the metal are not cut in forming them. They are made of wrought-steel bars folded to the required shape. Fig. 22 shows the Ideal hanger riveted

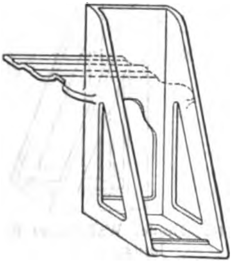

Fig. 19. Duplex Wall-hanger for Concrete Blocks

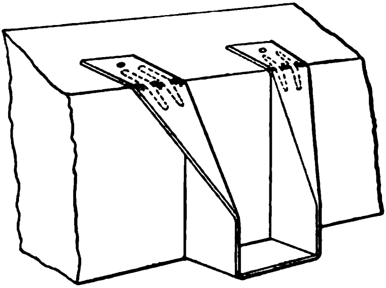

Fig. 20. "Ideal" Wrought-steel Beam-hanger

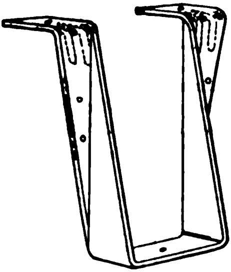

Fig. 21. "Ideal" Wrought-steel Beam-hanger

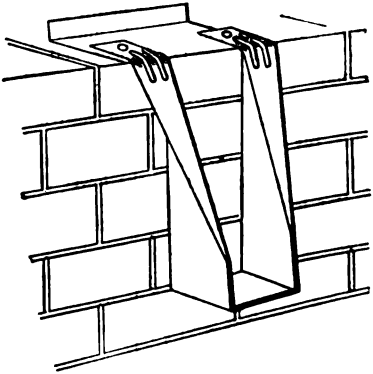

Fig. 22. "Ideal" Wrought-steel Wall-hanger

to a steel plate and in position to be built into a brick wall. Other illustrations of wall-hangers are given in Chapter XXII. The Van Dorn hanger, illustrated in Fig. 23, is essentially a stirrup forged from high-grade steel. The few tests that have been made would seem to indicate that it developes a greater resistance to bending than the ordinary stirrup, while it gives a wider bearing for the joist and presents a much neater appearance. Fig. 24 shows the same hanger riveted to a bent iron plate, to build into brick walls. When the hanger is to be used over a steel beam the upper ends are bent to fit over the flange of the beam, as in Fig. 25. "Although I know of no test of the strength of a Van Dorn I-beam hanger, it would seem as though it must be much stronger than the pattern made for wooden beams, on account of the clinch over the flange of the I beam. The Van Dorn hangers have been used in many important buildings." *

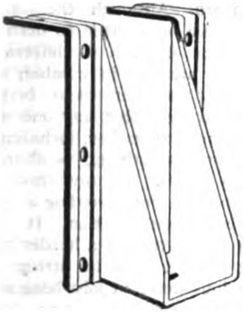

Fig. 23. Van Dorn Beam-hanger

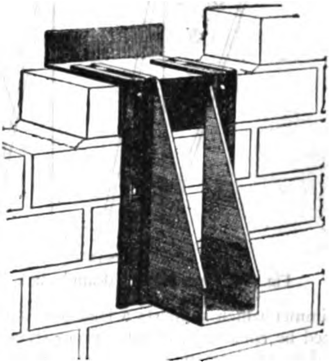

Fig. 24. Van Dorn Wall-hanger

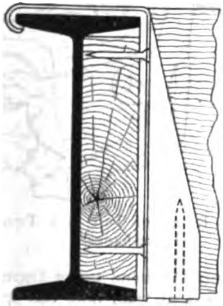

Fig. 25. Van Dorn I-beam Hanger

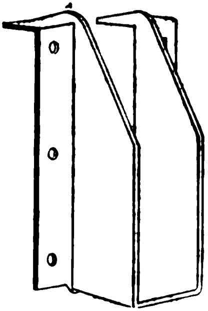

Fig. 26. National Joist or Beam-hanger

Figs. 26 and 27 show the general form of two other patented joist-hangers, which are forged from plate steel. Both of these hangers, also, are made to be

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* F. E. Kidder.

built into brick walls and to go over steel beams. The National hanger (Fig. 26) has a flange on top, which helps materially in distributing the load over the top of the beam as shown in figure. The larger hangers of this style have holes in the top for large spikes. This hanger and the Lane hanger (Fig. 27) have been much used.

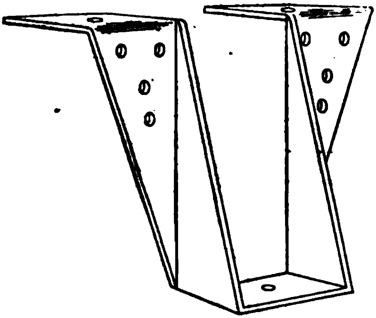

Fig. 27. Lane Joist or Beam-hanger

Comparative Strengths of Different Types of Joist-Hangers. Although the tests that have been made to determine the strength of different hangers are few in number, a sufficient number have been made to show that any one of the hangers described, including the common stirrup, is abundantly strong for any SINGLE FLOOR-BEAM not exceeding 4 by 14 in in cross-section It is only in the case of a header or trimmer which supports a load over a considerable floor-area that the strength need be considered at all. From tests made at various times on joist-hangers and on girder-hangers, it would appear that, under extreme loads, two-part hangers usually develop great strength. A two-part hanger, carrying a 10 by 14-in girder, sustained a load of 38 000 lb without injury to the hanger itself. A similar hanger held until loaded up to 39 550 lb, when one side broke off short under the nipple projecting into the timber, the condition of the hanger after failure being shown in Fig. 28. A common stirrup made from ⅝ by 2½-in wrought iron failed under a load of 13 750 lb by bending and pulling over the header, as shown in Fig. 29. A 6 by 12-in steel hanger "began to straighten out under a load of 13 300 lb, and failed to hold under a load of 18 750 lb."* SINGLE hangers of the stirrup-type DO NOT BREAK, but fail by the bending up of the parts which lie over the top of the header as shown in Fig. 29. They also appear to crush the wood under them particularly at the edges, to a very much greater extent than does the spool of the Duplex hanger. With a DOUBLE stirrup the ultimate strength is measured by the strength of the iron. Thus, a double stirrup, made of ⅝ by 2½-in wrought iron, was loaded up to 57 650 lb (28 825 lb on each side), when it broke at one of the lower corners. A single stirrup would of course be just as strong if it could be kept from bending. In actual construction the flooring over the beams to some extent prevents the top of a stirrup from springing up. The tests that

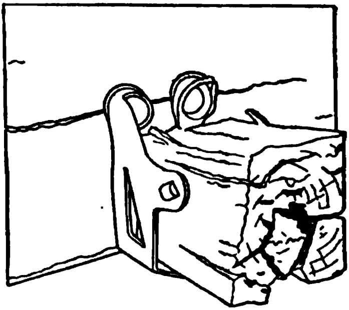

Fig 28. Result of Test of a Two-part Beam-hanger

have been made of two-part hangers show conclusively that where only a single hanger is used the holes which are bored in the header do not seriously affect its strength when the load is within the safe limit, and a test made at Baltimore, Md., August 24, 1904, with 2 by 12-in joists, spaced 12 in on centers and suspended by these hangers let into a header formed of three 3 by 12-in joists, spiked together, would seem to prove that even when the holes are 12 in apart they do not seriously weaken it. "The only record of the failure of any form of hanger when in actual use in a building, of which I am aware, is that of a failure in Minneapolis, where a portion of six floors of a warehouse fell, on Nov. 7, 1902, through the failure of a wall-hanger made from a 4 by 2 by ¼-in structural-steel angle, which was sheared and bent, and riveted to an 8 by 16 by ¼-in bearing-plate. The failure was due to the crushing of the outer edge of the brickwork under the hanger, and the consequent bending up of the top portion. The actual load on the hanger was about 15 000 lb." *

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* From data compiled by Mr. Kidder from a series of tests on beam-hangers and joist-hangers.

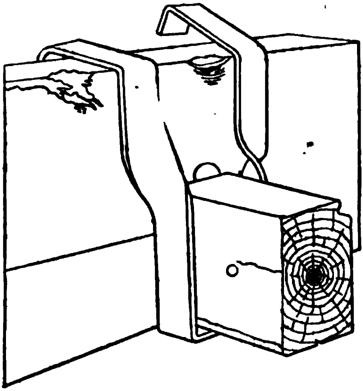

Fig. 29. Result of Test of Wrought-iron Stirrup-hanger

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* F E. Kidder. See, also, Engineering News, Nov. 20, 1902.

CHAPTER XXII

WOODEN MILL AND WAREHOUSE-CONSTRUCTION

BY

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SUPERINTENDENT OF SURVEYS, PHILADELPHIA FIRE UNDERWRITERS' ASSOCIATION

1. Mill-Construction

Definition. The term MILL-CONSTRUCTION is commonly used to designate a method of construction brought about largely through the influence of the Boston Manufacturers' Mutual Fire Insurance Company of Boston, Mass., and especially through the efforts of Mr. Wm. B. Whiting, whose judgment in mechanical matters, and experience and skill as a manufacturer were for many years devoted to the interests of insurance companies, and to the improvement of factories of all kinds. The extended use of this system and the improvements that have been made in it during recent years are probably due more to the influence of Mr. Edward Atkinson, President of the Boston Manufacturers' Mutual Insurance Company and Director of the Insurance Engineering Experiment Station at Boston, than to that of any other individual.

Cost. The purpose of mill-construction is to reduce the fire-risk to its lowest point without going to the expense of fire-proof construction. The increasing cost of heavy timber, however, and in fact of all lumber, together with the lessened cost of the erection of the so-called FIRE-PROOF TYPES, constructed entirely of reinforced concrete, or built with protected steel frames and incombustible floors, and the recognition, also, of the obvious advantages of more FIRE-RESISTING CONSTRUCTION, especially in the congested sections of cities, are bringing these types into more general use. The cost of these latter types of construction is, in many instances, no more than the cost of various types of mill-construction.

The Slow-burning or Mill-Construction Type. The experience of years has entirely justified the use of this type. It renders possible a somewhat less costly, and at the same time, what is of great importance, a more effective system of fire-protection than can be installed in buildings of light construction, with the so-called JOISTED FLOORS and with the roofs made of boards supported on 2-in, 3-in, or 4-in joists. The entire subject of SLOW-BURNING OF MILL-CONSTRUCTION as applied to factories is most admirably described and illustrated in Report No. 5 of the Insurance Engineering Station of the Boston Manufacturers' Insurance Company, No. 31 Milk Street, Boston, Mass., from which the author has, by permission, taken and adapted many of the following illustrations and descriptions.

2. What Mill-Construction Is*

(1) Heavy Timbers. MILL-CONSTRUCTION consists in so disposing the timbers and planks in heavy, solid masses as to expose the least number of corners or ignitable projections to fire; and to the end, also, that when fire occurs it may be most readily reached by water from sprinklers or hose.

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* From Report No. 5 of the Insurance Engineering Station of the Boston Manufacturers' Insurance Company, No. 31 Milk Street, Boston, Mass.

(2) **Fire-Stops.** It consists in separating every floor from every other floor by incombustible STOPS, by installing automatically closing hatchways and by encasing stairways either in brick or other incombustible partitions, so that a fire will be retarded in passing from floor to floor to the utmost consistent with the use of wood or any material not absolutely fire-proof.

(3) **Fire-Retardants.** It consists in guarding the ceilings over all specially hazardous stock or processes with FIRE-RETARDANT MATERIALS, such as plastering laid over wire lath or expanded metal, or over wooden dovetailed lath, following the lines of the ceilings and of the timbers and leaving no interspaces between the plastering and the wood; or else in protecting the ceilings over hazardous places with asbestos, air-cell boards, sheet metal, Sackett Plaster Board, or other fire-retardant.

(4) **Fire-Safeguards.** It consists not only in so constructing the mill, workshop, or warehouse that fire will pass as slowly as possible from one part of the building to another, but also in providing all suitable SAFEGUARDS AGAINST FIRE.

3. What Mill-Construction Is Not

(1) **Concealed Spaces.** Mill-construction does not consist in so disposing a given quantity of materials that the whole interior of a building becomes a SERIES OF WOODEN CELLS, or concealed spaces, connected with each other directly or by cracks through which fire may freely pass where it cannot be reached by water.

(2) **Size of Timbers, Fire-Stops, etc.** It does not consist of an open-timber construction of floors and roofs which resembles mill-construction, but which is built with light timber of insufficient size and with thin planks, without fire-stops or fire-guards from floor to floor.

(3) **Stairways.** It does not consist in connecting floor with floor by COMBUSTIBLE WOODEN STAIRWAYS encased in wood less than two inches thick.

(4) **Partitions.** It does not consist in putting in very numerous LIGHT, WOODEN DIVISIONS or partitions.

(5) **Sheathing and Furring.** It does not consist in SHEATHING brick walls with wood, especially when the wood is set off from the walls by FURRING, and even if there are stops behind the furring.

(6) **Varnish.** It does not consist in permitting the use of VARNISH on woodwork over which a fire will pass rapidly.

(7) **Glass, Fire-Shutters and Wire-Glass.** It does not consist in leaving windows exposed to adjacent buildings and unguarded by FIRE-SHUTTERS or WIRE-GLASS.

(8) **Painting and Dry-Rot.** It does not consist in painting, varnishing, filling or encasing heavy timbers and thick planks, as they are customarily delivered, and thus making possible what is called DRY-ROT, caused by a lack of ventilation or opportunity to season.

(9) **Sprinklers, Pumps, Pipes, Hydrants, etc.** It does not consist in leaving even the best-constructed building in which dangerous occupations are followed without AUTOMATIC SPRINKLERS, and without a complete and adequate equipment of PUMPS, PIPES and HYDRANTS.

(10) **Finishing in Wood and Other Materials.** It does not consist in using more WOOD IN FINISHING a building after the floors and roof are laid than is absolutely necessary, since there are now many safe methods available at low cost for finishing walls and constructing partitions with slow-burning or in-

combustible materials. Accordingly if plaster is to be put on a ceiling and is to follow the line of the underside of the flooring and the flooring-timbers, it should be PLAIN LIME-MORTAR PLASTER, which is sufficiently porous to permit seasoning. The addition of a skim-coat of lime-putty is hazardous, especially if the overflooring is laid over rosin-sized or asphalt paper. This rule applies to almost all timber as now delivered. Examples of all of the faulty methods of construction above mentioned have been found in various buildings purporting to be of mill-construction, and they all form parts of what has sometimes been called COMBUSTIBLE CONSTRUCTION.

4. Standard Mill-Construction

Example of Standard Mill-Construction. Fig. 1 shows a cross-section through a mill of the customary or STANDARD TYPE recommended by the Boston Manufacturers' Mutual Insurance Company, the details of construction being revised to May, 1908.

Walls. If additional stories are required, the walls may be increased in thickness according to the number of stories added, after a computation has been made of the loads which a STANDARD FACTORY may be called upon to sustain. Walls should be of brick and at least 13 in thick in the upper story, and their thickness should be increased in the lower stories to support additional loads. Plastered walls are often to be preferred to unplastered walls. Window-arches and door-arches should be of brick, and window-sills, outside door-sills and under-pinning of granite or concrete.

Roofs and Floors. The roofs should be of 3-in pine planks spiked directly to the heavy roof-timbers, and covered with five-ply tar-and-gravel roofing. Roofs should incline from ½ to ¾ in per ft, and incombustible cornices are recommended when there is exposure from neighboring buildings. Floors should be of spruce planks, 4 in or more in thickness according to the floor-loads, spiked directly to the floor-timbers, and kept at least ½ in away from the face of the brick walls. In order to obviate the danger of cracking the walls, which sometimes results from the swelling of planks laid close against them, these spaces left between walls and floor-planks must be covered by strips or battens both above and below. In floors and roofs, the bays should be from 8 to 10½ ft wide, and all planks two bays in length should be laid to break joints every 4 ft, and grooved for hard-wood splines. Usually an overfloor of birch or maple is laid at right-angles to the planking, but the best mills have a double overfloor, a lower one of soft wood, laid diagonally upon the planks and an upper one laid lengthwise. This latter method allows boards in alleys or passageways to be easily replaced when worn, while the diagonal boards brace the floors, reduce the vibration, and distribute the floor-loads more uniformly than the former method. Between the planking and the overfloor should be two or three layers of heavy, hard paper, laid to break joints, and each mopped with hot tar or similar material to make a reasonably water-tight as well as dust-tight floor. The usually rapid decay of the basement or lower floors of mills makes it desirable, whenever wood is not absolutely necessary, to make such floors of cement. If wooden floors are required, crushed stone, cinders, or furnace slag should be spread evenly over the surface, and covered with a thick layer of hot-tar concrete. On this tarred felt is often laid, well mopped with hot-tar asphalt, and over it a flooring of 2-in seasoned planks, well pressed down and nailed on edge without perforating the water-proofing under it. The hard-wood boards of the overfloor are then nailed across the planks. Cement concretes promote decay of wood in contact with them. If extra supports are -uired for heavy machinery, independent foundations of masonry should be

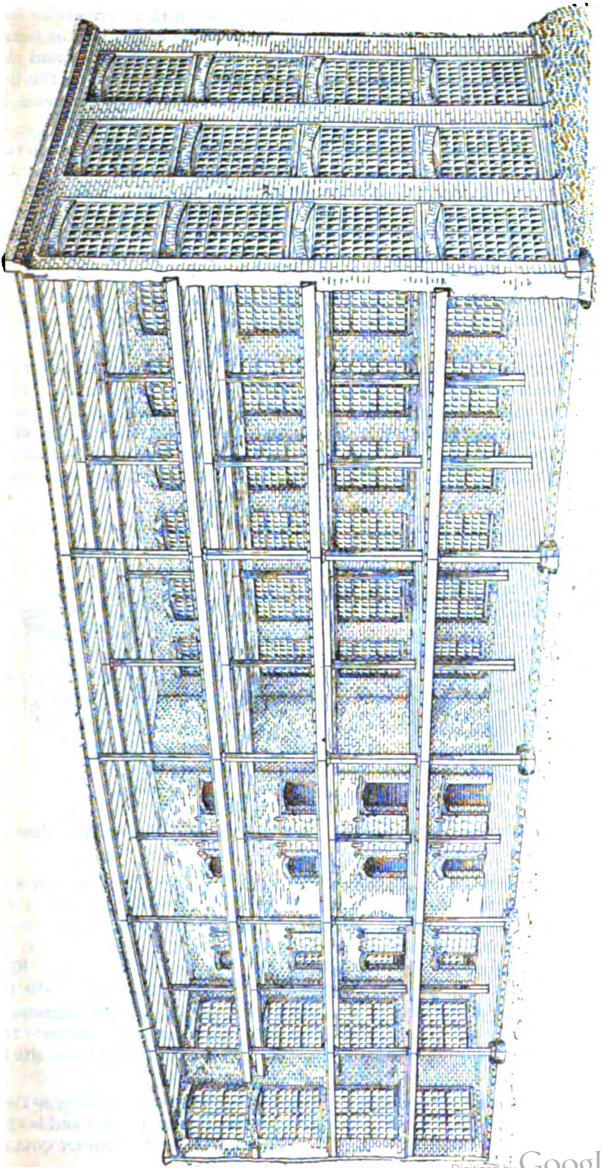

Fig. 1. Modern Mill-building of the Standard Type

provided. In view of the difficulties frequently met with in preserving basement floors of the ordinary timber construction, because of the lack of suitable ventilation underneath, and also in view of the rapid decay of timber and plank floors in bleacheries, dye-works, print-works, and the like, in which the floors quickly become saturated with moisture, artificial-stone floors are being laid in many of the modern plants.

Sizes and Kinds of Timbers. All woodwork, not STANDARD CONSTRUCTION, in order to be SLOW-BURNING, must be in LARGE MASSES which present the least surface possible to a fire. No pieces less than 6 in in width should be used for the lightest roofs, and for substantial roofs and floors much wider ones are needed. Timbers should be of sound, long-leaf, yellow pine, and for sizes up to 14 by 16 in, single pieces are preferred; or, timbers 7 to 8 by 16 in, are often used in pairs bolted together, without air-spaces between. They should not be painted, varnished or filled for three years because of the danger of dry rot, and for the same reason, an air-space should be left in the masonry around the ends.

Beam-Boxes, Column-Caps, etc. Timbers should rest on CAST-IRON PLATES or BEAM-BOXES in the walls and on cast-iron caps on the columns. BEAM-BOXES are of value as they strengthen the walls when the floor loads are heavy and the distance between windows small; they facilitate the laying of the bricks and the handling of the beams; and there is less danger of breaking the bricks in putting the beams in place. They also insure proper air-spaces around the ends of the beams. Fig. 2 shows a floor-timber resting on a CAST-IRON WALL-PLATE with a lug for anchoring the timber to the wall. Fig. 3 shows a roof-timber resting on a CAST-IRON WALL-PLATE, an overhanging, open, wooden cornice and a wrought-iron joist-anchor. Fig. 4 shows a CAST-IRON CAP and PINTLE for columns, and dogs for holding the floor-timbers together. Fig. 5 shows a roof-timber resting on a COLUMN-CAP cast to fit the slope of the roof; the timbers are held together by 1-in wrought-iron dogs. These diagrams are intended only as general illustrations of SLOW-BURNING or MILL-CONSTRUCTION. The details should always be adapted to the special conditions of the site and to the purposes for which the buildings are used.

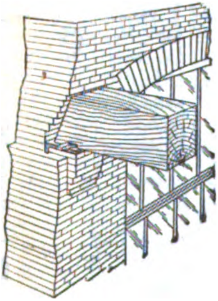

Fig. 2. Floor-timber on Wall-plate

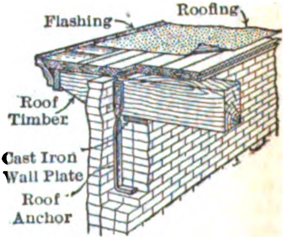

Fig. 3. Roof-timber on Wall-plate

Columns of yellow pine should be bored through the axis, making a 1½-in-diameter hole, and should have ½-in lateral vent-holes near the top and bottom. The ends should be carefully squared. To prevent dry-rot, WOODEN COLUMNS should not be painted until they are thoroughly seasoned. They should be set on PINTLES which may be cast in one piece with the cap, or separately. CAST-IRON COLUMNS are preferred by some engineers, and when a building is equipped with automatic sprinklers, such columns have proved satisfactory; but they are not as fire-resisting as wooden columns. WROUGHT-IRON OR STEEL COLUMNS should not be used unless encased with at least 3 in of fireproofing.

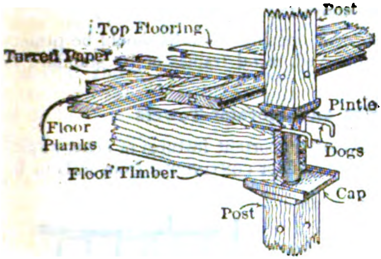

Fig. 4. Post-cap and Pintle for Floor-timber and Columns

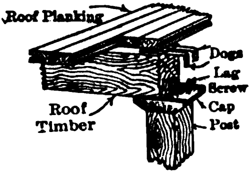

Fig. 5. Roof-timbers on Column-cap

Windows should be placed as high and made as wide as possible to obtain the greatest amount of light, and the use of RIBBED GLASS is recommended for the upper sashes.

Weight, Deflection and Vibration. In computing the size of the timbers as a ratio to the working-load, consideration must be given not only to the weights which are to be carried, but also to the CHARACTER OF THE MACHINERY which is to be operated on the floors. Beams of sufficient strength to support the weights may vibrate or deflect under the weight and action of the machinery; and there are, therefore, three factors, WEIGHT, DEFLECTION and VIBRATION, which must be considered in determining the width and depth of the beams that are to be used in the structure.

Objectionable Types of Construction. "We do not approve what has been sometimes miscalled MILL-CONSTRUCTION, that is, longitudinal girders resting upon posts and supporting floor-beams spaced 4 ft, more or less, on centers. This mode of construction not only adds to the quantity of wood used, but the disposal of the timbers obstructs the action of the sprinklers, prevents the sweeping of a hose-stream from one side of the mill to the other, and the girders also obstruct the most important light, that from the top of the windows."

Timber, Ventilation, Painting, etc. Timbers, unless known to be thoroughly seasoned, should not be encased in any kind of air-proof plastering nor painted with oil-paints; white-wash, calcimine and water-paints may be used, as they are porous. As a rule, timbers should be LEFT UNPROTECTED, since a fire which will seriously impair and destroy heavy timbers will already have done its work upon other parts of the structure.

Single and Compound Beams. While, in general, SINGLE BEAMS should be used, in some instances it may be desirable to substitute COMPOUND BEAMS, made by fastening two or more beams or thick planks side by side. It is often easier to obtain well-seasoned lumber in small dimensions. Such COMPOUND BEAMS should be tightly bolted together without air-spaces, and owing to the danger of dry-rot, should not be painted or varnished for three years.

Steam-Pipes. If a mill is to be heated by conveying steam through pipes, such pipes should be hung overhead.

Cornices. Wherever buildings are exposed or are liable to be exposed to fire in the near future, the cornices should be of non-combustible construction or, preferably, the walls should extend above the roof-timbers.

Glass, Frames and Shutters. All openings in walls should be protected either by approved wire-glass in approved, metal frames or by standard fire-shutters.

5. Belts, Stairways and Elevator-Towers

Continuous Floors. One of the most important features of SLOW-BURNING CONSTRUCTION is to make each and every floor CONTINUOUS from wall to wall, avoiding, as far as possible, holes for belts, stairways, or elevators so that a fire may be confined to the story in which it starts. No well-informed mill-owner, engineer or builder will, therefore, fail to locate elevators, stairs, and main belts, in BRICK TOWERS or in sections of the building cut off from all rooms

BELT, STAIRWAY AND ELEVATOR TOWERS

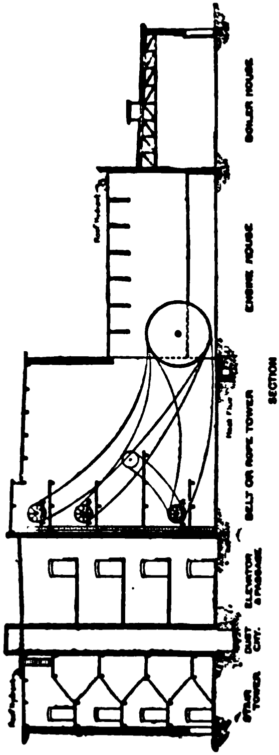

Fig. 6. Section through Tower for Elevators, Stairs and Belts

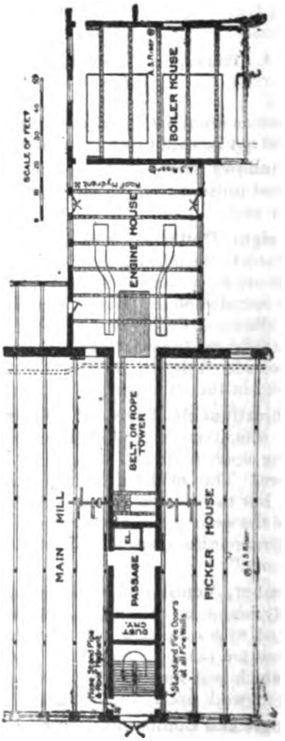

Fig. 7. Plan of Tower for Elevators, Stairs and Belts

by incombustible walls. All openings in these walls should be protected by STANDARD FIRE-DOORS, preferably self-closing. In modern practice all belts and ropes which may be used for the transmission of power to the various rooms, are placed in INCOMBUSTIBLE VERTICAL BELT-CHAMBERS, from which the power is transmitted by shafts through the walls into the several rooms of the factory. There should be no unprotected openings in the inner walls of this BELT-CHAMBER.

Shafts above Roof. Skylights. All SHAFTS for STAIRS, ELEVATORS, BELTS, etc., should extend at least 36 in above the roof, and all such shafts should be, if possible, on the outside of the building. Elevator and belt-shafts should be covered with thin glass skylights in metal frames, protected underneath with wire netting. Figs. 6 and 7 illustrate a section and plan of a COTTON-MILL, showing elevator, stair and belt-shafts arranged on the above principle. CLOSETS should be in a separate tower rather than in manufacturing rooms.

The Boiler-Plant should be in a separate building cut off from the engine-room by a brick wall, and the openings in this wall should be protected by AUTOMATIC, SLIDING, STANDARD FIRE-DOORS.

6. Standard Storehouse-Construction

Example of Storehouse-Construction. Fig. 8 shows a cross-section through the fire-tower and Fig. 9 the first-story plan, including the elevator and stair-tower of a four-story storehouse.

Area. Buildings for this purpose should not, in general, exceed 5 000 sq ft in AREA. When used, however, for storage of non-hazardous goods, the area may be increased to 10 000 sq ft.

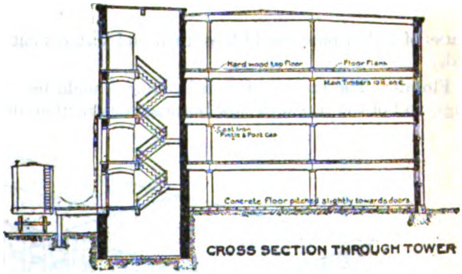
Hard wood top floor
Floor Plank
Main Timbers 10 ft. on c.
Cast Iron Pintle & Post cap
Concrete floor pitched slightly towards doors
CROSS SECTION THROUGH TOWER

Fig. 8. Four-story Storehouse. Section through Fire-tower

Height of Stories. In storehouses, the stories should be made low enough (Fig. 10) to prevent overloading, and when designed for case-goods, the HEIGHT OF STORIES should be sufficient to take two cases, with a 12-in, clear space under the beams to allow for the distribution of water from the sprinklers.

Fire-Walls. For convenience, as well as to separate the different hazards of raw materials and finished goods, the building should be divided into sections by FIRE-WALLS extending at least 36 in above the roof.

One-Story Storehouses. A ONE-STORY STOREHOUSE is recommended in preference to the design just described, whenever there is a sufficient quantity of level land at disposal for this purpose. The one-story building is cheaper, more convenient, and, when separated into small divisions by fire-walls, represents the safest method of storehouse-construction.

Timbers and Framing. The FLOOR-TIMBERS and ROOF-TIMBERS should be of long-leaf yellow pine, in single pieces, if possible. If necessary to use double beams, they should be bolted together without air-spaces between them. Timbers should rest on cast-iron plates or beam-boxes in the walls, and on cast-iron caps on the columns. At least ½-in air-spaces should be left around all beams built into the masonry, allowing free ventilation and preventing dry rot. Columns of yellow pine should have their end-surfaces cut square with the column-axis.

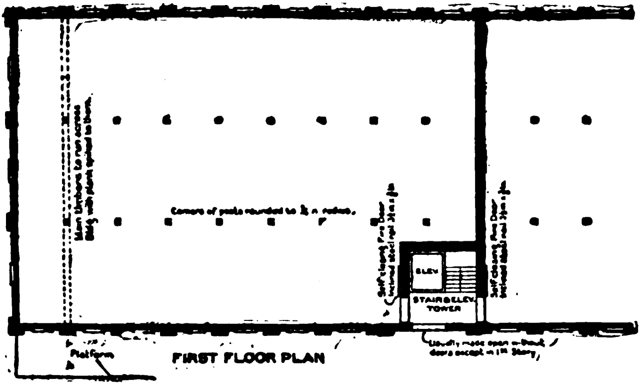
Main Girders to run across Bldg. with planks spiked to them.
Corners of posts rounded to 1½ in radius.
Self-closing Fire Door
ELEV.
STAIR & ELEV. TOWER
Self-closing Fire Door
Usually made open outside doors except in 1st Story.
Platform
FIRST FLOOR PLAN

Fig. 9. Four-story Storehouse. First-story Plan

Floors. The floors of such buildings should be continuous, without openings, and of the standard slow-burning construction, described under Standard Mill-Construction. The flooring should be constructed as called for under Standard Mill-Construction. In order that the floors may be as nearly water-proof as possible, tarred paper, mopped with tar, should be applied, as previously suggested. The floors in each story of the tower should be at least 1 in lower than the floor in the adjoining compartment, and the sills of the door-openings to the tower should be inclined to make up the difference in levels. The sill, also, of the outside door of the tower should be lower than the tower-floor.

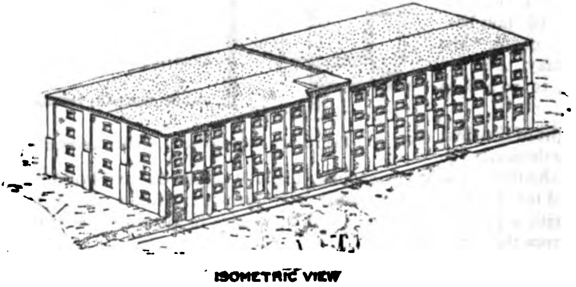

Fig. 10. Four-story Storehouse. Isometric View

Scuppers. Water on the floors of the tower will ordinarily flow down the tower-stairs, and the arrangement of the floor-levels indicated above will ordinarily prevent water from an upper story from flowing into one of the lower compartments, if it is escaping through the tower. Cast-iron SCUPPERS are advised, and they should be set in the brickwork at frequent intervals, and so designed that they will carry away rapidly a maximum quantity of water from the floors of each compartment. To further the drainage of water, the floors should be inclined from the middle of the compartments to the scuppers. Fig. 11 shows the WIND-SHIELD SCUPPER* which embodies the latest improvements.

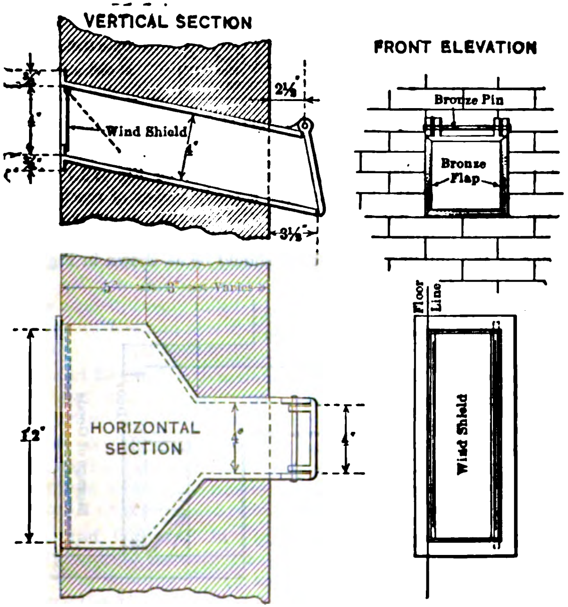

Fig. 11. Detail of Wind-shield Scupper

In the old-style scupper only one flap is provided on the outside of the building. During winter and windy weather, this flap blows open and sometimes freezes open. This results in a continuous draft through the scupper and over the working floor of the factory or warehouse and necessitates an increase in the amount of heat furnished. The scupper shown in Fig. 11 corrects this condition by providing the light wind-shield on the floor-level of the scupper. When the outer flap blows open the wind-shield shuts off the draft from the outside. This scupper, in addition, acts as a fire-retardant when an adjoining building is burning, and when there is a tendency for the flames to communicate through an open scupper and ignite merchandise on the floor. The wind-shield, by shutting off the drafts and fire, acts as a retardant or shield to keep out the flames.

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* Manufactured by the Wind-Shield Scupper Company, 1 Madison Avenue, New York City.

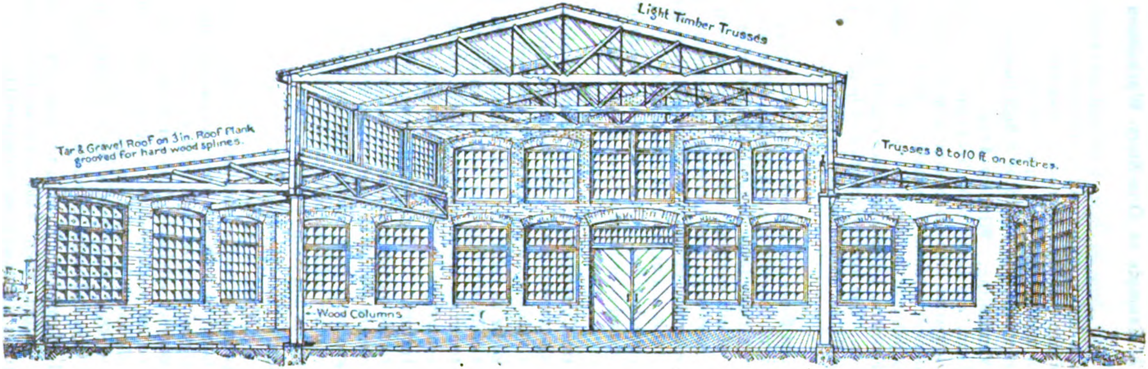
Light Timber Trusses
Tar & Gravel Roof on 3 in. Roof Plank grooved for hard wood splines.
Trusses 8 to 10 ft on centres.
Wood Columns

Fig. 14. One-story Work-shop. Roof-boards on Trusses

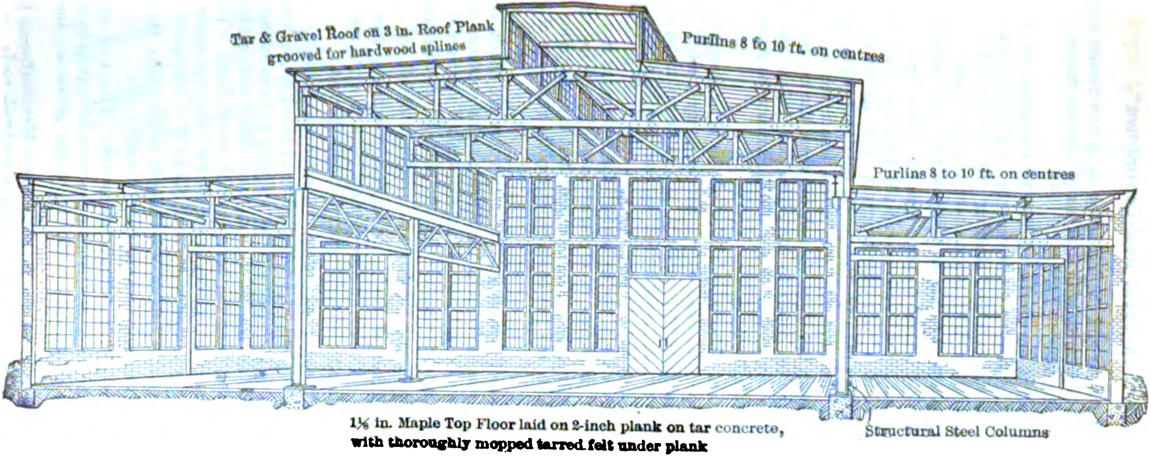
Tar & Gravel Roof on 3 in. Roof Plank grooved for hardwood splines
Purlins 8 to 10 ft. on centres
Purlins 8 to 10 ft. on centres
1⅛ in. Maple Top Floor laid on 2-inch plank on tar concrete, with thoroughly mopped tarred felt under plank
Structural Steel Columns

Fig. 15. One-story Work-shop. Roof-boards on Purlins

8. Saw-Tooth Roof-Construction*

The Great Advantages and the increasing use of SAW-TOOTH roof-construction, and the lack of familiarity with it at many factories, make it desirable to outline important features.

Two Typical Designs are illustrated, Fig. 16, a TEXTILE WEAVE-SHED with a good basement for the shafting for driving the looms on the main floor above, thus dispensing with the overhead shafting and belting in the weave-room; and Fig. 17, a design for a light MACHINE-SHOP or FOUNDRY. Other designs, using light wooden trusses or reinforced-concrete walls, are applicable.

Roof-Types. It may be well to state here that while light roofs with 2-in and 3-in joists and with light boards should never be used, and while the principles of SLOW-BURNING or MILL-CONSTRUCTION, with its heavy timbers, are preferred, the increasing difficulty of promptly obtaining yellow-pine lumber of good dimensions, and its increasing cost, often necessitate the use of trusses and rather light timbers; but in no case should these timbers be less than 6 in in width nor of insufficient depth to carry the load. This, also, is in order that they may be SLOW-BURNING. The roofs in all cases should be constructed of planks and have wide bays.

Steel Roof-Trusses. The adaptability of the light forms of STEEL FOR FRAMING TRUSSES, especially when wide spans are needed, often compels their use; and in plants having a safe occupancy, such as that of metal-workers, steel trusses are not objectionable, providing adequate sprinkler-protection with a good water-supply is available to prevent quick failure of the steel work, due to heat from the combustion of the contents of the building or from the burning of the roof. Similar protection is, of course, needed in shops with WOODEN TRUSSES, if disastrous fires are to be prevented; but experience has shown that the STEEL-TRUSSED ROOF will fail much more rapidly than one of wood under similar conditions.

Wooden versus Steel Columns. WOODEN POSTS are nearly always available and should be given preference; but if light STEEL COLUMNS are necessary they should be well protected by insulating materials if they are in rooms containing combustibles, as the column is the vital part of the roof-support.

Advantages of Saw-Tooth Roofs may be outlined as follows:

(1) **Uniform Diffusion of Light** throughout the room, thus making all space in it available. With all interior surfaces painted white and with ribbed glass in the sashes, the DIFFUSION OF LIGHT is almost perfect.

(2) **Better and Cheaper Lighting.** Greater adaptability for lighting large floor-areas in wide buildings with low head-room when compared with what is necessary in wide buildings with the ordinary form of monitor-skylights. Saw-tooth roofs furnish the true solution of the problem of excluding the direct rays of the sun and obtaining the very desirable north light. They result in greater ECONOMY IN LIGHTING, as they lower the fixed charges due to the smaller number of hours per day during which artificial light is necessary.

(3) **Better Working-Conditions,** especially in textile-mills, thereby increasing production and encouraging permanency of employees.

(4) **Special Adaptability to many Industries.** The SAW-TOOTH form is especially adapted to weaving and similar processes in textile-factories, to machine-shops, foundries doing light work, and similar processes, such as assem-

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* Taken and adapted by permission from the Boston Manufacturers' Mutual Insurance Company's specifications for the construction of saw-tooth roofs.

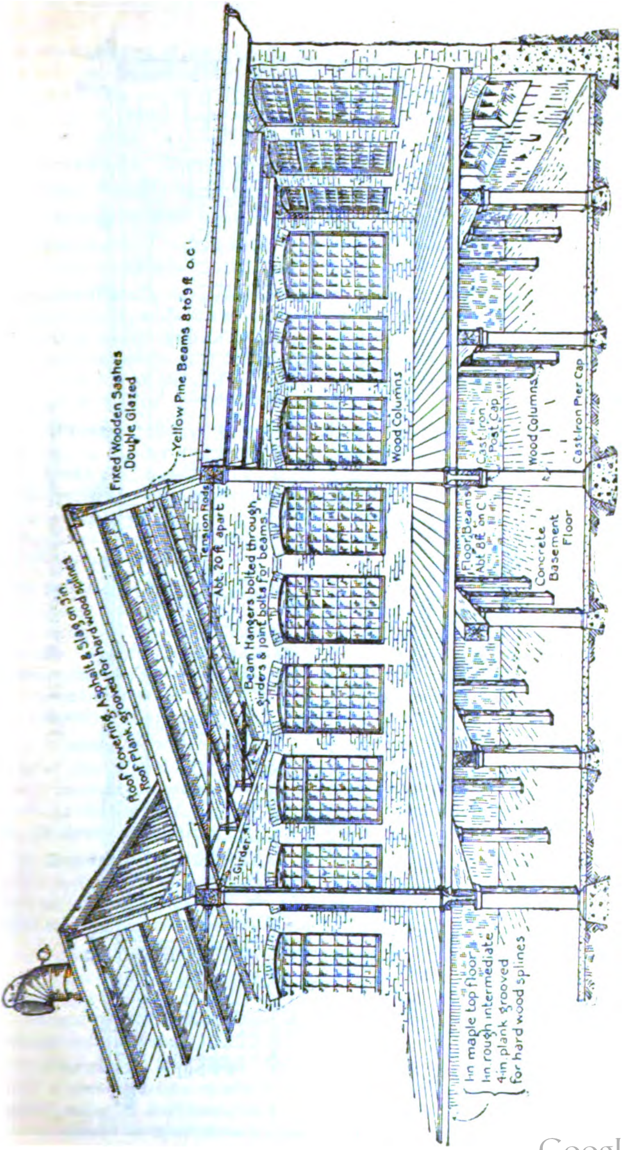

Roof Covering, Asphalt & Slag on 3 in.
Roof Plank, grooved for hard wood splines
Fixed Wooden Sashes Double Glazed
Yellow Pine Beams 8 to 9 ft. o.c.
Tension Rods
Abt. 20 ft. apart
Beam Hangers bolted through girders & joint bolts for beams.
Girder
Wood Columns
Cast Iron Post Cap
Floor Beams Abt. 8 ft. on C.
Concrete Basement Floor
Wood Columns
Cast Iron Pier Cap
1 in. maple top floor
1 in. rough intermediate
4 in. plank grooved for hard wood splines

Fig. 16. Saw-tooth Roof for Textile Weave-shed

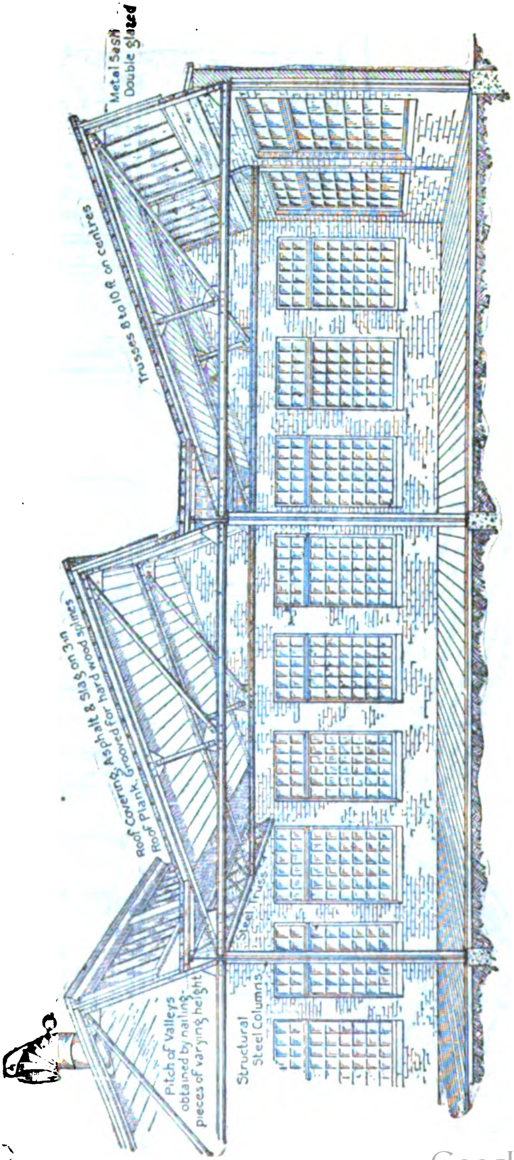


Fig. 17. Saw-tooth Roof for Machine-shop

bling and drafting, and to some dye-houses where careful matching of colors is necessary.

Disadvantages of Saw-Tooth Roofs. While the testimony of those who have had experience with SAW-TOOTH ROOFS is almost uniformly favorable, some difficulties have been experienced, practically all of which may be summed up as due to either faulty design or poor workmanship. The difficulties in general are caused by

(1) **Leaks,** due to severe conditions during winter in our northern climates.

(2) **Poor Ventilation.**

(3) **Excessive Heat** when roofs are thin.

(4) **Excessive Condensation** on the underside of roof and glass when the temperature outside is low and there is considerable moisture in the rooms.

Approved Methods of Construction. The following suggestions show how the difficulties mentioned may be obviated if the APPROVED METHODS are applied to special cases by competent engineers or architects. What is good ENGINEERING from the view-point of the manufacturer can also be good FIRE-PROTECTION ENGINEERING, and any design should be adapted to both if the best interests of the manufacturer are to be served:

(1) **Diffused Indirect Sunlight.** As it is desirable to avoid direct sunlight and at the same time obtain an abundance of light, perfectly diffused, the SAW-TEETH should face approximately north and the glass should be inclined to the vertical to take advantage of the brighter light in the upper sky and to prevent cutting off the light by the saw-tooth immediately in front; and, above all, to assure the DIFFUSION OF THE LIGHT over the floor rather than on the under side of the roof-planking.

(2) **Angle of Glass.** For the glass an angle of from 20° to 25° from the vertical and an angle of approximately 90° at the top of the SAW-TOOTH will be about right, the variations depending upon the amount of light required and the latitude. A sharper angle at the top is not needed, as it increases the cost, and makes more roof to be covered and larger spans; more glass, also, is required in proportion, and the light is not as good, as more light from the sky is lost and too much light is thrown on the under side of the roof.

(3) **Glazing-Details.** DOUBLE GLAZING with a space left between the lights of glass is preferred on account of its conducting qualities; but it is not always necessary, except in the more northerly countries. The inside glazing should be done with factory-ribbed glass, set with the ribs vertical and facing in. Shadows cast by trusses are then almost unnoticeable.

(4) **Gutters and Conductors.** CONDENSATION-GUTTERS are needed inside, at the bottom of the sashes, and they should be drained through INSIDE CONDUCTORS and not to the outside under the bottom of the sashes, as these latter admit cold air and are liable to freeze.

(5) **Valleys** between the SAW-TEETH should be flat, from 14 in to 2 ft in width and pitched ½ in per ft towards the conductors, which should be of ample size, and not much over 50 ft apart, and preferably less. The necessary PITCH may be obtained by cross-pieces of varying heights set on top of the trusses, and thus avoiding hollow spaces.

(6) **Prevention of Leaks.** LEAKS, which are common faults, may ordinarily be prevented by a careful design of the gutters, valleys and sashes, and by insisting on good workmanship and materials. The roof-covering of asphalt or pitch should be continuous through the valleys and extend up to the glass.

One form of construction understood to have been very satisfactory is shown in Fig. 18 and in connection with it, reference should be made to the papers and discussion on Saw-Tooth Roofs in Trans. Am. Soc. M. E., 1907, vol. 28, which contain much of value.

(7) **Warming and Ventilation.** Experience has demonstrated the advantage of a combination of direct radiation with a fan sufficient only for ventilation and tempering the heat of the room. Heating-pipes should usually be placed overhead and directly under the front of the saw-teeth, and run the entire length, and in this position assist in preventing condensation. Where there is no moving shafting, some forced circulation is necessary, and it is best obtained by a fan, which drives the air from either a dry basement or from outside as may be required, and discharges it over heating-coils to the story above. In weaving and similar rooms this is especially necessary and advantageous in promoting the health and comfort of the employees, and in making their working-efficiency greater. Ventilation and cooling of these large areas with comparatively low stories must not be neglected. Ample vents are needed at the top in the form of large metal ventilators with double walls and tight dampers. They are recommended in place of pivoted or swinging sash, which are apt to leak in driving storms, and when open, allow dirt to blow in from the roof. Good windows are advised in side walls and experience has shown their value.

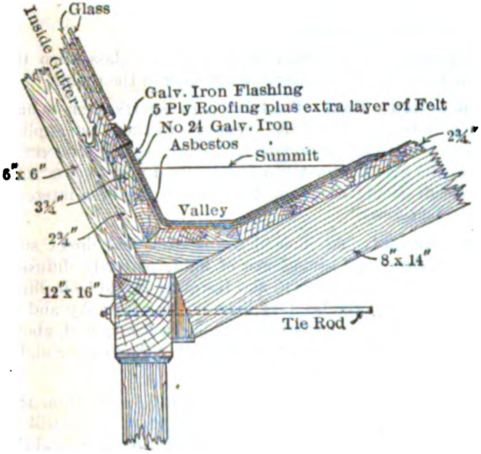


Fig. 18. Detail of Valley of Saw-tooth Roof

(8) **Details of Framing and Construction.** The framing of the saw-teeth may be of timber, steel or reinforced concrete. The design should be such as will obstruct the light as little as possible, strong enough to hold wet snow without sagging, and stiff enough to carry shafting motors, etc., when they are to be overhead. When wood or steel is used the roof-planking should be 3 in or more in thickness spanning bays from 8 to 10 ft in width. Hollow spaces in roofs should not be permitted. They are very undesirable from a fire-standpoint, and any condensation which may take place in them during cold weather soon rots both planks and sheathing. Sheathing, even without spaces behind it, is a more or less objectionable feature, as it is readily combustible; but if it is used it should be applied directly to the under side of the roof-planks, with only a layer of some insulating material between, so that there will be no concealed spaces. If 3-in planks are sufficient for a flat roof, they should be, also, for a saw-tooth roof; and with a good circulation of air there should be no trouble, except in wet rooms. In such rooms there is

bound to be condensation, whether they are under a roof or under the floor of a room above, unless large quantities of dry air are discharged into them.

(9) **Cost.** SAW-TOOTH ROOFS necessarily cost more than FLAT ROOFS, as there is practically the same amount of roofing as in flat roofs and, in addition, the cost of windows, glazing, flashing, conductors, condensation-gutters for skylights, and a somewhat larger cost for heating. The additional cost of these items does not, however, fairly represent the comparative cost, as there should be considered the total cost of the building compared with that of an ordinary one with sufficiently high stories and with a width narrow enough to give the required light. When this is done the slight additional cost is far outweighed by the advantages gained for work requiring very good light.

9. Mill-Construction as Applied to Warehouses

Cost. Owing to the increasing cost of heavy timbers for wooden construction, to the lower cost of the so-called FIRE-PROOF CONSTRUCTION, and also to the better FIRE-RESISTING qualities of the latter, owners, architects and builders should carefully compare the cost of construction, and also the cost of insurance of the two types, before deciding on the one to be used. The difference in the cost of construction between these two types is so small, that in many localities the lower cost will be in favor of the REINFORCED CONCRETE or other type of FIRE-PROOF CONSTRUCTION. The cost of construction is also in favor of the FIRE-PROOF TYPE, where both long spans and strength are required.

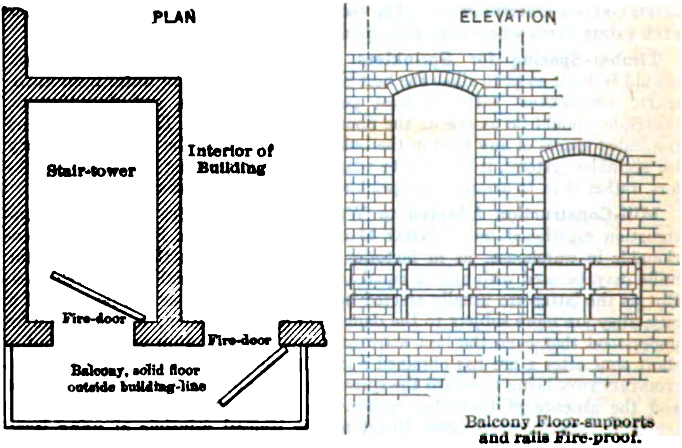
Timber-Spacing for Sprinklers. Warehouses of MILL-CONSTRUCTION should be built so as to allow the best possible distribution of water from AUTOMATIC SPRINKLERS, with the least possible obstructions, and floor-timbers, therefore, should be as few as the floor-loads will allow. There should be no concealed spaces of any kind in the building. To insure the greatest efficiency for sprinkler-systems, it is better to adapt the timber-spacing to suit the sprinklers, rather than to arrange the sprinklers to suit the timber-spacing.

Mill-Construction Adapted to Warehouses. The features of bad construction mentioned under WHAT MILL-CONSTRUCTION IS NOT are as objectionable in warehouses as in factories, while the construction advocated for mills may be used with almost equal advantage in the erection of warehouses. But as the latter are usually erected in the more thickly settled portions of a city, they are more subject to the dangers of a conflagration; and it should be understood that even the best SLOW-BURNING CONSTRUCTION will stand but a short time after a fire has obtained a good headway, the main object of MILL-CONSTRUCTION being to retard the spreading of fire by the use of heavy timbers and the absence of concealed spaces. In applying the principles of MILL-CONSTRUCTION to warehouses, therefore, the general principle of using large timbers placed as far apart as the loads will permit, and of avoiding all concealed spaces, should be constantly kept in mind.

Warehouse-Floors, however, are generally required to sustain heavier loads than are found in woolen and cotton-mills, and hence require heavier construction. While WAREHOUSE-FLOORS are quite often built with transverse girders, 8 or 10 ft apart, the spaces being spanned by flooring from 4 to 6 in thick, the more common method of construction is to use one or more lines of longitudinal girders supporting floor-beams spaced as far apart as possible, preferably not less than 8 ft on centers.

Area and Height. The AREA of buildings of this type should be, preferably, not over 7 500 sq ft, and in no case should it exceed 15 000 sq ft between fire-walls. If buildings of LARGE AREA are required, it is advisable to divide them into separate sections by fire-walls, thus reducing the liability to one fire, and affording an opportunity of storing hazardous goods in one or more sections, and non-hazardous or less hazardous goods in the remaining sections. Where ground is available, it is better to have a building of LARGE AREA AND LOWER HEIGHT divided into fire-sections, than to have a building of LESSER AREA AND GREATER HEIGHT, as the former construction affords a more economical handling of goods, and less concentration of values. Buildings of this type should be limited to 65 ft in height, and to six stories, thus discouraging the overloading of floors. Piled goods should be kept at least 18 in away from beams, thus allowing for the distribution of water from the sprinklers.

Walls should be of brick, and not less than 13 in thick in the upper story, and they should be increased in thickness on the lower floors to take care of additional loads. PARTY WALLS should be increased at least 4 in in thickness, and all walls should be laid in cement mortar, should extend above the roof at least 36 in and be coped with stone, salt-glazed terra-cotta, or similar non-combustible materials. OPENINGS IN DIVISION WALLS should be limited to as few as possible, not over three in each story, they should not exceed 80 sq ft each in area, and should be protected by double, automatic, sliding fire-doors, as specified elsewhere. (See Chapter XXIII, page 907.)


PLAN
ELEVATION
Stair-tower
Interior of Building
Fire-door
Fire-door
Balcony, solid floor outside building-line
Balcony Floor-supports and rails Fire-proof.

Note: Walls of brick or other approved material, built solidly from foundations to at least 36 inches above roof.
Stair-treads, etc., of fire-proof material.

Fig. 19. Tower Fire-escape. Outside-balcony Entrance

Openings in Walls. As a protection against fires from surrounding properties, OPENINGS IN OUTER WALLS should be small, limited to as few as possible, and protected by standard fire-shutters and doors, or standard wire-glass windows. If the surrounding buildings are of hazardous occupancy or inferior construction, and the distance between the warehouse and the latter but a few feet, shutters are preferable, as wire-glass windows are recommended only where the exposures are moderate. Even though the building is not exposed to fire from other buildings, the protection of WINDOW-OPENINGS may prevent the spread of fire from story to story through the windows.

Girders and Beams which support the floors and roof should be SINGLE PIECES, not less than 6 in in least dimension, and with a sectional area of not less than 72 sq in; while columns should be not less than 8 by 8 in in cross-section in the upper story, and should be increased in size in the other stories to take care of any additional loads. The beams and girders should be SELF-RELEASING (Fig. 2), and the floors should be built as outlined under STANDARD MILL-CONSTRUCTION, page 760, inclined at least 1 in in 20 ft, made as nearly water-proof as possible, and scuppered to the outside of the building. These scuppers should be set in brick-work at frequent intervals, of sufficient size to carry off the maximum amount of water from each floor, and so constructed that they will prevent the admission of cold air to the building. (See Fig. 11.)

Towers. The floors should be continuous from wall to wall, avoiding holes for belts, stairways, elevators, etc. All such openings should be enclosed in a BRICK TOWER or in TOWERS extending not less than 36 in above the roof, coped as above, and accessible from each story by means of an outside balcony (Fig. 19).

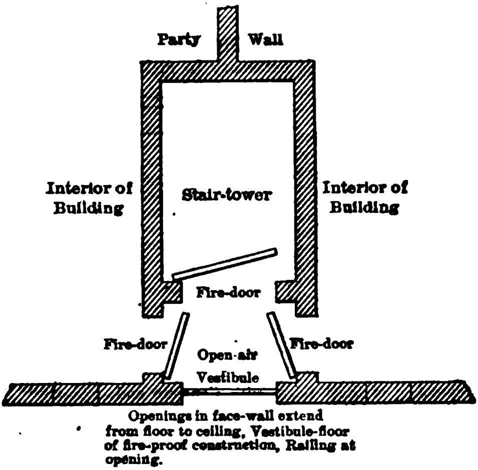

Party
Wall
Interior of Building
Stair-tower
Interior of Building
Fire-door
Fire-door
Open-air Vestibule
Fire-door
Openings in face-wall extend from floor to ceiling, Vestibule-floor of fire-proof construction, Railing at opening.

Fig. 20. Tower Fire-escape for Adjoining Buildings

Where it is impossible, owing to the location or otherwise, to have these openings on the outside, they should be placed in BRICK TOWERS constructed inside the building and connecting with an entrance to a fire-proof vestibule, open to the weather. There should be openings from each story to the vestibule, each protected by standard fire-doors (Fig. 20).

Gravity-Tanks for Automatic Sprinklers are usually placed on extensions of such towers, and they should be built to carry the additional load imposed. Easy access to the roof of the building may be had from a window or windows placed in the tower, and such opening or openings should be protected by fire-shutters, especially where the tower is elevated a sufficient distance to allow the tank to be placed inside of the tower, thus preventing flames from gaining access to the tower and destroying the tank and tank-supports.

Boilers should be, preferably, in a separate building, cut off by standard fire-doors from the warehouse; or, if in the main building, should be located in a room of FIRE-PROOF CONSTRUCTION, access to which should be from outside the building only.

Structural Steel Members should never be used in this type of construction, as they will not resist even a moderate fire. If used, they should be protected with fire-proof material. The lintels should be brick arches and not steel sections.

10. Steel and Iron Structural Members in Warehouse-Construction

Metal versus Wooden Standard Members. Owing to the fact that a beam or column of STEEL or WROUGHT IRON when heated will fail by buckling or bending very much sooner than an equivalent beam or post of WOOD, it is important that such members be of WOOD, provided that the WOODEN BEAMS have a sectional area of at least 72 sq in, and are not less than 6 in in least dimension, and that WOODEN COLUMNS have a sectional area of not less than 8 by 8 in. CAST-IRON COLUMNS, also, will generally fail in fire and water sooner than wooden columns.

Fireproofing Steel Beams and Girders. When STEEL BEAMS and COLUMNS are used, fireproofing is necessary to make them as FIRE-RESISTING as the floors. Such beams and girders may be FIRE-PROOFED as shown in Fig. 21. Metal-wire mesh should be placed as shown, and tied to the beams and girders with metal clips; and to insure rigidity during the pouring of the concrete and to keep the mesh in alignment, forms should be used. The concrete should be poured before the floors are laid, and after the wooden beams are in position. After completion, the insulation should be at least 1 in at the edges of the flanges, 2 in under the lower flange of the beam and 3 in under the lower flange of the girder. The webs should be filled solid. Where there is little storage of a combustible nature in the building, the beams may be protected as shown in Fig. 22. (See, also, pages 863 to 866.)

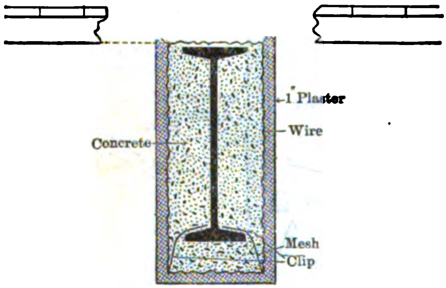


Fig. 21. Fireproofing of Steel Beam with Concrete and Plaster

Fireproofing Metal Columns. COLUMNS, either STEEL, WROUGHT-IRON, or CAST-IRON, should be protected even to a greater extent than girders and beams, and should have at least 3 in of concrete at the flanges, at least 1½ in at the edges, and be filled solidly against the webs. Fig. 23 shows two columns protected by concrete held by wire mesh on ⅝-in rods, and all securely held to the column by metal clips. Forms should be used and the concrete should be poured as the girders and beams are protected. Steel beams, girders and columns are difficult to protect, especially at the intersections of steel and wood, and this insulating material can best be applied before the floors are laid. The fire-proofing of these members will be of little avail, unless the materials are good, well tied to the metal members, and applied by workmen who understand such work.

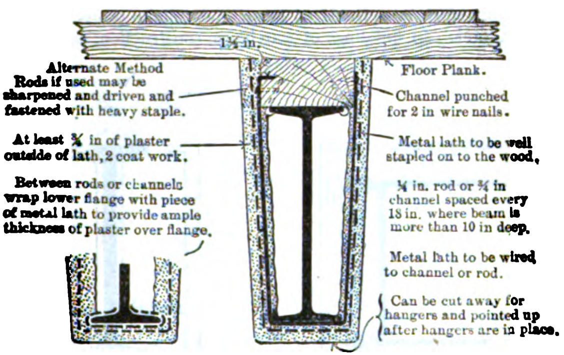

1¾ in.
Alternate Method
Rods if used may be sharpened and driven and fastened with heavy staple.
At least ¾ in of plaster outside of lath, 2 coat work.
Between rods or channels wrap lower flange with piece of metal lath to provide ample thickness of plaster over flange.
Floor Plank.
Channel punched for 2 in wire nails.
Metal lath to be well stapled on to the wood,
¾ in. rod or ¾ in channel spaced every 18 in. where beam is more than 10 in deep.
Metal lath to be wired to channel or rod.
Can be cut away for hangers and pointed up after hangers are in place.

Fig. 22. Fireproofing of Steel Beam with Metal-lath and Plaster

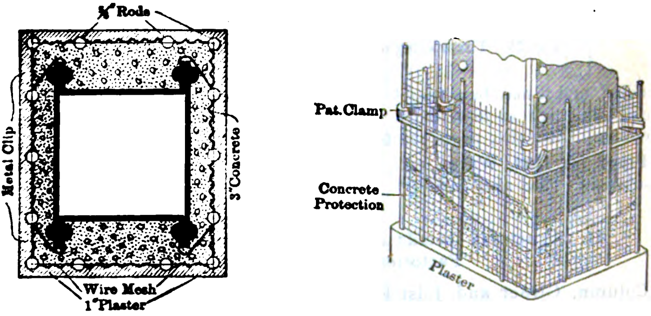


Fig. 23. Fireproofing of Steel Columns with Concrete and Plaster

Fig. 24 illustrates the PROTECTION OF A ROUND COLUMN by reinforced concrete. Here the concrete is held in position by wire mesh on metal furring, held in position by metal clips or ties. The fireproofing should be at least 4 in thick, and forms should be used in surrounding the columns. In addition to the above reinforcements for these columns, lateral reinforcement should be added by means of iron rods wound spirally around mesh, and placed 12 in on centers. After the forms are removed, and the wooden floors are laid, the columns and girders should be finished with a 1-in thickness of hard plaster, filling all interstices between the woodwork and the insulation. Tile,

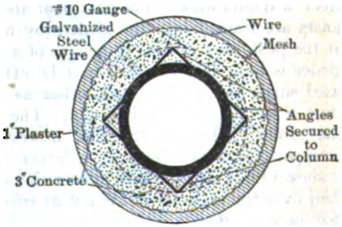


Fig. 24. Fireproofing of Cast-iron Column with Concrete and Plaster

owing to the difficulty of properly bonding it, is not as effective as concrete, but if securely bonded by means of metal, it is quite satisfactory. Fig. 2 illustrates the PROTECTION OF A GIRDER AND A COLUMN by means of tile. There are other equally efficient methods of beam and column-protection, described in Chapter XXIII. In buildings of warehouse-construction, heavy goods are

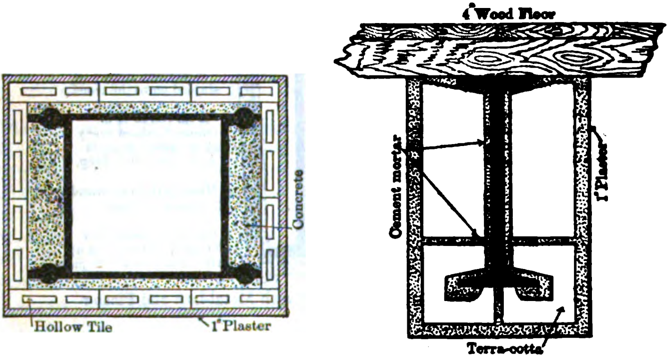


Fig. 25. Fireproofing of Steel Columns and Beam with Tile

handled, and it may be advisable to protect the base of each column with sheet metal to a height of 36 in above the floor, to prevent any weakening of the fireproofing. (See, also, pages 822 to 827, Figs. 1 to 13.)

Pipes for Gas, Water, etc., should not be enclosed in column or girder-insulation. (See, also, page 827.)

11. Structural Details of Mill-Construction as Applied to Factories and Warehouses

Column, Girder and Joist-Framing. Fig. 26 illustrates the method of carrying the girders from the walls, posts, etc., the bottom post resting on a steel POST-BASE. The first floor above the basement is shown with longitudinal girders only, and heavy mill-flooring set on them. The girders are framed at the post in a steel POST-CAP, and are hung clear of the wall in an approved steel WALL-HANGER. The next floor above shows the construction in which the joists are framed into the girders by means of JOIST-HANGERS. The framing at the post, also, is done by means of a DUPLEX FOUR-WAY POST-CAP, while the girder is built into the wall in a DUPLEX WALL-BOX. The JOIST-HANGERS are used singly or opposite each other as required and are bolted to the girder, thus tying the building laterally. The upper floor shows the joists resting on the girder. This construction, however, does not conform to strict MILL-CONSTRUCTION, as it exposes a larger amount of timber-surface. The girder is shown built into the wall and resting on a WALL-PLATE. This distributes the load over the masonry but is not as effective in preventing dry-rot as the WALL-BOX or WALL-HANGER.

Steel and Malleable-Iron Post-Caps and Bases. Fig. 27 illustrates other details of construction which may be used. The bottom post rests on a steel ST-BASE. The POST-CAP shown on the bottom post is a DUPLEX FOUR-WAY

STEEL POST-CAP, while the POST-CAP above it is one of the malleable-iron type, approved by the National Board of Fire Underwriters. The POST-CAP shown at the top, also, is of malleable iron and intended for lighter construction or for girders which run across the post as shown. The girders in every case are carried clear of the wall by means of approved WALL-HANGERS and the beams are carried by the girders in malleable-iron JOIST-HANGERS.

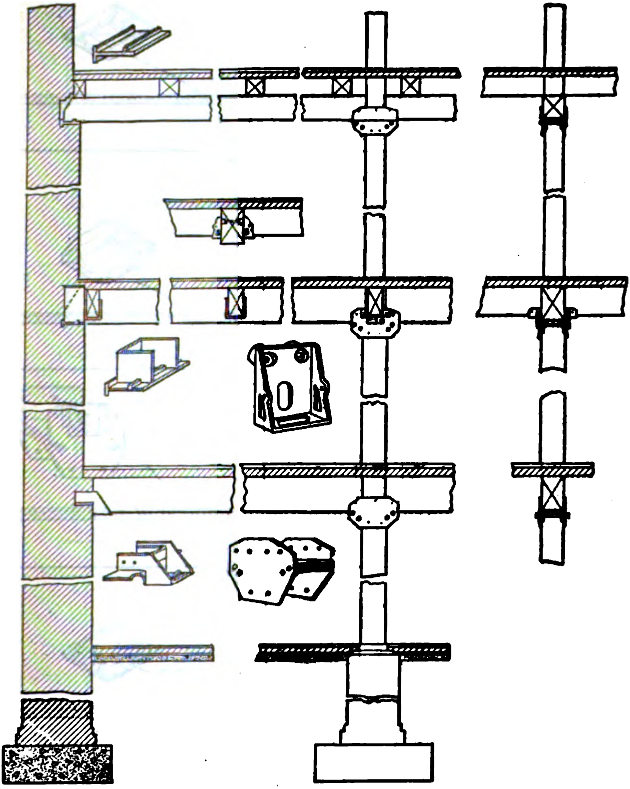


Fig. 26. Mill-construction. Column, Girder and Joist-framing

Cast-Iron Post-Caps and Bases. Fig. 28 illustrates other details of construction. The lowest post rests on a heavy, cast-iron, ribbed POST-BASE. The first-story floor-girders are carried at the post by means of heavy, cast-iron POST-CAPS and are built into the wall in cast-iron WALL-BOXES. When cast iron is used for POST-CAPS it is essential that it be made extra-heavy, as cast iron is very uncertain on account of the uneven shrinkage when cooling, which often causes internal stresses and weakens the caps. Flaws, also, may develop during the manufacture which weaken the caps and greatly impair the safety of the building. An objection to cast iron is its tendency to crack and break during a fire when cold water is thrown on it. The POST-CAPS shown in Fig. 28 are of cast iron for the first and second floors, Duplex steel for the third floor, and malleable iron on the top post.

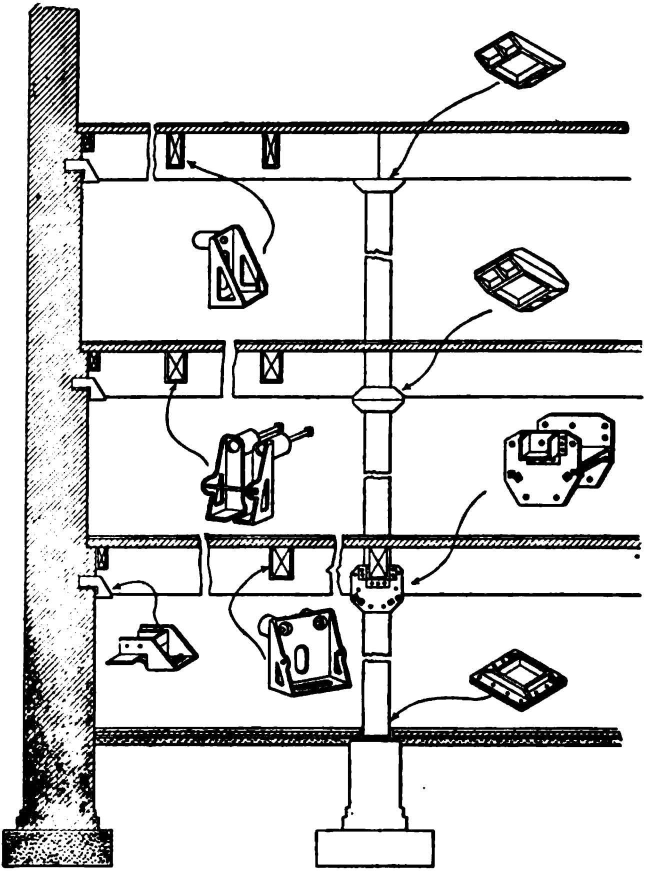


Fig. 27. Mill-construction. Malleable-iron Post-caps and Bases

Duplex, Combination Post-Cap. Fig. 29 illustrates the use of the DUPLEX COMBINATION POST-CAP on the bottom post. This cap is made with a malleable-iron lower part and a steel upper part. The POST-CAP shown on the second post is called the IDEAL POST-CAP and consists of a steel upper part with steel angles riveted underneath to fit the post. The cap shown on the top post is the old-style, cast-iron cap. The WALL-HANGER, WALL-BOX, WALL-PLATE and JOIST-HANGER shown are used in STANDARD CONSTRUCTION.

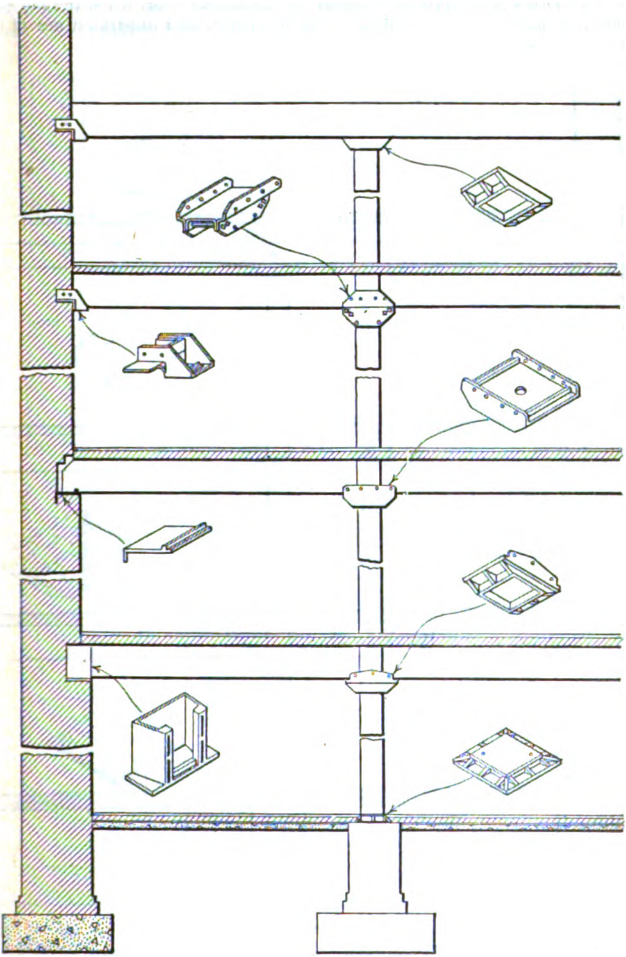


Fig. 28. Mill-construction. Cast-iron Post-caps and Bases

Steel Post-Caps. Fig. 30 illustrates various forms of steel POST-CAPS. The IDEAL POST-CAP is shown on the bottom post and the VAN DORN POST-CAP on the post next above. On the top post the STAR POST-CAP is shown. This has a fin for which the top of the post must be slotted to receive it. Steel JOIST-

HANGERS are shown for the two lower floors. The IDEAL JOIST-HANGER is illustrated in the lower floor. It is spiked to the sides and top of the girder. The VAN DORN JOIST-HANGER is shown in the second floor, while the old-style STIRRUP is shown in the top floor. The WALL-HANGERS illustrated are of the approved type.

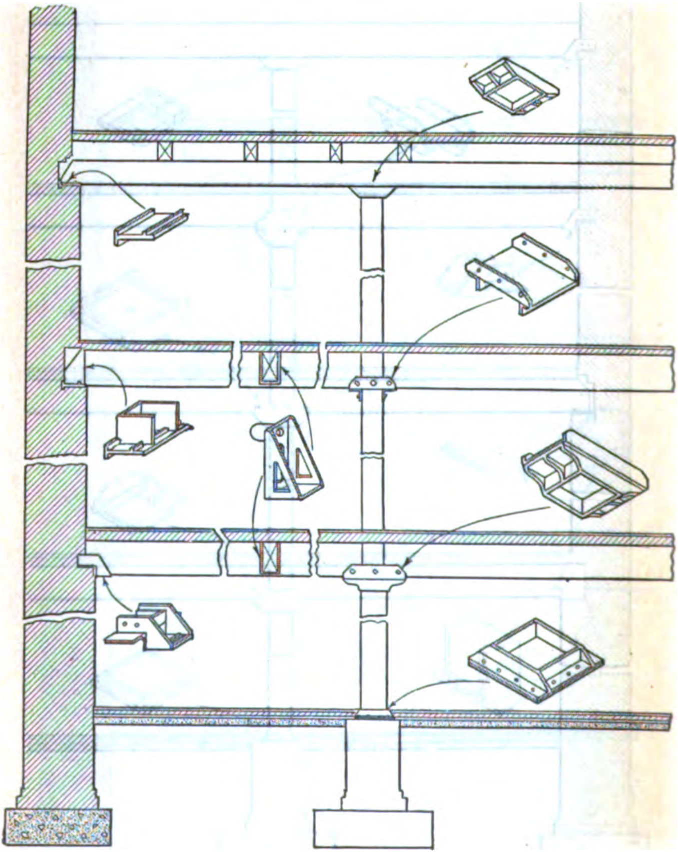


Fig. 29. Mill-construction. Combination Post-caps, etc.

Framing Steel Beams and Girders. Fig. 31 illustrates the use of I-BEAM GIRDERS in place of WOODEN GIRDERS and their connections with wooden beams. In this kind of construction it is necessary to fireproof the steel beams, as they are more readily affected by heat in case of fire than large wooden timbers. Intense heat often causes them to collapse and ruin a building. The HANGER shown in the first floor is used where the I beams and wooden beams are of the same height. This HANGER provides an extra bearing for the timber and has proved very satisfactory. The HANGER shown in the second floor is used when it is necessary to raise the wooden beam above the lower flange of the steel beam. This HANGER brings all the load on the lower flange of the I beam and provides an anchorage for the wooden beam. It is used singly or in pairs on the I beam as required, and is bolted through the web of the I beam. This has been found to be a very economical and efficient construction. In the third floor the wooden beam is shown framed to the I beam by means of a SHELF-ANGLE. With this form of construction it is necessary to rivet the SHELF-

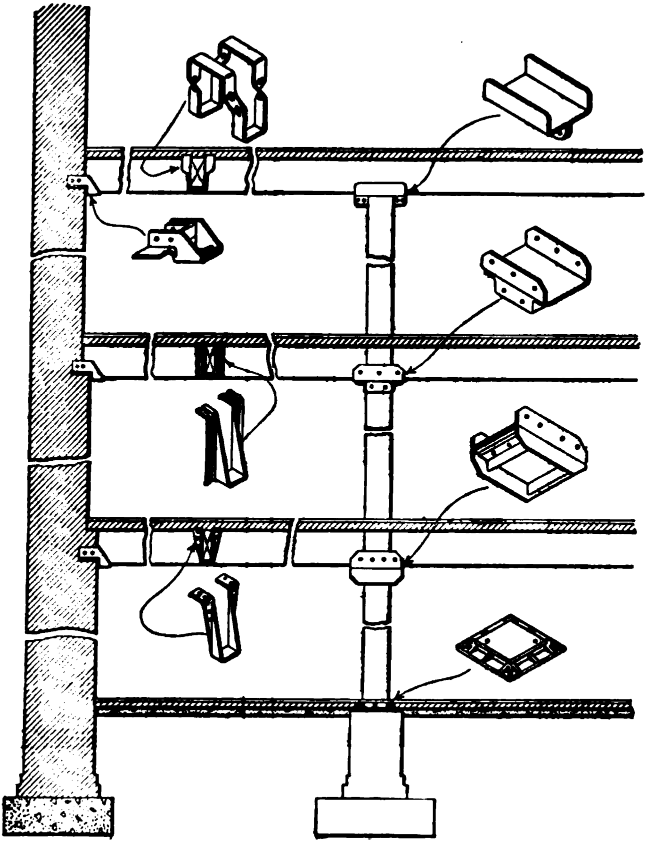


Fig. 30. Mill-construction. Steel Post-caps, etc.

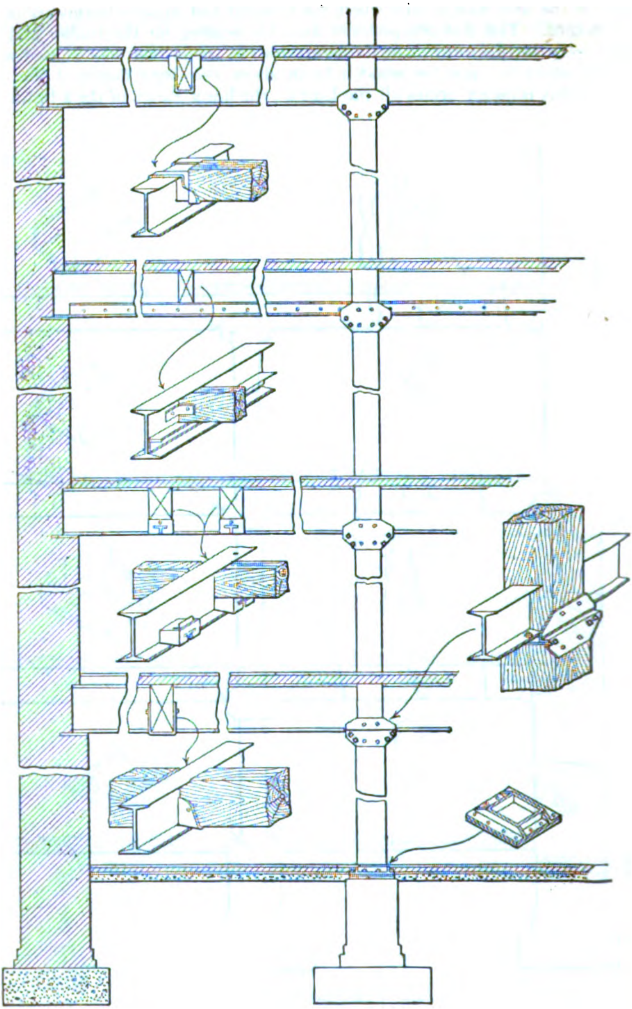


Fig. 31. Mill-construction. Framing Steel Beams and Girders

ANGLE to the web of the I beam. The upper detail shows the old-fashioned STIRRUP passing over the top flange of the I beam and carrying the wooden beam. The POST-CAPS shown are the DUPLEX STEEL POST-CAPS which are approved by the National Board of Fire Underwriters.

12. Connections of Floor-Beams and Girders

Girder-Hangers and Joist-Hangers. To render the construction, and particularly the girders, SLOW-BURNING, it is important to have no hollow spaces between the top of the girders and the flooring, that is, to have the top surface of the floor-beams flush with that of the girders. This, of course, necessitates framing the floor-beams into the girders. For HEAVY CONSTRUCTION the only kind of framing that is permissible is one in which some kind of JOIST-HANGER is used. The various kinds of JOIST-HANGERS now in the market have been illustrated and commented on in the last part of Chapter XXI. When the floor-beams are 6 by 12 in or larger in cross-section, and the girders are of wood, the author would give the preference to the DUPLEX HANGER shown in Fig. 32. (See, also, pages 752 and 753.)

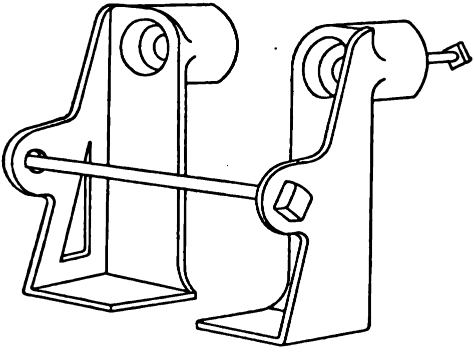


Fig. 32. Duplex Hanger for Heavy Floor-beams

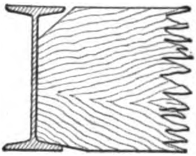


Fig. 33. Framing I Beam and Wooden Beam of Same Depth

If STEEL-BEAM GIRDERS are used in place of WOODEN GIRDERS, there are several methods in use for framing the wooden beams. Fig. 33 shows a steel I beam, and a wooden beam of the same depth framed into it and resting on its lower flange. In most cases, however, this does not afford a sufficient bearing for the wooden beam. Fig. 34 shows a SHELF-ANGLE riveted to the web of the I beam. Whenever this method of supporting the beams is used, enough bolts or rivets should be used to support the load carried by the SHELF-ANGLES. Each ¾-in bolt may be considered to support 3 000 lb on each side of the girder, and each ⅞-in bolt, 4 000 lb. The methods shown in Figs. 35 and 36 are sometimes used, but are open to objection on account of the weakening of the wooden beams when loaded. Fig. 37 shows a STIRRUP-TYPE of hanger. This construction permits the

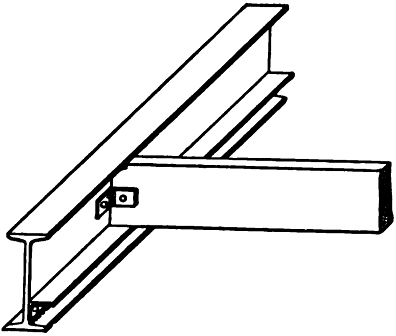


Fig. 34. Wooden Beam Framed to I Beam with Shelf-angle

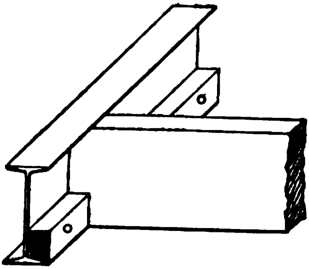


Fig. 35. Wooden Beam Framed to I Beam with Wooden Cleat

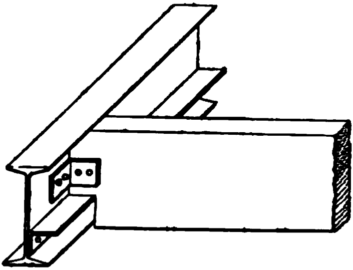


Fig. 36. Wooden Beam Framed to I Beam with Shelf-angle

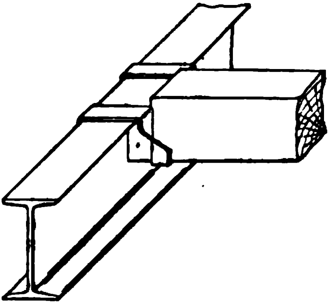


Fig. 37. Wooden Beam Framed to I Beam with Stirrup-hanger

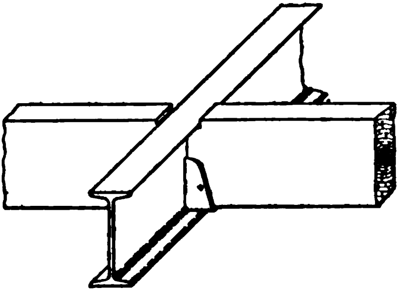


Fig. 38. Wooden Beam Framed to I Beam with Duplex Hanger

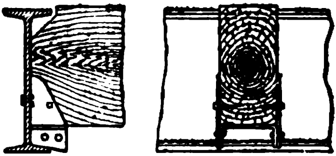
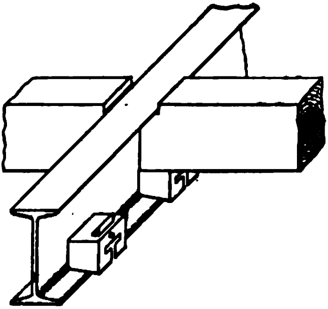


Fig. 39. Wooden Beam Framed to I Beam with Duplex Shelf-hanger



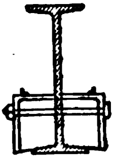


Fig. 40. Wooden Beam Framed to I Beam with Duplex Box-hanger

framing of the wooden beam at any desired height, and has proved satisfactory. These hangers can be used with any depth of beam or girder, and are furnished by all manufacturers of steel JOIST-HANGERS of the various types, as well as by blacksmiths who can make WROUGHT-IRON STIRRUPS. Fig. 38 shows the DUPLEX-TYPE OF HANGER for framing a wooden beam flush with the lower flange of the I beam. This hanger is attached by means of bolts. Fig. 39 shows the same design of HANGER, with the SHELF-CONSTRUCTION used to carry the wooden beams up to 4 in above the lower flange of the I beam. Fig. 40 shows a HANGER for carrying the wooden beams 4 in or more above the lower flange of the I beam.

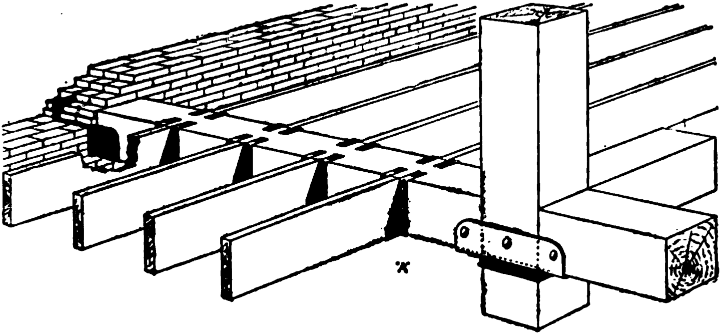


Fig. 41. Floor-framing with Van Dorn Hangers and Post-caps

The HANGERS described in Figs. 38, 39 and 40 are all of the DUPLEX TYPE, and are so constructed that all the load is carried on the lower flange of the I beam, which is a very satisfactory and ideal construction whenever it is necessary to frame wooden beams into and not rest them on the I beams. The design is a very economical one for framing wooden beams to I beams, as the holes for attaching these HANGERS can be punched while the steel is being fabri-

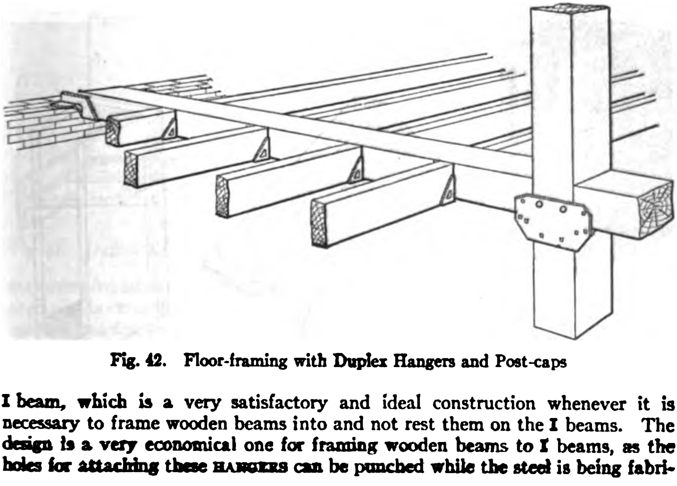


Fig. 42. Floor-framing with Duplex Hangers and Post-caps

cated, and the HANGERS are attached to the steel beams by means of bolts when the wooden beams are put in place. These HANGERS are provided with lugs or lag-screws for anchoring the wooden beams securely to the steel girder. Fig. 41 shows a floor-framing with the VAN DORN STEEL HANGERS. Fig. 42 shows the floor framed with the DUPLEX TYPE OF HANGER and POST-CAP. The same principle of construction is applicable to larger wooden beams spaced farther apart.

13. Wall-Supports and Anchors for Joists and Girders

Box Anchors, Wall-Hangers, etc. Anchoring. In a warehouse intended to be constructed on the SLOW-BURNING PRINCIPLE, the floor-beams and girders should be anchored to, and supported by the walls in such a way that in case the beams are burned through, the ends may fall without injuring the walls; and where large timbers are used, provision should be made against the possibility of dry rot.

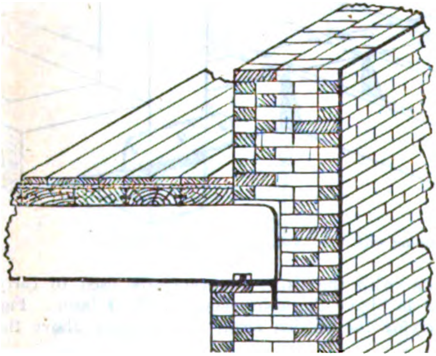


Fig. 43. Early Form of Beam-support in Mill-construction

Box Anchors. The method of supporting the beams in MILL-CONSTRUCTION as originally developed in the New England mills is shown in Fig. 43. This fulfilled the requirements above mentioned, but it weakened the walls to some extent. The GOETZ CAST-IRON BOX ANCHORS shown in Figs. 44, 45 and 46 and the DUPLEX WALL-BOX shown in Fig. 47 are decided improvements on the anchor shown in Fig. 43, as they

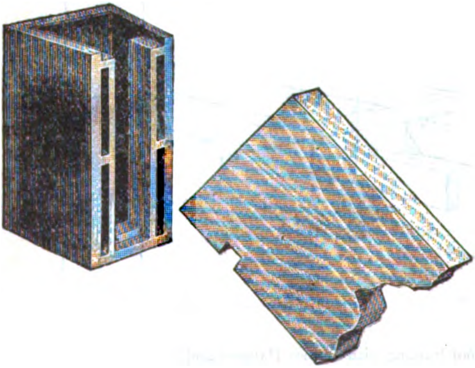


Fig. 44. Goetz Box Anchor for Wooden Beams

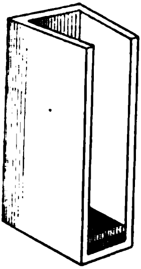


Fig. 45. Goetz Box Anchor for Wooden Beams

afford all the advantages of the latter without weakening the walls, unless the floor-beams are very wide. The WALL-BOX as shown in Fig. 47 is made with a malleable-iron bottom plate and a steel box above. It has a rib on the plate at the back, which extends up and down, and acts as a secure anchorage in the brickwork. These WALL-BOXES are made wedge-shape, and it is therefore impossible to pull them out of the wall. The more weight there is on the beam, the stronger will be the bond that holds the beam to the box and the box to the wall.

In case of fire or accident, the joists can burn through or break; and in falling they can free themselves from the anchorage and leave the wall standing. The wall is not even weakened by the space left in it, because the box remains, and the crushing strength of this CAST-IRON BOX is much greater than that of the wall. No break or breach is made in the wall, and the box that remains, securely held, forms a space for the easy replacement of the wooden beam. The box provides a perfect and secure foundation for each beam. Fire from a defective flue cannot ignite a beam-end, because it is protected by a ventilated, CAST-IRON BOX. The WALL-BOXES have air-spaces, also, in the sides, ½ in wide, which permit a circulation of air around the ends of the beams, effectually preventing dry rot. If timber is wet or unseasoned these wall-boxes allow it to dry out after it is put in the building. The average weight of a box like that shown in Fig. 45, for 2 by 12-in joists, is 10 lb.

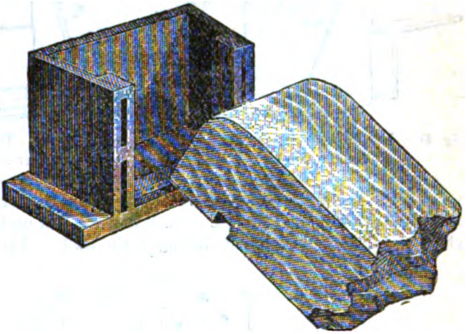


Fig. 46. Goetz Box Anchor for Wooden Girders

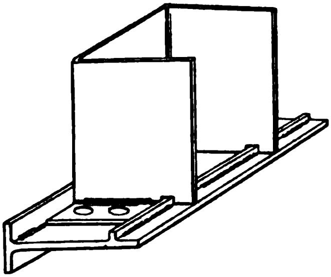


Fig. 47. Duplex Wall-box with Ribbed Plate

Wall-Hangers. Another device for obtaining the same results in a different way is the WALL-HANGER. Figs. 48 and 49 show DUPLEX WALL-HANGERS for large timbers. The hanger shown in Fig. 49 is made of open-hearth steel and is extra-heavy. Each of these hangers is provided with a plate which has an 8-in bearing on the wall, and the bearing of the timbers on the hanger is also 8 in. For beams not exceeding 10 in in breadth there is probably little choice between the BOX ANCHOR, Fig. 46, and the WALL-HANGERS, Figs. 48 and 49, except perhaps in the price and appearance. When the WALL-HANGER is used, no hole is left in the wall, and a saving of 6 in in the length of the beams is effected, which in some cases would be a consideration. For girders 12 by 14 in and upwards in cross-section, the author believes that the hanger shown in

Fig. 49 is preferable to the BOX ANCHOR. WALL-HANGERS made from STIRRUP should not be used for heavy beams. The use of any one of the hangers o boxes is obviously greatly superior to the ordinary method of anchoring beams or girders to walls, and the use of such hangers will undoubtedly save much loss which would be caused by the falling of the walls. These are almost invariably pulled down by the ORDINARY IRON ANCHORS when the beams fall. Fig. 50 shows the application of a WALL-HANGER.

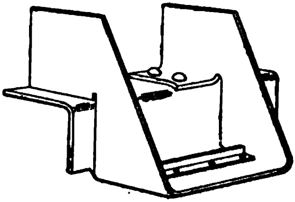


Fig. 48. Duplex Wall-hanger for Large Wooden Girder

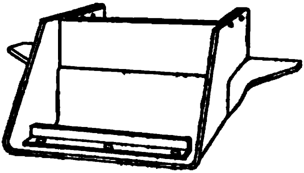


Fig. 49. Duplex Extra-heavy Wall-hanger for Large Wooden Girder

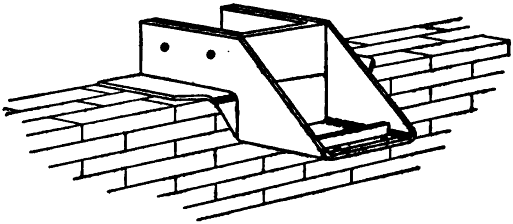


Fig. 50. Application of Wall-hanger to Brick Wall

14. Weakness of Wrought-Iron Stirrups when Exposed to Fire

Stirrups and Fire-Tests. Referring to this subject, Professor J. B. Johnson, of Washington University, said: "The recent fire-tests of STEEL STIRRUPS and brick walls which were made under my supervision in this city (St. Louis), show very conclusively that unprotected stirrups are extremely dangerous. These stirrups become red-hot in a few minutes and then rapidly char and burn away the ends of the beams; and they also bend down, so that in from twenty to thirty minutes after the fire reaches the stirrups, the beam is dropped right out of the twisted steel by the straightening out of this bend or twist."

The Duplex Hangers possess an advantage over STEEL STIRRUPS because, being of malleable iron, they are not as quickly affected by heat, there are no twists or bends to straighten, and the bearing in the trimmer or header is to a great degree protected by the form of construction. During the severe fire at Paterson, N. J., February 9, 1902, some DUPLEX WALL-HANGERS were subjected to a most severe test without apparent injury. It is undoubtedly desirable that all structural iron should be protected from fire, but it is almost impracticable to effectively protect the STIRRUPS used in connection with wooden beams without going to a greater expense than the character of the construction warrants.

15. Post and Girder-Connections

Iron Cap-Plates, Wooden Bolsters, etc. Whenever a building is constructed with wooden posts extending through several stories, each upper post should rest on an IRON CAP-PLATE, fitted over the post below, and never on a girder or even on a WOODEN BOLSTER. A BOLSTER would not be objectionable were it not for the fact that the pressure under the post is generally sufficient to crush the fibers of any kind of wood. Then, too, there is always some settlement due from shrinkage. As posts are used expressly for the support of beams or girders, the IRON CAPS must, of course, extend sufficiently beyond the upper post to afford ample bearing for the end of the girder. This bearing in square inches should be equal to at least one-half the load on the girder divided by the safe resistance of the wood to crushing across the grain, as given in Table IV, page 454.

Example. A 12 by 14-in yellow pine girder is designated to support a possible load of 38 000 lb. What bearing should it have at the ends?

Solution. The safe resistance given for long-leaf yellow pine to crushing across the grain is 350 lb per sq. in. One-half the load on the girder is 19 000 lb, and hence the bearing area should be 19 000 divided by 350 or about 54 sq in. As the breadth of the beam is 12 in this would require a bearing lengthwise of the girder of 4½ in. In no case should the bearing be less than that required by the above rule.

16. Form and Material of Post-Caps

Cast-Iron versus Steel Post-Caps. Formerly CAST-IRON POST-CAPS were used for the framing of the girders at the columns and posts. But the uncertainty attached to the use of cast iron, and the necessity of extremely heavy caps to assure safe construction have led most engineers to specify STEEL POST-CAPS, as they are unquestionably the strongest form of construction for framing posts and girders. The use of STEEL POST-CAPS is to be recommended, there being no uncertainty regarding the strength of steel as there is concerning the strength of cast iron used for post-cap construction. Internal stresses due to uneven cooling may seriously affect the strength of a CAST-IRON CAP, while a honeycombed casting may be used, undetected, and affect the safe carrying capacity; so that failure of the cap may occur even from the vibration due to the machinery in the building.

Cast-Iron Post-Caps are still used in some localities and a few of the common forms as well as those of STEEL POST-CAPS are shown. Fig. 51 shows a form which is frequently used for light construction. Fig. 52 shows a similar cap for a cylindrical post. These caps permit the use of girders wider than the post. When the girders and floor-beams are in place, and especially when the building is occupied, there is no danger of the girders or posts slipping on the plate; in fact it would require a greater force to move them. The girders should be tied together longitudinally by IRON STRAPS spiked to their sides. Many persons, however, consider it important in a building of SLOW-BURNING CONSTRUCTION, to have the posts tied together in vertical lines, and the girders secured in such a way that they will be self-releasing without pulling down the posts. Figs. 53 and 54 show two POST-CAPS which fulfill these requirements. With these caps the ends of the girders are not fastened by bolts or spikes, but are held in place and tied longitudinally by means of the LUG L on the GOETZ CAP, and by PINS on the DUVINAGE CAP; so that in case the girder is burned to the breaking point, it can fall without pulling on the post. Provision is also made for bolting the cap to the upper post. The author doubts very much,

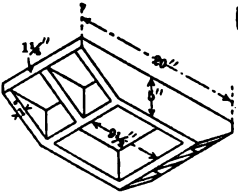


Fig. 51. Cast-iron Post-cap for Square-section Wooden Post

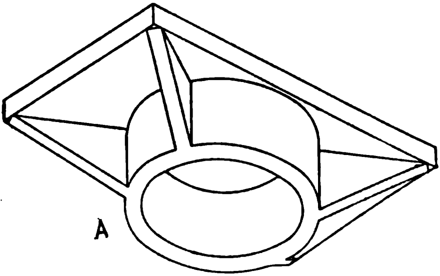


Fig. 52. Cast-iron Post-cap for Cylindrical Wooden Post

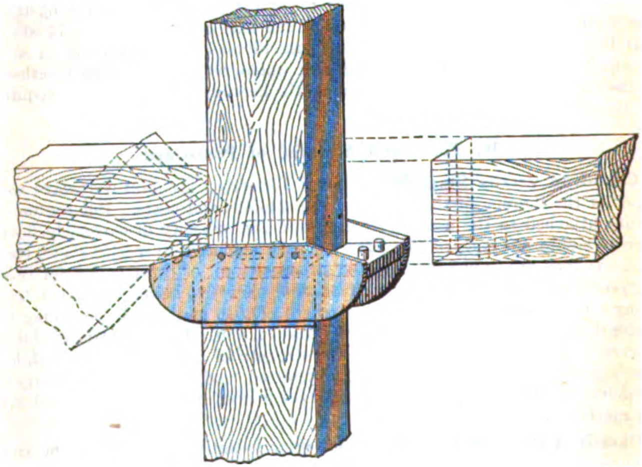


Fig. 53. Cast-iron Duvinage Post-cap with Beam-pins

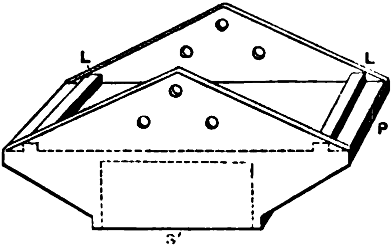


Fig. 54. Cast-iron Goetz Post-cap with Beam-lugs

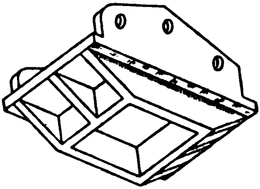


Fig. 55. Cast-iron Post-cap with High Sides

however, if posts bolted together in this way will stand after the girders have fallen, as the planking will be likely to pull the posts over, even if they do not burn as quickly as the beams. Fig. 55 shows another form of cast cap with high sides, allowing lag-screws to be driven in the holes to tie the girders.

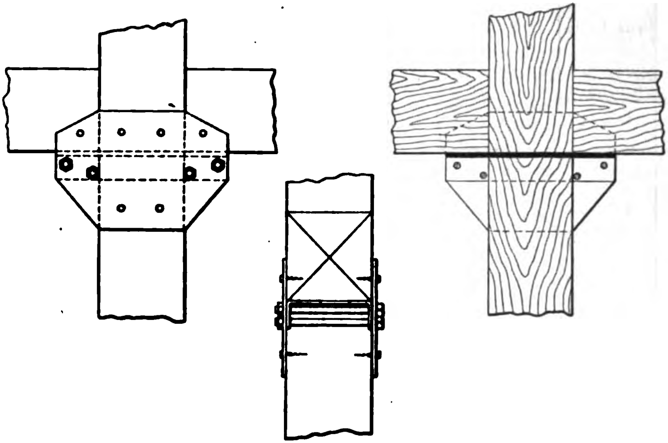


Fig. 56. Steel Post-cap with Side-plates and Brackets

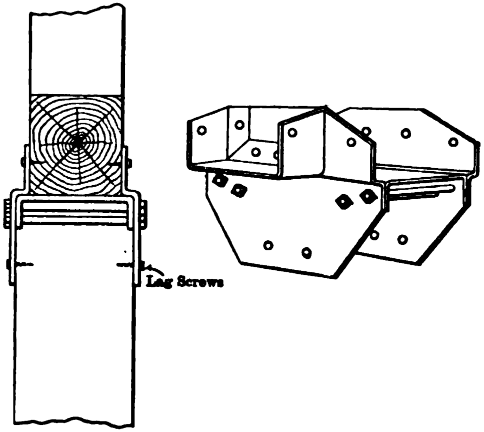


Fig. 57. Steel Post-caps for Posts Varying in Section. Second Figure Shows Four-way Beam-construction

A Steel Post-Cap, which is approved by the National Board of Fire Underwriters and bears their label, is shown in Fig. 56. This post-cap is made up of steel side-plates and heavy steel brackets, all held rigidly together by means of four heavy bolts. The posts and girders are fastened to the cap by means of

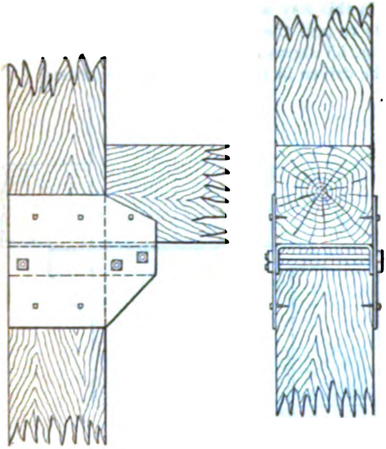


Fig. 58. Steel Post-cap. One-way Beam-construction

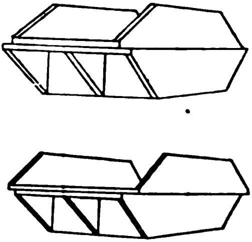


Fig. 59. Malleable-iron Post-caps

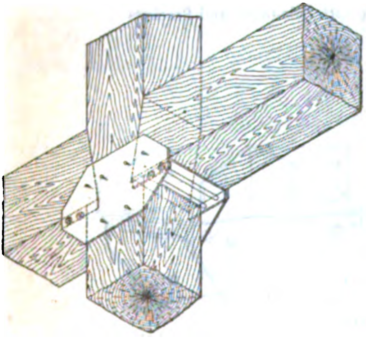


Fig. 60. Steel Post-cap for Continuous Post

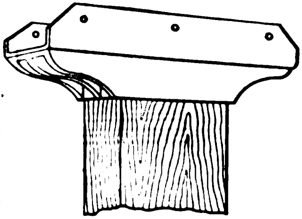


Fig. 61. Malleable-iron Post-cap with Steel Top-plate

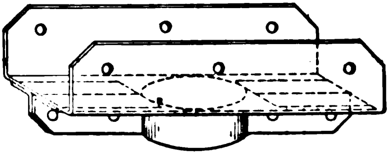


Fig. 62. Steel Post-cap for Cylindrical Wooden Post. Perspective

lag-screws, permitting the girders to release themselves in case of fire. By this method the entire construction is tied together vertically and longitudinally. This cap, on account of its simple design, lends itself readily to every form of construction desired.

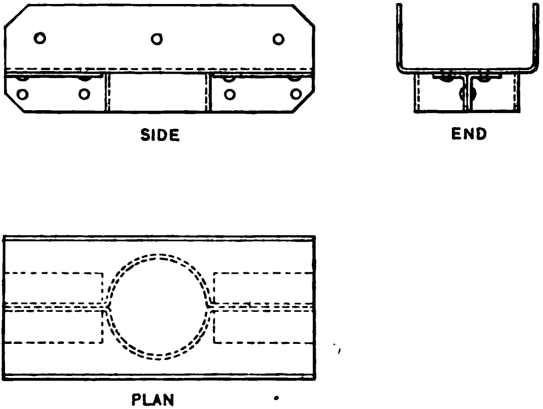


Fig. 63. Steel Post-cap for Cylindrical Wooden Post. Elevations and Plan

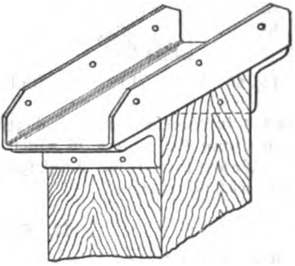


Fig. 64. Steel Post-cap for Light Construction

Various Types of Post-Caps. Fig. 57 illustrates one post-cap in which the width of the girder is less than that of the post below, and also another post-cap in which the width of the girder is greater than that of the post below. In the latter four-way brackets are riveted to the side-plates to provide for the four-way construction. Fig. 58 shows a one-way construction. Fig. 60 shows a post-cap which is used when it is required to run a post through two stories. This is what is known as a continuous post-cap. The bracket instead of being made clear across the cap is made short on both sides and fitted into shoulders notched into the post, so as to make a more rigid construction. Fig. 59 shows two post-caps made of malleable iron which are preferable to cast-iron caps as they will not break off in case of a fire when cold water comes in contact with them. This danger is present when cast-iron post-caps are used. The cap shown is made in two parts so that it will fit posts and girders of different sizes. This cap, also, is approved by the Board of Fire Underwriters. Fig. 61 shows a combination post-cap, the upper part of which is made of steel plate, and the lower part of malleable iron. Figs. 62 and 63 show steel post-caps for round posts. They are also frequently used for pipe-columns and concrete-filled columns. (See, also, Steel-Pipe Columns, page 469 and Lally Columns, pages 474 and 477.) Fig. 64 shows a steel post-cap intended for lighter construction. Fig. 65 shows Van Dorn post-caps. Fig. 66 illustrates the Star post-cap which is made of a bent steel plate with a fin projecting below into a slot in the post. Both are approved by the Underwriters. It is necessary to slot out the post in order to insert this fin. Post-caps which completely encircle the top of the post in a socket, to a great measure tend to prevent the twisting effect of the post, which is so noticeable when the posts are of wood. There is an objection to the use of the four-way post-cap when the girders are of wood, because the floor-beams that are hung from a girder drop a distance equal to the shrinkage in the girder, if the beams are hung in stirrups, or by one-half this amount if they are hung in Duplex hangers. The beams supported on the post-cap cannot drop at all, and consequently the floor will be higher over the beam supported by the posts, than over the intermediate beams. In one building where deep beams were used, the unevenness in the floor amounted to nearly an inch and was very noticeable. Wherever wooden girders are used it is, therefore, a much better construction to support all of the floor-beams from the girders, in which case the shrinkage will be uniform. With steel girders there is no shrinkage, and a beam may be placed opposite the posts with advantage.

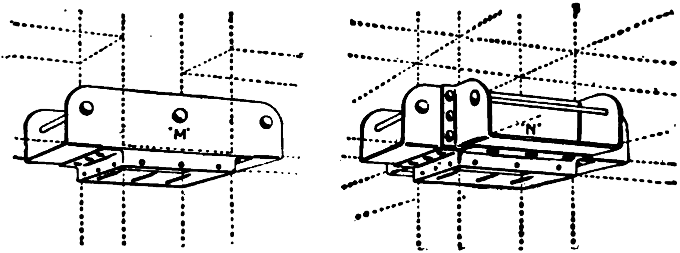


Fig. 65. Van Dorn Steel Post-caps

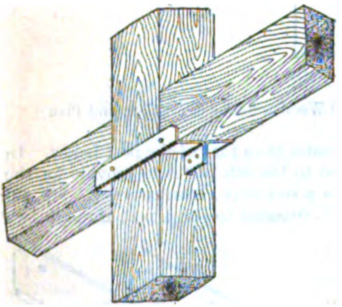


Fig. 66. Star Steel Post-cap with Fin

17. Roofing-Materials

Warehouse-Roofs are almost always flat and, like floors, should be continuous from wall to wall, without openings. The occupancy of such buildings calls for little light, and hence skylights and other roof-structures are not required.

Dampness and Leaks. Stored goods may be very easily damaged by water, and roofs, therefore, should be of such construction that they will prevent dampness, either through leakage or condensation. While roofs are usually built as flat as possible, the incline should be sufficient to drain readily, and the outlets should be of sufficient capacity to quickly drain the roof of a maximum amount of water.

Slag or Tin are almost exclusively used on buildings of this type, although asphalt or other mastics are sometimes used with good results.

Slag Roofs should be constructed generally as described on pages 1509 to 1513 and should be not less than 5-ply, with the maximum amount of coating. The flashings and counterflashings should be of copper or heavily-coated best terne-plates.

Tin Roofs should be laid with the best open-hearth, palm-oil-process terne-plates, laid on felt or other suitable material which will avoid condensation and act as a fire-retardant.

Canvas Roofing will stand hard usage, as is shown by its continued use on decks of vessels and steamers; but it is not adapted to large buildings.

Provisions for Flooding Roofs. When warehouses are located in congested districts, surrounded by higher buildings, or by buildings of light construction or hazardous occupancy, their roofs should be so constructed that they may be flooded during severe fires in such surrounding buildings. This can be accomplished by using good roofing-materials, making high flashings, waterproofing the walls above the roof-line, and providing roof-outlets of types that will allow the placing of stoppers at the scuppers. (See Fig. 11.)

18. Partitions

Non-bearing Partitions. This refers only to those light walls or enclosures which separate rooms, etc., and not to those walls which divide the building into sections. PARTITIONS, as here defined, bear no floor-loads. Buildings of the SLOW-BURNING TYPE, for occupancies described above, need but few partitions, and these should be built of non-inflammable materials, preferably metal lath and plaster on light, metal studding. All cupboards, closets, lockers, etc., in a building of this type should be of metal, or other equally non-inflammable material.

19. Doors and Shutters

Fire-Underwriters' Specifications. Doors and shutters should be built as outlined in the Rules and Requirements of the National Board of Fire Underwriters for the construction and installation of fire-doors and fire-shutters, as these specifications are accepted by architects and builders as the standard.

Door-Openings should be limited to 80 sq ft, or less, each, and all communications between buildings or sections of a building protected with double, automatic, sliding doors.

20. Fire-Protection

Automatic Sprinklers, supplied with an ample quantity of water at a good pressure, are needed in mills, storehouses, factories, warehouses, etc., where combustible goods are made or stored, or where large values are at stake. They may, in fact, be installed in buildings of any type of construction and occupancy, but are most effective in buildings of FIRE-PROOF or MILL-CONSTRUCTION.

Inside Standpipes, with outlets in each story, in the basement and on the roof, should be installed at points readily accessible in case of fire, and should have a sufficient quantity of good hose attached at each outlet.

Roof Nozzles. If a building is badly exposed to other buildings of inferior construction or hazardous occupancy, a Monitor-nozzle of large size, located on the roof, is advisable.

Public Water-Supplies. If these are not available, a private fire-service may be advisable.

Competent Supervision. All of the above FIRE-PROTECTION EQUIPMENTS should be installed by men familiar with their operation, and supervised by competent FIRE-PROTECTION ENGINEERS, under plans approved by underwriters having jurisdiction.

21. Cost* of Mills and Factories Built on the Slow-Burning Principle

Difficulty of Estimating Costs from Tables. The cost of a building of this type of construction depends upon the cost of material plus the cost of labor, and as the cost of either varies greatly in different localities the cost of similarly constructed buildings must also vary. Even if the cost of labor and materials does not vary, the cost of buildings of the same area will depend much upon the height, floor-loads, distance between bearing-points, design, etc., and it is difficult to deduce a table accurate enough for use in computing even the approximate cost of buildings per square foot of floor-areas. One firm of architects† states: "Experience has taught us that estimating the cost of a building either by the SQUARE-FOOT METHOD or the CUBIC-FOOT METHOD has proved dangerous and misleading, and it was abandoned by us many years ago except to obtain a general idea of the cost of a building. We have found that the only reliable way to approximate the cost of a building is to block it out and to figure the approximate quantities, which at the market prices prevailing at the time the building is to be erected, will give the approximate cost of said building." Owing to the high cost of lumber, a FIRE-PROOF building will cost but little, if any, more than a building of MILL-CONSTRUCTION; and owing to this fact it is always advisable to determine the cost of buildings of both types before deciding upon the type to be used. Buildings of MILL-CONSTRUCTION are becoming obsolete in some localities, and owing to the lower rate of insurance on buildings of FIRE-PROOF CONSTRUCTION, those of the latter type are much preferred, as in the end they cost less. It is not always safe to compare the TOTAL COST OF LABOR with the cost of the LABOR PER DIEM, as the cheaper labor is often the more expensive in the end, this depending largely upon the locality and the conditions imposed. Tables showing the approximate cost of buildings of the MILL-CONSTRUCTION type are computed from the cost of mill-buildings of light construction (cotton-mills with lateral beams only) and are not adapted to computing the cost of heavy warehouses or similar factory-construction. The figuring of the cost of such buildings from the COST PER SQUARE FOOT gives, at the very best, only approximate results; and as a discrepancy of but 1 ct per sq ft will sometimes amount to thousands of dollars, the method is hardly accurate enough to estimate even the approximate cost.

The Cost of Buildings of Mill-Construction in New England. The following eight buildings were designed by Lockwood, Greene and Company of Boston, Mass., who submit data and descriptions of buildings of MILL-CONSTRUCTION with their COST PER SQUARE FOOT. These buildings are, with a single exception, situated within a limited area where cost of labor and materials vary but little. The floor-loads vary from 75 to 150 lb per sq ft, and the cost runs from $0.715 to $1.56 per sq ft. Considering the textile-mills only, the average cost is $1.038 per sq ft, while the average cost of all these buildings is $1.113 per sq ft.

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* For cost of reinforced-concrete mills, warehouses, etc., see pages 1532 and 1538.

† Farrot & Livaudais, Ltd., New Orleans, La.

A Cotton Spinning-Mill. This mill has an attached picker-house, office and dye-house wings, and was built in Rhode Island in 1911. The following are the details of construction: main mill, four stories; size, 263.17 by 131.67 ft; two-story picker-house, 42.67 by 131.67 ft; one-story dye-house 55 by 85.67 ft; brick stair-tank, and other towers; walls of hard brick; plank and wearing-floors on transverse I-beam framing, supported by cast-iron columns, except in five bays, where both transverse and longitudinal framing is used; slag roofing on plank on wooden transverse rafters; floors built for a live-load of 75 lb per sq ft. The cost of the buildings was $0.965 per sq ft.

A Four-Story Cotton-Mill. This mill is without basement. It was built, together with the fan-room and repair-shop additions in Georgia, in 1910. The following are the details of construction: mill, four stories; size, 272 by 128 ft; office and repair-shop, one story in height and 122.67 by 36 ft in plan; regular mill-construction, that is, brick walls, hard-pine transverse floor-framing, wooden columns and plank floors, except for six bays of the fourth floor which have steel I-beam longitudinals in addition to the hard-pine transverse timbers, and for sixteen bays of the roof-framing which have both longitudinal and transverse hard-pine timbers, these having been found necessary in both cases because of the omission of the alternate columns. These buildings have extensive monitors, saw-tooth skylights, stair-towers, etc. The floors are designed to carry a live load of 75 lb per sq ft. The cost of the building was $0.715 per sq ft.

A Cotton-Mill of Irregular Shape. This mill is considerably wider at one end than at the other and has a basement at one end. It was built in Massachusetts in 1911. The following are the details of its construction: mill, five stories; length, 311.67 ft and average width, 75.42 ft; five-story wing, 65.26 by 40.01 ft, with extensive pent-houses; stair and elevator-towers and skylights; brick walls, transverse wooden floor-framing, supported by cast-iron columns and brick walls; conditions at site demanded extensive foundations; windows in fourth and fifth stories of one wall protected by wire-glass in metal frames; and floors built for a live load of 75 lb per sq ft. The cost of the buildings was $1.172 per sq ft.

A One-Story Machine-Shop. This was built near Boston, Mass., in 1910. The main building is 200 by 136.375 ft with a connecting wing, 50 by 39.33 ft. It has brick walls; longitudinal, steel, I-beam framing; transverse, steel, saw-tooth skylight framing; plank roof covered with tar and gravel; 20-ft longitudinal and 16-ft transverse bays; steel I-beam columns; 4½-in cement floors except for three bays which have a 1-in maple overflooring, a 1-in North Carolina pine, intermediate layer, a 3-in kyanized spruce-plank layer, and 4½ in of tar-concrete; and extensive saw-tooth skylights. The cost of the buildings was $1.288 per sq ft.

A Building for Manufacturing Automobiles. This building has forge-shop extensions and was built in Connecticut in 1910. The main building has four stories and a basement and is 54 by 151 ft in plan with a one-story extension, 50 by 149 ft, with extensive pent-houses and monitors. The factory-building has brick walls, transverse yellow-pine framing on heavy wooden columns and on walls, floors of 1-in maple overflooring over 4-in yellow-pine planks, a roof of 3-in yellow-pine planks covered with tar and gravel, and a 4½-in cement, basement-floor. The extension has brick walls; a brick-on-edge floor laid on a 4-in course of cement concrete on earth; steel roof-trusses, of 47-ft, 4-in span placed 10 ft on centers; tar-and-gravel roof; and extensive monitors. The floors are built to carry a live load of 125 lb per sq ft. The cost of the building was $1.075 per sq ft.

A Two-Story Wooden Box-Factory. This factory has no basement. It was built near Boston, Mass., in 1909. In plan it is 155 by 305 ft and its average height is 32.5 ft. It has brick shafts; transverse wooden framing for the first floor; transverse beams supported by longitudinals for the second floor and roof; wooden columns and plank floors; and wooden monitors. The floors are designed to carry a live load of 150 lb per sq ft. The cost of this building was $0.84 per sq ft.

A One-Story-and-Basement Weave-Shed. This was built near Boston, Mass., in 1909. It is 213 by 244.17 ft in plan, with extensive entrances, towers and saw-tooth skylights. It has brick walls; longitudinal I-beam girders supporting transverse I-beam girders in the first story, resting on brick piers; transverse hard-pine girders supporting longitudinal girders for the saw-tooth skylight-framing; heavy, wooden floors and roof; wooden columns; an earth basement-floor; and foundations on concrete piles. The floors are designed to carry a live load of 100 lb per sq ft. The cost of the buildings, on the one-story basis, was $1.56 per sq ft.

A Two-and-One-half Story Picker-House. There is, also, a two-story house and a one-story connecting passage between the two buildings mentioned above for the cotton mill of irregular shape, which were built in Massachusetts in 1911. The picker-house is 64 by 95 ft in plan; the waste-house 21 by 49 ft; the covered bridge 10 by 40 ft; and the average height of the building 42.58 ft. The walls are of brick. The picker-house has transverse wooden framing supported by wooden columns and has plank floors. The waste-house wing has transverse, steel I-beam framing and no columns, and concrete-slab floors. The floors are designed to carry a live load of 75 lb per sq ft. The cost of the building, including plumbing, was $1.29 per sq ft.

The Cost of Buildings of Mill-Construction in Philadelphia, Pa., and Vicinity. The following five buildings were designed by Stearns & Castor, Philadelphia, Pa., who submit data and descriptions, with the COST PER SQUARE FOOT. These buildings are within a very limited area, being in or within a few miles of Philadelphia, and are of somewhat heavier construction than those described above, the floor-loads varying from 120 to 150 lb per sq ft and the cost ranging from $0.86 to $1.23 per sq ft. The average floor-load is 132 lb and the average cost $1.02 per sq ft. The two spinning-mills mentioned are designed for average floor-loads of 120 lb and their average cost was $1.00 per sq ft.

A Chocolate-Factory. This was built in Philadelphia, Pa., on open ground. It has an ornamental exterior; walls of Sayer and Fisher brick with terra-cotta trimmings, and a main building, 83 by 303 ft in plan and two stories in height. One section of the building, 60 ft in length, is three stories high. The story-heights are 14 ft from top to top of floors. The floors are designed to carry a live load of 150 lb per sq ft. It has foundations of concrete; heavy mill-floors on heavy timber-framing; a slag roof; all stairways and elevators in brick towers; and openings in division walls equipped with fire-doors. The cost of the building, excluding plumbing, heating, electric work, elevators, fire-protection and mechanical equipment, was $0.86.

A Four-Story-and-Basement Chocolate-Factory. This building was erected in Philadelphia, Pa. It is 44 by 130 ft in plan, with average story-heights of 13 ft. It was built in a congested part of the city, between other buildings. The cost of underpinning and shoring the adjacent buildings is included in the cost given. It has plain brick walls; slow-burning floor-construction on ry, wooden timbers, with finished flooring of maple; stairways and elevators in brick enclosures; and a slag roof. The floors are designed to carry a live load of 150 lb per sq ft. The cost of the buildings including plumbing, but excluding heating, electric work, elevators, fire-protection and mechanical equipment, was $1.23 per sq ft.

A Spinning-Mill. This building was erected in Philadelphia, Pa., on ground open and easy of access. Its exterior is of brick, without ornamentation. It is 64 by 268 ft in plan, three stories in height, the stories throughout being 15 ft 6 in from top to top of floors. The floors throughout are calculated to carry a live load of 120 lb per sq ft. It has walls of brick; a slow-burning floor-construction with finished flooring of maple; a slag roof; and stairways and elevators in brick enclosures. The cost of the building, excluding plumbing, heating, electric work, elevators, fire-protection and mechanical equipment was $0.93 per sq ft.

A Spinning-Mill. This building was erected in Philadelphia, Pa., on ground open and easy of access. Its exterior is a plain brick design. It is 69 by 269 ft in plan and three stories in height, the story-heights throughout being 15 ft 6 in from top to top of floors. The floors throughout are calculated for a live load of 120 lb per sq ft. It has brick walls with concrete foundations; a slow-burning floor-construction with a finished flooring of maple; a slag roof; all stairways and elevators in brick enclosures; and all openings in division walls equipped with fire-doors. The cost of the building excluding the plumbing, heating, electrical work, elevators, fire-protection and mechanical equipment, was $1.07; and the cost of the building including the plumbing, heating, electrical work, elevators and fire-protection, but excluding the mechanical equipment, was $1.34.

A Clothing-Factory. This building was erected in Woodbine, N. J., on ground open and easy of access. Its exterior is of brick, without ornamentation. It is 45 by 179 ft in plan and three stories in height. The basement is 10 ft in height, and the other stories 12 ft in height from top to top of floors. The floors are calculated throughout for a live load of 120 lb per sq ft. It has walls of brick; slow-burning floors with yellow-pine finished flooring; a slag roof; and all stairways and elevators in brick towers. The cost of the building, excluding heating, electrical work, fire-protection and mechanical equipment, but including freight-elevators and plumbing, was $1.01 per sq ft.

The Cost of Buildings of Mill-Construction in the Middle West. The following six buildings were designed by F. G. Mueller, Hamilton, Ohio, who submits data and descriptions with the costs of buildings of heavier construction. The floor-loads vary from 200 to 300 lb and the cost from $0.62 to $0.96 per sq ft. The paper-mill at Taylorsville, Ill., is partly of concrete construction, and was built at a cost of $1.30 per sq ft. Exclusive of the last-named building, the average floor-load is 230 lb and the average cost $0.805 per sq ft.

An Addition to a Paper-Mill. This was built in Dayton, Ohio. It is a two-story brick building, 116 by 79 ft in plan. The first story is used for paper-storage and the second story as a finishing-room. The first floor is of cement on a cinder fill; and the second floor of 2¾-in yellow-pine planks with an over-flooring of ⅞-in maple, supported by 8 by 14-in beams, 14 by 16-in girders and 10 by 10-in wooden posts. The floors are figured for a live load of 200 lb per sq ft. The roof is supported by six steel trusses and 4 by 10-in wooden purlins, and covered with 1¾-in sheathing and composition roofing. The foundations are of concrete. The cost of the building, exclusive of the plumbing and heating, was $0.75 per sq ft.

An Addition to a Foundry. This one-story, brick, foundry-building was erected in Hamilton, Ohio, is 432 by 63 ft in plan, and has a one-story wing, 86 by 46 ft in plan, and a one-story cupola-house, 28½ by 26½ ft in plan. It has a wooden floor in the wing only and dirt floors elsewhere. It has concrete foundations; a composition roof on 2¼-in sheathing, supported by 12 by 14-in girders, 6 by 12-in beams and 6-in cast-iron columns; an elevator in the cupola-house; and all doors of tin-clad construction. The cost of the building was $0.836 per sq ft.

A Paper-Mill. This was built in Monroe, Mich., and is a one-story-and-basement brick building, 185 by 87 ft in plan, with an end-wing 234 by 35 ft. It has heavy beam and girder floor-construction, designed to carry a live load of 300 lb per sq ft; concrete foundations and a basement-part, 130 by 87 ft. It is designed for one paper-making machine and four beaters, has a composition roofing and one skylight over the boiler-room. The cost was $0.88 per sq ft.

A Paper-Mill. This is an irregular-shaped brick building erected in Kennilworth, La., and is 356 by 168 ft in plan. About one-third of it is two stories and the remainder one story in height. It has a heavy wooden, beam, girder and post-construction; a stone foundation on cypress-grillage footings; and floors designed to carry heavy paper-making machinery with a live load of 250 lb per sq ft. The cost of the building was $0.96 per sq ft.

A Warehouse. This is a one-story-and-basement brick building, erected in Hamilton, Ohio, and is 38 by 50 ft and designed for a live load of 200 lb per sq ft. It has a cement floor in the basement; 10 by 14-in girders, 8 by 12-in beams and 10 by 10-in posts supporting 3⅝-in flooring; 10 by 14-in girders and 10-in round, wooden posts carrying 2¼-in sheathing and composition roofing. The cost of the building was $0.62 per sq ft.

A Paper-Mill. This was built in Taylorsville, Ill., and has a main building, two stories in height and 49 by 130 ft in plan; a one-story part, 138 by 81 ft in plan; and a one-story wing, 42 by 144 ft in plan. There is a basement under almost the entire building. The foundations are of concrete and there are cement floors in the basement. The first floor is of reinforced-beam, girder and slab-construction, designed for a live load of 250 lb per sq ft; the second floor of mill-construction, supported by cast-iron columns, 14 by 18-in wooden girders and 12 by 16-in wooden beams; and most of the roof is supported by steel trusses and wooden purlins. The second floor was designed for a live load of 150 lb per sq ft. There are extensive skylights, pent-houses, etc. The cost of the building was $1.30 per sq ft.

The Cost of Buildings of Mill-Construction in Toronto, Canada. The building described in the following paragraph was designed by Sproatt & Rolph, of Toronto, Canada, who submit data of a warehouse-building with all floor-openings and windows and other outer wall-openings protected in an approved manner, and erected at a cost of $1.12 per sq ft.

A Five-Story-and-Basement Seed-Warehouse. This was built in Toronto, Canada, and is 111 by 140 ft 3½ in in plan. The floor-heights are 13 ft 1 in, and the total height is 66 ft. The floors are built of 2 by 6-in pieces of pine on edge and the bays measure 12 ft 5 in by 13 ft. The beams are of long-leaf yellow pine, 14 by 18 in in section; the posts of similar material, varying from 8 by 8 in to 16 by 16 in; the walls are of hard, red brick with gray stone facings; and the sashes and frames are of steel throughout. The building has three elevators in a brick-enclosed shaft and one staircase in a separate brick shaft. The floors are designed to carry a live load of 250 lb per sq ft. The cost of the building, exclusive of the heating and lighting, was $1.12 per sq ft.

The Cost of Buildings of Mill-Construction in Northwestern Canada. The following four buildings were designed by J. H. G. Russell, Winnipeg, Canada, and are warehouses of very superior, heavy construction, widely separated in location, yet varying little in cost. The floor-loads used vary from 300 to 350 lb, live load, per sq ft and the cost varied from $1.41 to $1.54 per sq ft. The average cost was $1.46 per sq ft.

A Seven-Story-and-Basement Warehouse. This was built in Winnipeg, Canada, and is 50 ft 6 in by 119 ft 9 in in plan. The floors are of 6-in spruce with ⅞-in maple overflooring. All floors are on heavy girders and columns; the elevators are in brick shafts; and the walls are of brick, except the first story front wall, which is of cut stone. The floors are designed to carry 300 lb per sq ft, live load. The cost of the building, exclusive of the heating, elevators, etc., was $1.46 per sq ft.

A Three-Story-and-Basement Warehouse. This was built in Winnipeg, Canada, and is 62 ft 6 in by 86 ft 6 in in plan. Heavy fir timbers were used for framing. It has a 6-in fir-plank solid floor with ⅞-in maple overflooring; stairs and elevators in brick towers; brick walls with the openings in the rear and sides of the building protected. The floors were designed to carry a live load of 350 lb per sq ft, and the cost of the building, excluding the heating, etc., was $1.41 per sq ft.

A Warehouse. This is a six-story-and-basement building, erected in Saskatoon, Canada, and is 50 by 112 ft in plan. The floors are of 6-in fir, with ⅞-in maple overflooring, and are supported by heavy fir timbers. The building has brick walls with a front of pressed brick and cut-stone trimmings; some of the openings are protected by wire-glass windows; and the stairs and elevators are in brick shafts. The floors were built to carry 350 lb per sq ft, live load, and the building cost, exclusive of the heating, elevators, etc., $1.44 per sq ft.

A Five-Story-and-Basement Warehouse. This was built in Edmonton, Canada, and is 50 by 137 ft in plan. The floors are of 6-in fir with ⅞-in maple overflooring. The building has brick walls and the front and one side wall are faced with pressed bricks with stone trimmings. It has the openings in the rear wall protected and the stairs and elevators are in brick shafts. The walls are strong enough for two additional stories and the floors are designed to carry 350 lb, live load, per sq ft. The cost of the building, exclusive of heating, elevators, etc. was $1.54 per sq ft.

The Cost of Buildings of Mill-Construction in Vancouver, Canada. The building described in the following paragraph was designed by Dalton & Eveleigh, Vancouver, Canada, who give data of a warehouse with floors designed to carry an average load of 500 lb per sq ft and costing $1.09 per sq ft. Although the heaviest timbers and the heaviest wall-hangers and beam-hangers were used, and the floors built of the maximum thickness, the cost was extremely low. This no doubt was partly due to the proximity of the timber and the facilities for transporting it by water.

A Warehouse for the Storage of Heavy Hardware. This was erected in Vancouver, Canada. The main building has four stories and a basement, and is 85 ft 6 in by 115 ft 6 in in plan. The office-wing has four stories and a basement and is 60 by 40 ft. There is, also, a four-story and half-length-basement building, 38 by 120 ft, connecting with the two upper stories of the main building by means of a steel bridge 40 ft long. The walls above the basement are of hard-burned brick and the concrete basement walls and floors are treated with hydrolite. The main girders are set 23 ft on centers and vary in section from 12 by 16 in to 18 by 24 in and are all one-piece sticks. The posts, set 11 ft

10 in on centers, vary from 12 by 12 in in one piece, to 20 by 38 in, in three pieces. The joists, set 4 ft on centers, vary from 8 by 16 in to 16 by 24 in in one piece. The floors are made of 4 by 6-in and 4 by 4-in pieces, laid solid, with top flooring made of 2 by 6-in, edge-grain, tongued and grooved pieces, with two layers of asbestos between, weighing 10½ ounces per sq ft. All the timbers are of fir. There are three brick-enclosed elevators with fire-doors, and one elevator in a wooden shaft, built "solid" of 3-in thick pieces. The office-front is of pressed brick, and has plate glass, marble steps and copper trim. The windows are glazed with wire-glass in metal frames, and there are fire-doors on the outer door-openings. The roof is made of a 6-ply composition with a gravel coating. The live load used for the floors varied from 1 000 lb per sq ft on the ground floor to 250 lb on the top floor, the average live load being 500 lb per sq ft. The walls and posts were designed to carry two additional stories, with a live load of 225 lb per sq ft. The cost of the building, exclusive of the heating and office and warehouse-fixtures, was $1.09 per sq ft.

22. Cost* of Brick Mill-Buildings of Slow-Burning Construction

Approximate Cost of Brick Mill-Buildings. Mr. C. T. Main† has made a series of diagrams showing the cost in New England, in 1910, PER SQUARE FOOT OF FLOOR SPACE, of BRICK MILL-BUILDINGS of different sizes, from one to six stories in height, and of the type known as SLOW-BURNING. The calculations are made for total floor-loads of about 75 lb per sq ft. The figures taken from the diagrams are given on the following page. The costs include ordinary foundations and plumbing, but no heating, sprinklers or lighting.

Modifications of the Costs given in Table I: (1) If the soil is poor or the conditions of the site are such as to require more than ordinary foundations, the cost will be increased.

(2) If the building is to be used for ordinary storage-purposes with low stories and no overflooring, the cost will be decreased from about 10% for large, low buildings to 25% for small, high ones, about 20% being usually a fair allowance.

(3) If the building is to be used for manufacturing and is substantially built of wood, the cost will be decreased from about 6% for large, one-story buildings to 33% for small, high buildings; 15% would usually be a fair allowance.

(4) If the building is to be used for storage and built with low stories and substantially of wood, the cost will be decreased from 13% for large, one-story buildings to 50% for small, high buildings; 30% would usually be a fair allowance.

(5) If the total floor-loads are more than 75 lb per sq ft the cost is increased.

(6) For office-buildings, the cost must be increased to cover the exterior architectural treatment and the interior finish.

(7) Reinforced-concrete buildings, designed to carry floor-loads of 100 lb or less per sq ft will cost about 25% more than those of the slow-burning type of mill-construction.

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* For cost of reinforced-concrete mills, warehouses, etc., see pages 1532 and 1538.

† Engineering News, January 27, 1910.

Table I. Cost of Brick Mill-Buildings per Square Foot of Floor-Area

Length in ft	50	100	150	200	250	300	350	400	500
Width in ft	One story								
25	$1.90	$1.66	$1.58	$1.54	$1.51	$1.49	$1.48	$1.47	$1.46
50	1.52	1.29	1.21	1.18	1.16	1.15	1.14	1.13	1.13
75	1.41	1.21	1.12	1.08	1.06	1.04	1.03	1.02	1.02
125	1.32	1.09	1.02	0.98	0.96	0.94	0.94	0.93	0.92
	Two stories								
25	2.00	1.62	1.52	1.47	1.44	1.41	1.39	1.38	1.36
50	1.50	1.21	1.13	1.09	1.06	1.05	1.04	1.03	1.02
75	1.34	1.08	1.01	0.97	0.94	0.92	0.92	0.91	0.90
125	1.22	0.97	0.90	0.86	0.84	0.82	0.81	0.80	0.86
	Three stories								
25	1.98	1.57	1.47	1.42	1.39	1.38	1.36	1.35	1.34
50	1.47	1.17	1.07	1.03	1.01	1.00	0.98	0.98	0.98
75	1.30	1.05	0.98	0.94	0.91	0.89	0.88	0.87	0.86
125	1.18	0.93	0.86	0.82	0.80	0.78	0.77	0.76	0.76
	Four stories								
25	2.00	1.61	1.50	1.45	1.42	1.40	1.38	1.37	1.36
50	1.38	1.17	1.10	1.05	1.02	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.98
75	1.32	1.08	0.97	0.93	0.90	0.88	0.88	0.87	0.87
125	1.20	0.93	0.85	0.81	0.78	0.77	0.76	0.75	0.74
	Six stories								
25	2.10	1.72	1.57	1.51	1.48	1.46	1.44	1.43	1.42
50	1.53	1.21	1.12	1.08	1.05	1.04	1.03	1.02	1.02
75	1.35	1.08	0.98	0.94	0.92	0.90	0.89	0.88	0.86
125	1.22	0.96	0.86	0.82	0.79	0.78	0.77	0.76	0.76

The cost per square foot of a building 100 ft wide is about midway between that of one 75 ft wide and one 125 ft wide; and the cost of a five-story building about midway between the costs of a four-story and a six-story building.

Additional Data for estimating costs of foundation-walls and other walls are given in the following table:

Table II. Cost of Walls in Brick Mill-Buildings of Slow-Burning Construction

Number of stories	1	2	3	4	5	6
Foundations, including excavations						
Cost per lin ft:						
Outside walls........................	$2.00	$2.90	$3.80	$4.70	$5.60	$6.50
Inside walls..........................	1.75	2.25	2.80	3.40	3.90	4.50
Brick walls						
Cost per sq ft of surface:						
Outside walls........................	0.40	0.44	0.47	0.50	0.53	0.57
Inside walls..........................	0.40	0.40	0.40	0.43	0.45	0.47

Columns, including piers and castings, cost about $15 each.

Assumed Height of Stories: From ground to first floor, 3 ft. Buildings 25 ft wide, stories 13 ft high; 50 ft wide, 14 ft high; 75 ft wide, 15 ft high; 100 ft and 125 ft wide, 16 ft high.

Cost of Floors: 32 cts per sq ft of gross floor-space, not including columns; 38 cts, including columns.

Cost of Roof: 25 cts per sq ft, not including columns; 30 cts, including columns. Roof to project 18 in on all sides of buildings.

Stairways, including partitions, $100 each flight. Include two stairways and one elevator-tower for buildings up to 150 ft long; two stairways and two elevator-towers for buildings up to 300 ft long. In buildings over two stories in height, three stairways and three elevator-towers for buildings over 300 ft long.

Plumbing Fixtures. In buildings of more than two stories figure $75 for each fixture, including the piping and partitions. Allow for two fixtures on each floor up to 5 000 sq ft of floor-space, and one fixture for each additional 5 000 sq ft, or fraction thereof, of floor-space.

CHAPTER XXIII

FIREPROOFING OF BUILDINGS

By

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1. Definitions, Areas, Heights and Costs

Definitions. The term FIRE-PROOF, while now quite well understood by architects, is still used in a very broad sense by the public. To be strictly fire-proof, a building must be constructed and finished entirely with incombustible materials, and any of these materials, such as steel or iron, which are injuriously affected by heat or streams of water must be efficiently protected by other materials which are not so affected. This precludes the use of wood, whether exposed or not exposed, also all exposed steel or iron, common glass and most building stones. It is safe to say that there are very few buildings in this country that are absolutely FIRE-PROOF. There are many, however, that could not be destroyed by fire, and in which the salvage would probably amount to from 60 to 80%; and it is the latter class which is generally meant when the term FIRE-PROOF is used. Incombustible buildings, and buildings of wooden construction protected to a greater or less degree from the flames, are sometimes advertised as FIRE-PROOF; but such buildings should be considered merely as SLOW-BURNING. It is undoubtedly the duty of every architect to be well informed concerning the fire-proof qualities of all materials that enter into the construction and finishing of buildings, and to know how to use these materials to the best advantage. His choice and use of materials is then limited only by the character of the building and the interests of his clients. It is intended to furnish this information in a concise manner in this chapter.

Municipal Definitions. Municipal definitions as to what constitutes FIRE-PROOF CONSTRUCTION have a great bearing on the construction of buildings within their jurisdiction, and those of the two largest cities are therefore quoted.

Chicago Definition.[*] "The term FIRE-PROOF CONSTRUCTION shall apply to all buildings in which all parts that carry weights or resist strains,[†] and also all exterior walls and all interior walls and all interior partitions and all stairways and all elevator enclosures are made entirely of incombustible material, and in which all metallic structural members are protected against the effects of fire by coverings of a material which shall be entirely incombustible, and a slow heat conductor, and hereinafter termed FIRE-PROOF MATERIAL. Reinforced concrete as defined in this ordinance shall be considered fire-proof construction.

"The materials which shall be considered as filling the conditions of fire-proof covering are: First, burned brick; second, tiles of burned clay; third, approved cement concrete; fourth, terra-cotta."

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[*] Quoted matter is left in its original form. The editor-in-chief is not responsible for its syntax, punctuation, etc.

[†] Stresses are meant.

City	All buildings	Hotels	Schools	Hospitals and asylums	Residence-buildings
New York, N. Y.	75 ft	36 ft 6 in	36 ft 6 in	36 ft 6 in	75 ft
Chicago, Ill.	90 ft	Five stories and basement	Three stories and basement	Two stories	Five stories and basement
Philadelphia, Pa.	Six stories 85 ft	Four stories	Four stories	Two stories	Four stories
St. Louis, Mo.	75 ft	75 ft	Two stories above basement	Two stories above basement	....
Boston, Mass.	75 ft	....	....	....	65 ft
Cleveland, O.	60 ft Ordinary construction 80 ft Mill-construction 100 ft Semifire-proof construction				
Baltimore, Md.	85 ft	45 ft	45 ft	45 ft	70 ft
Pittsburgh, Pa.	90 ft	....	....	....	....
Detroit, Mich.	100 ft	100 ft	More than 1 500 people	100 ft	100 ft
Buffalo, N. Y.	72 ft	....	....	....	....
San Francisco, Cal.	55 ft Ordinary construction 84 ft Mill-construction				
Newark, N. J.	65 ft	50 ft	40 ft	40 ft	....
Washington, D. C.	60 ft	55 ft	....	55 ft	55 ft
Kansas City, Mo.	....	Four stories	Three stories	Three stories	Four stories
Seattle, Wash.	70 ft	....	....	Three stories	....
New Haven, Ct.	65 ft 80 ft. Mill-construction	55 ft	45 ft	45 ft	55 ft
Omaha, Neb.	Four stories	Three stories	Three stories	Two stories	Four stories

New York Definition. Buildings required to be FIRE-PROOF shall be "constructed with walls of brick, stone, Portland cement concrete, iron or steel, in which wood beams or lintels shall not be placed, and in which the floors and roofs shall be of materials provided for in Section 106 of this Code. The stairs and staircase landings shall be built entirely of brick, stone, Portland cement concrete, iron or steel. No woodwork or other inflammable material shall be used in any of the partitions, furrings, or ceilings in any such fire-proof buildings excepting, however, that when the height of the building does not exceed twelve stories nor more than 150 feet, the doors and windows and their frames, the trims, the casings, the interior finish when filled solid at the back with fire-proof material, and the floor-boards and sleepers directly thereunder, may be of wood, but the space between the sleepers shall be solidly filled with fire-proof materials and extend up to the underside of the floor-boards.

"When the height of a fire-proof building exceeds twelve stories, or more than 150 feet, the floor surfaces shall be of stone cement, rock asphalt, tiling, or similar incombustible material, or the sleepers and floors may be of wood treated by some process approved by the Board of Buildings, to render the same fire-proof. All outside window frames and sash shall be of metal, or of wood covered with metal. The inside window-frames and sash, doors, trim, and other interior finish may be of wood covered with metal, or of wood treated by some process approved by the Board of Buildings to render the same fire-proof."

Section 106 of the Code refers to fire-proof floors. These may be constructed of brick, tile, cement-concrete, and, in fact, of any material that will successfully pass the tests prescribed by the Code. Before any floor-construction other than brick or tile will be passed by the department, however, it must be tested for strength and fire-resistance under very rigid conditions, and the construction must stand the test successfully.*

When Fire-proof Construction Should be Employed. A building should be designed, built, and finished to conform to the purpose for which it is to be used. A building containing but little inflammable material, and that not of great value, need not be as thoroughly fire-proof as one designed for the storage of valuable goods, or for the protection of life in case of fire. The height of a building is an important factor in determining whether it should be fire-proof or not. The rate of increase in the difficulty of coping with fire in a building is greater than that of the increase in the height. The area covered by a building, also, is important, although in most instances interior division-walls may be provided which practically cut up a building into a series of smaller buildings. Some of the limitations placed upon non-fire-proof buildings by various municipal laws will be found in the following classification and in Table I, page 812.

Limiting Areas for Non-Fire-proof Buildings

New York City,	8 000 sq ft on an interior lot.
	12 500 sq ft on a corner.
	22 000 sq ft when facing three streets.
Chicago, Ill.,	9 000 sq ft if of ordinary joisted construction.
	12 000 sq ft if of slow-burning construction.
St. Louis, Mo.,	7 500 sq ft.
Boston, Mass.,	5 000 sq ft.
Cleveland, Ohio,	Mill-Construction:
	20 000 sq ft when facing streets on four sides.
	15 000 sq ft when facing streets on three sides.
	12 000 sq ft when facing streets on two sides.
	9 000 sq ft when facing streets on one side.
	5 000 sq ft on any lot when of hazardous occupancy.

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* See page 827.

Cleveland, Ohio, Ordinary Construction:

12 500 sq ft when facing streets on four sides.
10 000 sq ft when facing streets on three sides.
7 500 sq ft when facing streets on two sides.
5 000 sq ft when facing streets on one side.
2 000 sq ft on any lot when of hazardous occupancy.

Cost of Fire-proof Construction. F. W. Fitzpatrick finds that fire-proof construction for office-buildings, hotels, etc., adds from 9 to 13% to the cost of ordinary construction with wooden joists. For stores and warehouses the difference will often be less than 5%.* Walter F. Ballinger states that reinforced-concrete construction costs from 10 to 15% more per square foot of floor-surface than mill-construction and about 25% less than steel-frame and terra-cotta fire-proof construction.† Figures given by J. P. H. Perry indicate that reinforced-concrete construction adds from 2 to 20% to the cost of mill-construction for commercial buildings, with an average of 6.7% for various localities and all classes of buildings in the United States. The increase in cost of structural-steel fire-proof construction over reinforced-concrete construction averaged 6.4% for fourteen buildings of all classes in various localities.‡

Divisions of the Subject. In constructing fire-proof buildings it is necessary to consider:

(1) Materials to be used.
(2) Form of construction.
(3) Protecting devices.
(4) Extinguishing appliances.

This general order is followed in the discussion of the subject in this chapter.

2. Fire-Resistance of Materials

Effect of Heat on Building Materials. All materials of construction are more or less injuriously affected by high temperatures. Furthermore, an INCOMBUSTIBLE material is not necessarily FIRE-RESISTING, as, for instance, steel. The value of various materials in fire-proof construction is indicated in the following paragraphs.

Brickwork. Common brickwork, when of a good quality, will stand exposure to fire for a considerable length of time, but in a severe conflagration the heated side of a wall expands, often to the point of throwing the wall, and the bricks crack, shell, and are sometimes melted. Experience has shown that thick walls are less affected by heat than thin walls, and that hard-burned bricks stand better than soft or under-burned bricks. In buildings which are to contain large quantities of inflammable material it is undoubtedly better to line the walls with porous furring-tile or hollow brick. In the Baltimore and San Francisco fires, it was demonstrated that for outside walls brick is superior as a fire-proof material to any other material used in wall-construction.

Stone in General. Very few stones successfully stand the action of severe heat, and consequently stone in general should be used very sparingly in fire-proof buildings, and certain kinds of stone not at all.

Granite will explode and fly to pieces or disintegrate into sand when exposed to flames.

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* "Fireproof" for March, June and July, 1903.

† Proc. Nat. Fire Prot. Asso., 1909.

‡ Proc. Nat. Asso. Cement Users, 1911.

Limestone and Marble are usually ruined if not totally destroyed by an ordinary fire. They are the least desirable of all stones for use in a fire-proof building, and the granites come next.

Sandstone when fine-grained and compact sometimes stands fire without serious injury, but in the case of a severe conflagration it is generally so badly affected that it has to be replaced.

Terra-Cotta is made from clay by mixing it with water into a plastic mass, shaping the same into the form desired and baking it at a high temperature in kilns. For the usual structural form the shaping is generally done by forcing the plastic mass through a special die by means of machinery. Ornamental terra-cotta must generally be shaped by hand.

Ornamental Terra-Cotta. This material, and especially that which has a glazed surface, is well adapted for the trimmings of a building that is intended to be fire-proof. It should, however, be made heavy enough to carry both its own weight and its share of the wall-load.*

Structural Terra-Cotta. Terra-cotta, as used for floor-arches, column and girder-protection, and for building light, hollow walls, is made of three different compositions, the material being known as DENSE, POROUS, and SEMIPOROUS, according to the method of manufacture.

Dense Tiling is made from a variety of clays. Some manufacturers use more or less fire-clay, and combine it with potter's clay, plastic clays, or tough brick-clay. It is very dense and possesses high crushing strength. In outer walls exposed to the weather and required to be light, it is very desirable. Some manufacturers furnish it with a semiglazed surface for the outer walls of buildings. For such use it has great durability, and effectually stops moisture. In using dense tiling for fire-proof filling, care should be taken that the tiles are free from cracks, sound and hard-burned.

Porous and Semiporous Terra-Cotta is made by mixing sawdust with the clay, the sawdust being destroyed by the action of the heat, leaving the material light and porous. A small proportion of fire-clay mixed with the plastic clay is desirable but not essential. The proportion of sawdust should be from 25 to 35%, according to the toughness of the clay used. Care is required in the process of manufacture to have the work of mixing, drying and burning thoroughly done. The burning should be done in down-draught kilns by a quick process. The product should be compact, tough and hard, and should ring when struck with metal. Poorly-mixed, pressed, or burned tiles, or tiles from short or sandy clays, present a ragged, soft, and crumbly appearance, and are not desirable. When properly made, porous terra-cotta will not crack or break from unequal heating, or from being suddenly cooled with water when in a heated condition. It can be cut with a saw or edge-tools, and nails or screws can be easily driven into it to secure interior finish, slates, tiles, etc. As a successful heat-resistant and non-conductor for the protection of other materials, it must be ranked very high.

Semiporous Tiling. This material was introduced by those factories which use pure fire-clay in the manufacture of tile, to enable them to compete with the standard porous material. During the process of grinding the clay, about 20% of ground coal is mixed with it. This coal aids in the burning of the material and also makes it lighter and more or less porous. Tiling made by this process is admitted to be a much better fire-resistant than the solid or dense material. E. V. Johnson says: "personally, I believe that good semiporous fire-clay tile is fully as efficient as a fire-resisting material as the standard makes of porous terra-cotta."

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* "Fire Prevention and Fire Protection," J. K. Freitag.

Strength of Terra-Cotta. (See, also, page 276.) In tests made at Columbia University for the building authorities of New York City on terra-cotta blocks taken from material delivered in the open market, the following CRUSHING STRENGTH was developed:

Table II. Crushing Strength of Terra-Cotta

Description of material	Position of cells in test	Compressive strength, lb per sq in	
		Gross area	Net area
Dense tile	Vertical	1 864	4 721
	Horizontal	585	2 613
Semiporous tile	Vertical	1 027	2 168
	Horizontal	257	1 008

The inequality in strength of the two materials can be overcome by using thicker webs and shells for the semiporous or porous material. In the matter of WEIGHT, porous and semiporous terra-cotta have the advantage over dense tile. Dense tiling, when heated and cooled by water, is liable to crack from the sudden contraction; "blocks with two or more air-spaces are very liable to have the outer webs destroyed under this action. Even if not cooled with water, other fires have shown that hard-burned terra-cotta will crack and fall to pieces under severe heat alone." * The experience of the recent conflagrations in Baltimore and San Francisco fully bears out this statement. The collapse of the floors of one of the buildings in Baltimore was largely due to the weakening of the terra-cotta arches by reason of the breaking off of the outer shells. Porous terra-cotta is non-heat-conducting in itself, and the best qualities will usually resist fire and water successfully; but if the product "is not burned at a sufficiently high temperature to consume all of the sawdust, the throwing of cold water upon the heated surfaces will cause an expansion or disintegration due to the absorption of the water and its conversion into steam." Porous terra-cotta absorbs water freely, and if allowed to freeze when wet is more or less injured. If the process is permitted to continue, the blocks become so weakened that they are unsafe for use.

Concrete Blocks and Concrete Tiles. Numerous forms of building blocks and tiles are manufactured of Portland-cement mortar or concrete for use as substitutes for brick, stone and terra-cotta. Concrete blocks are made by the DRY PROCESS by tamping a dry-concrete mix into shape in forms, or by the WET PROCESS which consists of pouring a semiliquid or SLUSH-MIX into molds and curing the product by air or steam. Various types of machines have been patented for the manufacture of the blocks by the former method, a typical machine being that of the Ideal Concrete Machinery Company of South Bend, Ind. Concrete hollow tile is being made for the same uses as terra-cotta tiling, for partitions and floors in general, and for enclosure-walls as well as for partitions in residences. For wall-bearing purposes, the tiles are usually filled solid for a layer or two where the beams rest upon them. In hollow-block construction, distinction should always be made between the strength of the blocks when laid with the core-holes vertical and when laid with the core-holes horizontal, as the strength, in the latter position, approximates only one-half of what it is in the former. The specifications given in the Proc. Nat. Asso. of Cement Users, 1911, are generally accepted as the best practice in the manufacture of concrete blocks. (See, also, Chapter III, page 233.)

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* "Fire Prevention and Fire Protection," J. K. Freitag.

Concrete Tile. Concrete building tiles have been used extensively for residences in Chicago, Ill., Rochester, N. Y. and the suburbs of New York City. The shape and size of the blocks vary with the make of the product. Tilecrete, a WET-PROCESS tile made by the Concrete Products Company, of New York City, is in extensive use in various parts of the country, for enclosure-walls, interior partitions and combination concrete-and-tile floors of residences. The COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH in pounds per square inch of Tilecrete tested for the Bureau of Buildings, New York City, in 1911 was as follows:

Table III. Compressive Strength of Tilecrete.*

Dimensions and use			Cells vertical		Cells horizontal	
Thickness, in	Kind of tile	Number of cells	Gross area, lb per sq in	Net area, lb per sq in	Gross area, lb per sq in	Net area, lb per sq in
8	Wall-tile	2	....	....	320	746
10	Wall-tile	2	528	1 510	351	1 228
10	Corner-tile	2	633	1 580	....	....
12	Wall-tile	4	510	1 050	360	1 066

* Further information may be obtained from the catalogues of the Concrete Products Company, New York City; Chicago Structural Tile Company, Chicago, Ill.; Whitmore, Rauber and Vicinus, Rochester, N. Y.; Concrete Stone and Sand Company, Youngstown, Ohio.

Concrete. Stone concrete, under the action of heat, is affected much the same way as brickwork. The heated surface expands, and as the concrete is a very poor conductor, the other surface remains cool and either cracks or causes warping. The heat also affects the strength and texture of the concrete, causing a disintegration of the concrete to a depth of about 1 in. Often the surface spalls off with a report. If water is applied after the heat, the surface is washed away to the depth of the affected part. These effects vary somewhat with the stone used in the aggregate. Gravel and granite, on account of the difference between their coefficient of expansion and that of the concrete, are likely to spall. Limestone calcines under the action of heat and is especially liable to destruction for some depth by the water. Trap-rock is the most satisfactory material to use, from the standpoint of fire-resistance as well as that of strength. If there is no application of water after the fire and the surface is allowed to cool off gradually, the concrete may set again and become hard. It is not well, however, to rely on this. (See, also, Chapter III, page 245, for the effect of heat on concrete fireproofing.)

Slag Concrete. Blast-furnace slag has been used as the aggregate in concrete, with very satisfactory results as to both fire-resistance and strength.*

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* For a series of tests and description of materials, see pamphlet issued by the Carnegie Steel Company, 1911, "Furnace Slags in Concrete."

Cinder Concrete. Cinder concrete, because of its porous character and the nature of its aggregate, makes a most excellent fireproofing material. Tests and the experience of recent conflagrations would indicate that it is the best. Care must, however, be taken in the selection of the cinders. They must be clean furnace-cinders, free from particles of unburnt coal, and should be ground by machinery before mixing for concrete. When properly selected and proportioned cinders produce good concrete, but generally a very non-homogeneous material is obtained, so that its strength is variable and doubtful. For this reason in using cinder concrete in floor-construction the working loads should be determined from load-tests and a high FACTOR OF SAFETY should be used. The practice in New York City is to take one-tenth of the BREAKING-LOAD as the WORKING LOAD.

Corrosive Action of Cinders. When cinder concrete is used to encase steel, either as a protective covering or as a part of a concrete construction, the corrosive effect of cinders must be guarded against. A discussion of this subject will be found in Chapter XXIV, pages 961 and 962.

Mortars, Plasters and Plaster of Paris. Mortar and plaster must necessarily enter into the composition of all masonry buildings, whether built of brick, stone, or terra-cotta. That ordinary lime mortar, when well made, will endure for unlimited periods of time, in dry situations, has been proved by actual use. Hydraulic-cement mortars are equally durable in wet or damp places. For laying brickwork or tilework in first-class buildings, cement-and-sand mortar is preferable to any other; and cement mixed with lime mortar gives greater strength than lime and sand alone. Regarding the fire-proof qualities of mortars and plaster compositions there has been much controversy; the truth of the matter seems to be that all such compositions will withstand the action of heat up to a certain degree, when they are affected in one way or another, depending not only upon the composition but in large measure upon their body, and upon the way in which they are used. Lime mortar for walls was formerly considered as the most satisfactory, so far as fire-resistance is concerned; but since the improvements in cement-manufacture, cement mortar is generally preferred. Lime plaster, applied on wire lath, will withstand a high degree of heat without injury, but is liable to be washed away in places by streams of water. Hard wall-plasters, or patent plasters, when applied to brickwork or metal lath, are in all cases equal in heat-resistance to common lime, and many of the patent plasters will stand the combined effects of fire and water longer than the common mortars.

Plaster of Paris. Compositions of plaster of Paris and broken bricks, wood chips, or sawdust are non-conductors of heat and possess fire-resisting properties of considerable importance; and on account of their lightness and cheapness, are often used in fire-proof or semifire-proof buildings. In France such compositions have been used for generations to form ceilings between beams, and their durability and fireproofing qualities are unquestioned in that country. Plaster-of-Paris compositions when subjected to severe heat are softened on the surface, and when water is thrown upon them they wash away to some extent.

Asbestic Plaster. A plaster made by mixing Asbestic with freshly slacked lime-putty has been used to some extent in New York City. Asbestic is made from a serpentine rock, mined near Montreal, Canada, and contains a large proportion of asbestos. "Claims of great fire-resisting properties are made for this material, as well as resistance to the effects of water during fire; cracking and discoloration due to the percolation of water or acids are also claimed to be avoided. The plaster is tough and elastic, and it will receive nails without chipping or cracking. The weight is said to be about half that of ordinary cement mortar." Asbestic was subjected to a severe fire-and-water test in the presence of the officials of the Supervising Architect's office at Washington, D. C., "and the plaster did not crack or drop, but remained intact. All of the walls, ceilings, and columns of the appraiser's warehouse in New York City were covered with a coat of Asbestic, from ½ to ¾ in thick, applied, on the concrete or terra-cotta surfaces. The great objection to the use of this material lies in its slow drying, the time required for a thorough drying out being usually very long." *

Asbestos Products. Asbestos fiber combined with cement is manufactured in the form of steam-packings, corrugated sheathings, roof-coatings and shingles, wall-boards and building-lumber, insulating sheathing and blocks, asbestos theater-curtains, various forms of preservative and fire-resisting compounds, and substitutes for wall-plaster and stucco. The value of these products lies in their low heat-conductivity and incombustibility.

Asbestos Building-Lumber is made in standard sheets, 36 by 48, 42 by 48 and 42 by 96 in in size, and varying in thickness from ⅛ in (about 1 to 1¼ lb per sq ft in weight) to 2 in (from 16 to 20 lb per sq ft in weight). When seasoned it is harder than ordinary wood, takes nails and screws, and it can be manipulated with heavy tools and machinery such as are used for working iron; it is too hard for ordinary wood-working tools. It is sufficiently elastic to withstand ordinary vibration, expansion and contraction of surrounding parts, wind-pressure and blows; and in large pieces, it can be bent around slight curves without splitting.

Asbestos Corrugated Sheathing is corrugated asbestos building-lumber, reinforced with sheet steel of from No. 24 to No. 27 United States gauge or with woven-wire netting. It is applied in the same way that corrugated iron is applied, either nailed to wooden strips bolted to the purlins, or clipped directly to the purlins by clips of hoop-iron or wire. It comes in standard sheets, 27½ in wide and in lengths of 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 10 ft.

Asbestos Roofing-Shingles, suitable for wooden-roof construction, possess fire-resisting qualities far superior to wooden shingles. The advantages claimed are their fire-proof qualities, toughness, elasticity and lightness in weight; ease of manipulation, cutting, sawing and shaping to fit dormer windows, chimneys, etc.; and their immunity from the corrosive action of salt air. The principal companies manufacturing asbestos building-products are the Johns-Manville Company, New York City, the Keasbey & Mattison Company, Ambler, Pa. and the Asbestos Manufacturing Company, Lachine, Canada.

Asbestos-Protected Metal consists of steel sheets of from No. 28 to No. 20 United States gauge, coated on both sides with asphaltum-compounds containing heavy natural oils, and covered with layers of asbestos-felt put together under great pressure. The sheets are made flat, corrugated or beaded. It forms an incombustible roofing, siding, sheathing and interior-finish material. It is manufactured in three brands: Duckback, for exterior service, as a protection against moisture and corrosive fumes; Aspromet, for interior finish, in places where fire-resistance is the important factor; and Special Interior Finish, to be painted or enameled. The manufacture of this product is controlled by the Asbestos Protected Metal Company, Canton, Mass. The standard sizes are as follows:

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* Freitag.

Flat sheets, 30 by 120 in; 30 by 96 in; Nos. 28 to 20, U. S. gauge;
Corrugated, 2½-in corrugations, 26 by 120 in; 26 by 96 in; [*]
Clapboard-siding, 26 by 60 in; 5-in face; Nos. 28 to 22, U. S. gauge;
Interior-finish sheets, in sizes up to 30 by 144 in.

Steel and Wrought Iron. Wrought iron and steel will expand, bend and twist under a moderate degree of heat. Inasmuch as a temperature of 1 700° F. is not unusual in fires, these materials should not be used in fire-proof construction without proper protection. Fire-tests at the Continental Iron Works in 1896 showed that unprotected steel columns under load began to fail when the temperature reached about 1 100° F.[*] In the Baltimore and San Francisco fires there were many instances of failure in steel columns due to lack of or to insufficient protection.

Cast Iron. "As the result of tests and actual experience in conflagrations it may be stated that unprotected cast iron can stand practically unharmed up to temperatures of 1 300 or 1 500° F. while carrying very heavy loads even with frequent applications of cold water while the metal is at a red heat."[†] In the tests at the Continental Iron Works, referred to in the preceding paragraph, a temperature of nearly 1 300° F. was reached before the cast-iron columns began to fail. The contents of most mercantile buildings, when burning freely, would probably generate a heat exceeding at times 2 000° F. Consequently, cast-iron columns, when unprotected, are almost sure to fail in such a fire either by bending or breaking. No building in which unprotected iron or steel columns are used can be considered fire-proof; but in many classes of buildings unprotected cast-iron columns might safely withstand any heat to which they would probably be exposed. From a fire-resisting point of view, when there is no protective covering, cast-iron columns are unquestionably preferable to steel columns.

Fire-proof Wood. To meet the requirements of certain provisions of the New York City Building Code, an attempt has been made to produce fire-proof wood. The processes for rendering wood fire-proof, in general, consist in impregnating its fibers with certain chemicals. After the fireproofing-process, the lumber should be thoroughly kiln-dried before it is used. The softwoods are more easily thoroughly treated than the hardwoods, the resinous woods being particularly difficult to handle.

"The treatment of the wood to render it fire-proof slightly raises the igniting-point of the wood. The treated wood is harder to light than the untreated wood, taking two to three times as long to ignite. The amount of wood destroyed when exposed to the action of a flame is from 5 to 12 per cent greater in the case of an untreated wood than in the case of a treated wood. The untreated wood furnished more flame than the treated wood. The untreated wood will sustain flame longer than the treated wood after the source of heat has been removed. From this it can be seen that the fire-proofed wood is less likely to ignite and less likely to cause the spread of fire than the untreated wood."[‡]

Among the disadvantages of fire-proof wood should be mentioned an increased difficulty in working the wood, and a tendency to dull woodworking-tools more rapidly than with untreated wood. Hence an increased cost in the use of fire-proof wood. Professor Woolson estimates this increase to be from $35 to $65 per thousand feet, the hardwoods costing the most. The salts used in the process of fireproofing being hygroscopic, tend to keep the woodwork damp. Hardware or other metalwork in contact with fire-proofed wood is liable to corrode.

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[*] See Engineering News, Aug. 6, 1896.

[†] Freitag.

[‡] See Insurance Engineering, Vol. IV, page 551; also Professor Norton's Report No. 1 to the Boston Manufacturers' Mutual Fire Insurance Company.

The strength of the wood is often affected, and in some cases the wood becomes quite brittle. These two last-mentioned faults can be largely overcome by neutralizing the fireproofing-solution by a proper mixture of acid and alkaline salts.

The test, known as the timber-test, applied to fire-proof wood in New York City, consists in placing a stick of the treated wood, ¾ by 1½ in in cross-section and 8 in in length, for two minutes over a crucible gas-furnace in which a constant temperature of 1 700° F. is maintained; then removing the test-piece, noting the time it continues to flame and glow; and then scraping away the charred wood and determining the percentage of unburned wood. The conditions of acceptance are that, "the flame and glow should disappear within ten to twenty seconds after the removal of the test-piece from the furnace, and the unburned and uncharred section at the center of the specimen should be not less than 50 to 70 per cent of the original cross-section, depending on the variety of wood under test." If the wood has been thoroughly treated, a splinter of it after having been exposed to flame and withdrawn, will show no glow or flame. Other tests have been suggested and used but need not be described here. At the present time fire-proof treatment of wood is being carried on by The Standard Wood Treating Company and the Electric Fireproofing Company, both of New York City.

Wire-Glass. The introduction of this material has made it possible to secure fire-protection in many cases, without the necessity of disfigurement due to fire-shutters. Wire-glass is either RIBBED, ROUGH, MAZE, COBWEB or POLISHED PLATE with wire embedded in its center during the process of manufacture.

"The temperature at which the wire is embedded in the glass insures adhesion between the metallic netting and the glass, and the two materials become one and inseparable, so that if the glass is broken by shock, by intense heat, or from other cause, it remains intact." It is this property of remaining intact that gives it its fire-retarding qualities. Although fire and water may cause cracks to spread throughout the glass the wire holds the pieces so firmly that flames cannot pass through it. Many severe tests during actual fires have positively demonstrated the truth of the above claim. For warehouses and factories the RIBBED or MAZE glass is generally preferable; but for offices, or wherever clear transparent glass is desired, the POLISHED PLATE is nearly if not quite as acceptable as the same glass without the wire, the effect being the same as that obtained by looking through a window with a screen on the outside. Where FIRE-RESISTANCE is the desired feature, the following requirements should be satisfied. The thickness of the plate at the thinnest part should be not less than ¼ in, and the plane of the wire mesh should be midway between the two surfaces of the glass. No wire should be smaller than No. 24 Brown and Sharpe gauge. The unsupported surface of the glass should not exceed 720 sq in in any case and should be contained in a metal frame not larger than 5 by 9 ft between supports. The chief manufacturers of wire-glass in this country are the Pennsylvania Wire Glass Company, Philadelphia, Pa. and the Mississippi Wire Glass Company, New York City. As now manufactured by the continuous process, it is rolled in lengths up to about 10 ft and in thicknesses up to ½ in.

Prism Glass. Prisms installed for the purposes of increased light are usually not contained in frames which are designed to withstand severe heat. The dimensions of the unsupported electro-glazed panel should not exceed 50 in in either direction. The polished plate in prism-glass units should not exceed 4 in in either direction, with a minimum thickness of ³⁄₁₆ in. In Report No. 11 of the Insurance Engineering Experiment Station, C. L. Norton describes a series of comparative fire-tests on electro-glazed Luxfer prisms, 0.35 in thick and 4 in square; electro-glazed plate, ¼ in thick and 4 in square; and ¼-in wire-glass. The results of these tests indicate that the three materials in sheets up to 24 by 30 in, are of equal value in FIRE-RESISTANT PROPERTIES and remain in effective operation up to the time when the temperature of melting glass is reached. (See, also, page 1492.)

Fire-proof Paint. Numerous so-called FIRE-PROOF PAINTS have been introduced in recent years. When applied to woodwork they provide a more or less effective protection against fire and may, for this reason, prevent the spread of fire. The Bureau of Buildings of New York City makes the following regulations regarding fire-proof paint:

"(1) The term FIRE-PROOF PAINT shall be understood to mean any preparation used to cover the surfaces of wood or other materials for the purpose of protecting the same against ignition.

"(2) No fire-proof paint will be considered satisfactory unless it so protects the wood or other material to which it is applied that the same will not flame or glow after having been subjected to the flame of a gasoline torch for two minutes.

"(3) Before applying fire-proof paint to any material the surfaces must be cleaned.

"(4) Application of fire-proof paint must be repeated whenever it is found that the material to which it is applied is no longer protected to fulfill Specification No. 2."*

2. Column-Protection

Girder and Column-Protection. As the columns and girders of a building form the BACK-BONE of the structure, it is of vital importance that they be very thoroughly protected from heat. As a rule, the manner of protecting these structural elements depends quite largely upon the floor-system adopted. Where concrete is used for the floor-construction it is generally also employed for incasing the columns and girders; where hollow tile is used in the floors, the same material is almost invariably employed for protecting the steel frame. The methods used for protecting girders are described in Subdivision 4, pages 863 to 866, of this chapter. (See, also, pages 780 to 782.)

Necessity for Column-Protection. It is now generally recognized that iron and steel columns should be incased with some material that will thoroughly protect the metal against fire. In 1896 a committee of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, in conjunction with representatives from other organizations, made a series of fire-tests on full-sized unprotected cast-iron, and steel columns, loaded to their figured safe capacities. These tests showed that the steel columns failed at an average temperature of 1 150° F., and the cast-iron columns at an average temperature of 1 300° F., the failure setting in after an exposure to the fire of from 23 minutes to 1 hour and 20 minutes, or an average duration of about 50 minutes. In order to determine the value of several materials as satisfactory protective coverings, the Bureau of Buildings of New York City made a series of tests on the HEAT-CONDUCTIVITY of these materials. A cast-iron plate covered with the material under test was subjected to a temperature of 1 700° F. for two hours over a crucible furnace, and the heat of the plate noted at regular intervals of time. The results of the tests are shown in the following table:

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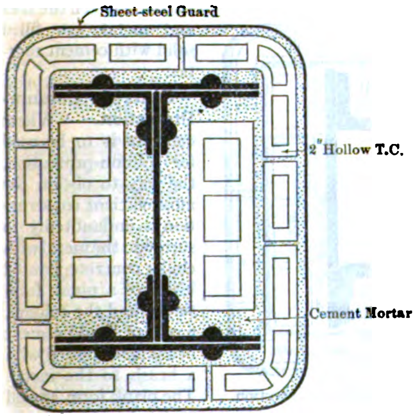
* Annual Report, 1904.

Table IV. Tests of Protective Coverings

Materials under test	Temp. on face of protective material, degrees Fahr.	Temperature of plate at back of protective material, degrees Fahr.		
		Before heating	After heating for 2 hr	Heat-transmission
Terra-cotta: dense, hollow, 2 in thick	1 700	75	223	148
Terra-cotta: semiporous, solid, 2 in thick	1 700	73	244	171
Plaster of Paris and shavings, 2 in thick	1 700	69	159	90
Plaster of Paris and asbestos, 2 in thick	1 700	70	163	93
Plaster of Paris, wood fibers, and infusorial earth, 2 in thick	1 700	72	167	95
Concrete of ground cinders, 1 5/16 in thick	1 700	73	363	290
Cinder concrete, on metal lath, 2 in thick	1 700	66	248	182
Metal lath and patent plaster, about ½ in thick over 1 in air-space	1 700	76	296	218



Blocks set in cement mortar, occasionally, in addition, bound with copper wire at intervals of 1' 0"

Fig. 1. Hollow-tile Protection. Plate-and-angle Column

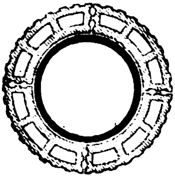


Fig. 2. Hollow-tile Protection. Cylindrical Column

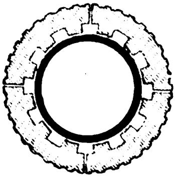


Fig. 3. Ribbed-tile Protection. Cylindrical Column

Terra-Cotta Column-Protection. Fig. 1 shows the manner in which built-up columns are protected in the best class of fire-proof buildings when tile fire-proofing is used. Figs. 2, 3 and 4 show common methods of protecting cylindrical columns, and Figs. 5 and 6 columns of rectangular cross-section. The steel guard, shown in Fig. 1, is often employed in mercantile and manufacturing buildings, and put on to a height of 4 or 5 ft above the floor. The efficiency of this construction is greatly increased by wrapping the columns with wire lath before plastering, although it is not a common practice. To insure the protection of the metal under the most trying conditions, it is imperative that the protective covering shall not be detached by the streams from the firemen's hose, and thus expose the steel. This can be positively guarded against only by using two layers of tiling or concrete and wrapping the inner layer with metal lathing. Fig. 7 shows a column protected in this way, the construction being essentially that adopted in the Fair Building in Chicago, Ill. The inner layer of tiles is wrapped with wire lath embedded in the mortar, and all spaces between the tiles and metal are filled solid with cement mortar.

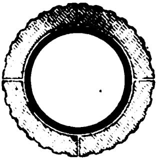


Fig. 4. Solid-tile Protection. Cylindrical Column

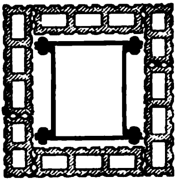


Fig. 5. Hollow-tile Protection. Built-up Box Column

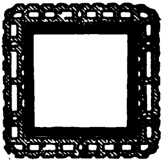


Fig. 6. Hollow-tile Protection. Square Column-section

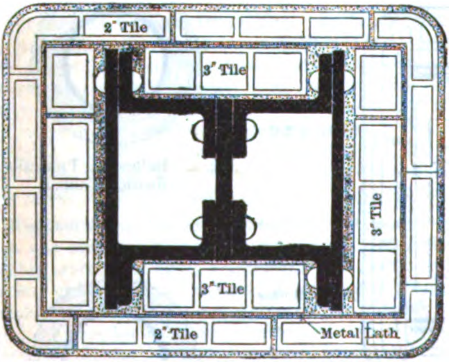


Fig. 7. Double-tile and Metal-lath Column-protection

Concrete Column-Protection. Where concrete is to be used for column-protection, the way to obtain the most efficient construction is undoubtedly to surround the metal with cinder concrete, poured inside of a plank form set around the column, a coat of liquid cement being first applied with a brush to the metal. The plank form should be set at least 2 in outside of the metal. It is generally conceded that this forms one of the most efficient fire-casings for columns, and, in addition, lends added stiffness to the steel members embedded in it. It is advisable to reinforce the concrete or anchor it by means of metal lath to the steel column. There are two general methods in use in applying the concrete. Fig. 8 illustrates a column which is first wrapped spirally with No. 10 gauge galvanized wire, 12 in on centers, to afford a key for the concrete. The wood forms are placed the full length of the column, and the concrete poured from a hole in the ceiling above. A slush-mixture of either cinder or stone concrete of 1 : 2 : 5 mix may be used. Fig. 9 shows a form of rough boards, made in sections from 4 to 6 ft in length and provided with yokes at each end. The concrete may be thoroughly tamped about the column as each section is placed and filled. Fig. 10 shows a method of furring the column with stiffened wire lath, which serves as a substitute for the wooden forms and at the same time anchors the concrete to the steel. A similar method may be employed to obtain an air-space by placing immediately around the column an envelope of metal lath with a 2-in layer of concrete. In many buildings with reinforced concrete floors, the columns are protected

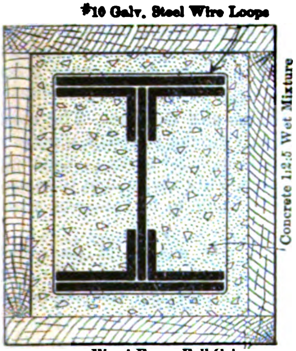


Fig. 8. Concrete Column-protection and Wooden Form

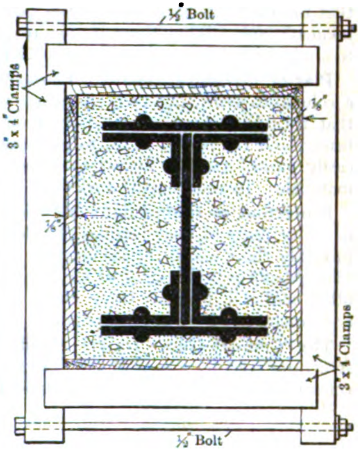


Fig. 9. Concrete Column-protection and Wooden Form

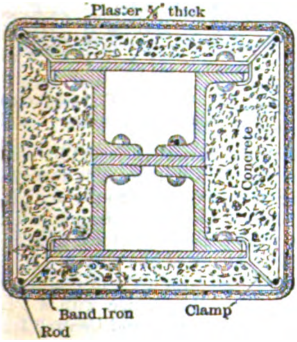


Fig. 10. Concrete Column-protection. Wire-lath Furring

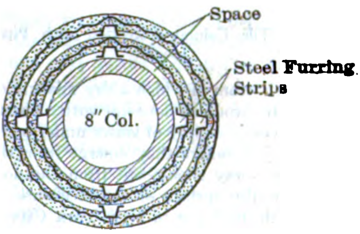


Fig. 11. Metal-lath and Plaster Column-protection

simply by plaster on metal lath. When only a single covering is provided, the protection cannot properly be considered fire-proof; but when two coverings are provided, as in Fig. 11, they are probably all that is necessary for cast-iron columns. The greatest defect in lath and plaster for fireproofing is that the plaster is liable to be dislodged by the force of the water from the firemen's hose. When there are two coverings, however, this danger is reduced to a minimum. (See, also, Chapter XXII, Figs. 23, 24 and 25.)

Plaster Column-Covering. Plaster-blocks have been used in buildings as a column-covering, but their use is not to be recommended. While it is true that their NON-CONDUCTIVITY is in their favor, it is difficult to secure them firmly, and the plaster tends to promote CORROSION in the metal. They are easily washed away by hose-streams and subject to greater damage than other materials. In unimportant work their cheapness may, at times, justify their use.

Protection of Connections between Columns and Girders. The most defective parts of the coverings of columns, whatever the materials used, are probably those about the connections with the beams and girders. Concrete undoubtedly is better adapted for covering these parts of the column than any other material, because, being elastic, it can be made to fit into any space and around any form of connection.

The Cement-Gun. During recent years, a new method of protecting structural steel by means of the CEMENT-GUN has been introduced. This gun consists essentially of two superimposed tanks, forming two compartments, from the bottom of which a dry mixture of sand and cement is ejected by compressed air through a hose-line with a nozzle at the end. To this nozzle a smaller hose delivers a supply of water under pressure, which is applied to the dry constituents just before they emerge from the nozzle. The mortar issuing in the form of a spray shoots out from the nozzle with considerable force and impinges on the surface of the steelwork. The columns of the fifty-five-story Woolworth Building in New York City are provided with a 1½-in coating of cement mortar applied in this way, and coated on the outside with a 2-in thickness of terra-cotta. The steelwork, also, of the new Grand Central Terminal buildings in New York City are protected with a 2-in coat of cement mortar or Gunnite. By this means, inaccessible corners are readily protected without the use of forms. Tests have shown that Gunnite is superior in tensile and compressive strength, permeability, absorption, porosity and adhesion to good hand-made products of the same kind.*

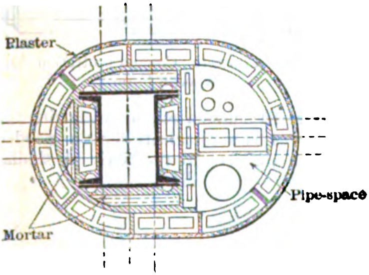


Fig. 12. Tile Column-protection with Pipe-space

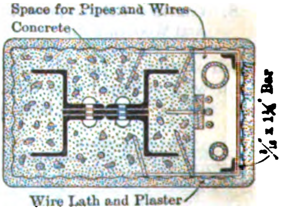


Fig. 13. Concrete Column-protection with Pipe-space

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* Engineering News, 1912, Vol. 67, page 26; and Vol. 68, page 1086.

Recesses for Pipes. "As a matter of economy, both in original cost and in the matter of space, it has been the common practice to run water-pipes, waste-pipes and vent-pipes immediately alongside the steel columns and inside the fire-resisting covering."* This is undoubtedly bad construction, as Freitag illustrates by explaining its disastrous results in recent conflagrations; and in the better types of fire-proof buildings, the pipe-space is now separated from the columns by the fireproofing. Fig. 12 shows a method of running the pipes in some fire-proof buildings, and it is probably as satisfactory as any arrangement in which the pipes are to be run beside the columns. Fig. 13 shows a somewhat similar method in which concrete, metal lath and plaster are employed for the fireproofing. (See, also, page 782.)

4. Fire-proof Floor-Construction

Fire-proof Floors. In the study of fireproofing-materials by far the greatest attention has been given to FLOOR-CONSTRUCTION; and of the very large number of types which have been developed, the characteristic and leading ones are here considered.

Requirements for a Fire-proof Floor. It goes without saying that a fireproof floor must be made of incombustible materials. It seems unnecessary, also, to mention that it must resist as much as possible the transmission of heat, so as to afford thorough protection to the metal incased by it or forming an essential part of it. The materials used should not disintegrate or otherwise fail when exposed to heat or flame. They should also resist the action of water that may be used to extinguish a fire. The floor-construction should be essentially water-tight, so as to prevent damage by water in stories below. It should be designed to safely carry its load at all times. The New York City Building Law, after describing certain acceptable forms of fire-proof floors, provides for a fire-test on other types as a precedent condition for their approval. More than seventy tests have been made under the auspices of the New York City authorities and these, together with a few made by the authorities of other cities, comprise practically all that have been made in this country. The British Fire-Prevention Committee of London has also made a number of such tests.†

Fire-Tests for Floors. The STANDARD FIRE-TEST of the American Society for Testing Materials‡ is essentially the same as that required by the New York City Building Code and as the one used by the British Fire Prevention Committee. Briefly, the test consists in subjecting the floor in question, carrying a load of 150 lb per sq ft, to a fire maintained at 1 700° F. for four hours; then in applying a stream of water, at 60-lb nozzle-pressure, for ten minutes; and finally, after cooling, in increasing the load on the floor to 600 lb per sq ft. The conditions of acceptance are that "no fire or smoke shall pass through the floor during the fire-test, the floor must safely sustain the loads prescribed, and the permanent deflection must not exceed ⅛ in for each foot of span in either slab or beam."

Types of Floor-Constructions. In considering the several systems of floor-construction, they are for convenience divided into the following types or groups:

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* Fire Prevention and Fire Protection, J. K. Freitag, page 374.

† For a list of these tests made in the United States and in London, see Proc. Am. Soc. for Test. Mats., Vol. VI, page 128.

‡ See Year Book, Am. Soc. Test. Mats.

(1) Brick arches,
(2) Terra-cotta or Tile floors:
    a. Segmental,
    b. Flat side-construction,
    c. Flat end-construction,
    d. Serrated,
    e. Reinforced-tile arches,
    f. Guastavino,
(3) Concrete floors:
    a. Segmental,
    b. Flat reinforced floors,
    c. Sectional systems,
(4) Composition systems.

Brick Floor-Arches. The first attempt at fire-proof floor-construction between wrought-iron beams was made by using BRICK ARCHES sprung between the beams and resting on the bottom flanges, as illustrated by Fig. 14. When this form of construction is used the bricks should be hard, well-burned bricks or hollow bricks of good shape, laid to a line on centers without mortar, with their lower edges touching; and all the joints should be filled in with cement grout. The bricks of one line should break joints with those of the next adjoining, and in case there is more than one row, the joints of one row should also break joint with those of the row above or below. The arches need not be over 4 in thick for spans between 6 and 8 ft, provided the haunches are filled with a good cement and gravel concrete, put in rather wet. The RISE of the arch should be about one-eighth the span, or 1½ in to the foot; and the most desirable span is between 4 and 6 ft. The building laws of many cities provide that when the spans exceed 5 ft the arches must be increased in thickness, generally to 8 in. The HAUNCHES should be filled with concrete, level

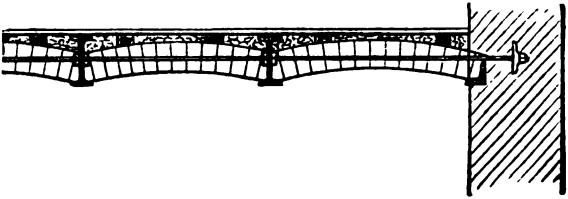
Fig. 14. Brick Floor-arch

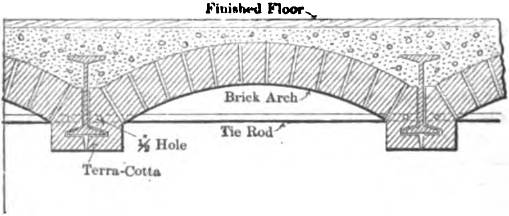

Fig. 15. Brick Floor-arch. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

with the top of the arch. In first-class fire-proof construction the bottom flanges of the beams should be protected by terra-cotta SKEW-BACKS, as in Fig. 15 which shows the construction used for the floors of the principal stories of the Government Printing Office at Washington, D. C.* A 4-in brick arch of 6-ft span, well grouted and leveled off with Portland-cement concrete, should safely carry 300 or 400 lb to the square foot. Experiments have shown that brick arches will stand very severe pounding and a great amount of DEFLECTION without failure. The WEIGHT of a floor, such as is shown in Fig. 14, is about 40 lb per sq ft, without the concrete fill or finish. TIE-RODS, as described on page 871, should always be provided. The brick arch is the strongest type of arch for the span it occupies, with the exception, perhaps, of the stone-concrete arch. It is perhaps, also, the most expensive. Its weight necessitates a heavier framework than is required for other types; and, on account of its appearance, it is adapted only to buildings of the warehouse type.

Terra-Cotta or Tile Floor-Arches. TERRA-COTTA or TILE as a fire-proof material and the relative merit of dense, porous and semiporous tile have been discussed on page 815. For floor-construction the semiporous tile is probably the best as it is a compromise between the advantages and disadvantages of the dense and porous tile, particularly as to strength and fire-resistance. As indicated on page 828, six different types of terra-cotta floor-construction, including a larger number of systems, will be discussed. For these a great variety of shapes and sizes of blocks, of the dense, porous and semiporous material, are manufactured in this country. The largest company devoted to the manufacture and erection of hollow-tile fireproofing-material is the National Fire Proofing Company, New York and Chicago. Other large companies are Henry Maurer & Son, New York; the Haydenville Company, Haydenville, Ohio; the Delaware Fire-proofing Company, Delaware, Ohio; and the Illinois Terra-Cotta Lumber Company, Chicago. Any one of these companies can make any form of blocks desired, except such as are covered by letters-patent, and, as a rule, they can make them in dense, porous and semiporous material.

Advantages of Tile Floor-Arches. Many architects prefer the use of TERRA-COTTA ARCHES in buildings because the setting of them causes less disturbance to the mechanics of other branches of the construction. During the placing of CONCRETE ARCHES the continual dripping of water and bits of concrete interferes seriously with other work. The work of installing tile arches is generally more rapid than for other types and it is not necessary to wait for them to dry out. The quality of terra-cotta can be readily judged from its appearance, not only before it is put in place but also after it is set. Thus it does not require the constant supervision necessary for materials that are mixed as they are put in place.

Disadvantages of Tile Floor-Arches. The principal DISADVANTAGE OF TILE ARCHES for floor-construction is the difficulty of adapting any system to the filling of irregular-shaped spaces. The arches must be set between I beams or channels, and to get the best effect the supporting beams must be parallel or nearly so. Tile arches, especially of the END-CONSTRUCTIONS, are weakened more by holes for pipes than are the monolithic floors. As there is no bond between the rows of tiles in the END-CONSTRUCTION arch, if a single tile in a row is cut out or omitted, there is nothing to hold up the remaining tiles in the row except the adhesion of the mortar in the side joints. In this respect SIDE-METHOD arches have an advantage over the END-CONSTRUCTION. Where it is necessary to use considerable concrete filling over the arch the weight of the floor-construction will usually greatly exceed that of the concrete systems, and this additional weight means, also, additional expense. The floor-blocks are liable to breakage and chipped blocks in the floor are not unusual. This is perhaps more apt to occur when, as in some localities, the arches are set by bricklayers. The manufacturers claim that when they use their own men, better work can be expected.

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* A description of the structural features of this building may be found in the Engineering Record for Dec. 6, 1902.

Inspection of Floor-Arches. Flat arches of hollow tile require close INSPECTION during erection to see that broken or imperfect tiles are not used; that the ribs in END-CONSTRUCTION tiles abut opposite each other; that all joints are properly mortared and that all of the steelwork is properly protected. Much poor workmanship has been allowed to pass in order to avoid delay, and also because it cannot be discovered until the centering is removed. A tile arch generally looks better on the top surface than it does on the bottom.*

Setting of Tile Floor-Arches. Tile arches are always SET on wooden CENTERS suspended by bolts hooked over the tops of the I beams. For all spans of 5 ft and over, the centers should be slightly CAMBERED. Before any floor-arches are set, all girders projecting below floor-beams should be completely covered on the bottom and sides, independently of the floor-construction. To protect the steel from rust it should have a good coat of Portland-cement mortar before the tiles are applied. After the centers are in place the beam-tiles should be placed under the bottom of the beams and mortar slushed on the sides. The entire sides of the SKEW-BACKS which rest against the floor-beams should then be covered with just enough mortar to give them a perfect bearing, and shoved up against the beams. After this, the INTERMEDIATE BLOCKS, with their ribs on one end and one side covered with a full bed of mortar, should be shoved into place. The KEYS should have mortar on both sides and one end, if SIDE-METHOD KEYS are used and they should fit snugly, but not tight. "Under no conditions should a key be rammed in place. It is better to use a smaller key and fill out the space left with either a solid slab of tile, or, if the opening is too small, with a piece of slate." † "In setting tile arches it is very common to build the arches in STRING-COURSES, first fitting all the skews, then all the intermediates, and finally all the keys. This is bad practice, as it loads the center, both planks and stringers, to excess, causing too great a deflection. In the END-CONSTRUCTION the arches should be built one by one, each being complete before the next is started. In SIDE-CONSTRUCTION, where joints are broken longitudinally, the arches should be keyed up or completed at the first point where the intermediates meet the lines of the key, thus completing the successive arches as rapidly as possible." ‡ All JOINTS in the arches should be filled with mortar, especially at the top.

Wetting the Floor-Tiles. In warm weather all hollow tiles, whether dense or porous, should be well wet or water-soaked before laying. In freezing weather they must be kept dry.

Mortar for Setting Floor-Tiles. "Mortar for setting porous hollow tile should never be made of cement and sand alone, as such mortar is too SHORT, rolls off the tile, and does not insure a full joint." § A good mortar is made by mixing the cement and sand in the proportion of 1 : 3, and adding cold lime putty to the extent of 10% of the cement-content. The mortar should be thoroughly worked. Hot lime mortar should never be used. In dry weather the centers can be removed in 36 hours after the tiles are in place, but it is much better to allow 48 hours and even longer in cold or wet weather.

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* The careless workmanship possible in the setting of tile arches was clearly set forth in an article in Engineering News, April 14, 1898.

† E. A. Hoeppner. ‡ Freitag. § E. A. Hoeppner.

Filling above Tile Floor-Arches. The strength of all tile arches is greatly increased by wetting their top surface and covering it with a rich cinder concrete, mixed with Portland cement, well tamped and brought level with the tops of the steel beams. If the floors are to be finished in wood, NAILING-STRIPS are required to secure the flooring. These nailing-strips are usually dovetail-shape in cross-section, about 2½ in wide at the top, 3½ in at the bottom and from 1¾ to 2 in thick. It is preferable to lay them at right-angles to the steel beams, so that they may be secured to the top flanges by metal clips, as in Fig. 16.

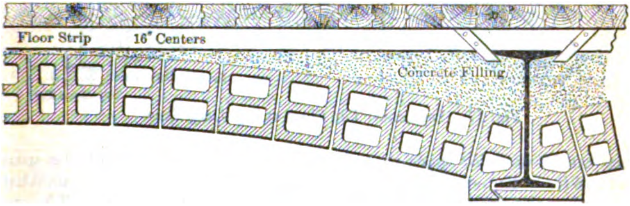

Fig. 16. Segmental Tile Floor-arch

Before the nailing-strips are laid, all piping and wiring which must go above or through the tile arches should be put in place. After the nailing-strips are in place the tops of the steel beams should be covered with a thin coat of Portland-cement-and-sand grout, applied with a brush. The spaces between the nailing-strips should be filled with a 1 : 8 or 1 : 10 cinder concrete, finished about ¼ in below the tops of the strips. Some architects claim better results with strips of rectangular section, with nails driven horizontally into the vertical sides to form the grip in the concrete. This method avoids the loosening of the strips and flooring from any shrinkage of the strips.

Tile Filling-Blocks. In cases where the tops of the tile arches are 2 in or more below the tops of the steel beams, hollow tile blocks are sometimes used for filling to the top of the beams, as in Fig. 26. These blocks are lighter than good concrete, but they do not strengthen the arches.

Cement Floors. If the floors are to be finished with cement, the cement and concrete should be at least 2½ in and preferably 3 in thick above the steel beams, and should be blocked out in sections of not over 6 ft square, with joints extending through the concrete. When practicable the joints in one direction should be over the beams.

Weather-Protection. Terra-cotta arches should always be protected against rain or snow, especially in freezing weather, as both the blocks and the mortar in the joints are injured by freezing. Porous terra-cotta, especially, may be utterly ruined by freezing when soaked with water.

Protection of Ceilings from Stains. "If plastered ceilings are to be used, the terra-cotta work should be protected against the smoke or soot from the hoisting engines. Stains are also quite liable to occur from the effects of iron in the clay, or from the cinders in the concrete over the arches, if the floor is allowed to become wet."* To prevent these stains several kinds of hydraulic paints have been used, some of which have proved very effective.

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* Freitag.

Segmental Tile Floor-Arches. "This form of arch is the strongest and cheapest. It is particularly adapted to warehouses, lofts, factories, sidewalks, or wherever great strength is required and a flat ceiling is not necessary. When a light, strong arch is required in deep beams and a flat ceiling is also demanded, this result can be obtained by using a metal-lath ceiling suspended below the beams."* These arches are usually formed by either 6 or 8-in hollow tiles, set on the SIDE-CONSTRUCTION principle and bonded endwise like a brick vault.

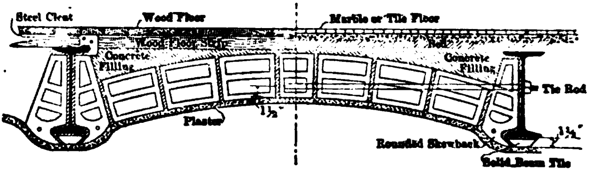

Fig. 17. Segmental Tile Floor-arch. Deep Skew

They can be used for spans up to 20 ft, but it is better to limit the span to about 16 ft. "END-CONSTRUCTION blocks may be used, but they are unsatisfactory, unless the arches are of uniform span and rise throughout. The rise of the SIDE-CONSTRUCTION arch can be varied by increasing the thickness of the upper or lower part of the mortar joint, but this cannot be done with the END-CONSTRUCTION method."*

Figs. 17 and 18 show typical forms of SEGMENTAL ARCHES. The WEIGHT of the arch tiles will run about 26 lb per sq ft for 6-in tile and 32 lb for 8-in tile. To these weights should be added the weight of concrete filling, flooring, plaster, etc.

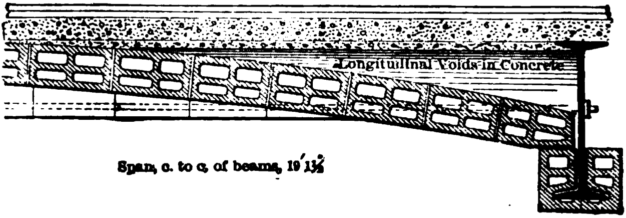
Longitudinal Voids in Concrete
Span, c. to c. of beams, 19' 1½"

Fig. 18. Segmental Tile Floor-arch. Deep Beam. Dropped Skew

Thickness of Webs. "For general use the WEBS of segment-tile should be ½ in thick for semiporous tile and ¾ in for porous tile. The SKEW-BACK should be at least ¾ in thick for the first-named material and 1 in for the second. For printing-establishments or any other building where a large amount of vibration occurs the webs of all tiles must be designed in proportionate thickness to the load they are required to carry." † These thicknesses apply to Chicago practice more particularly, where a stronger tile is produced than in the East. In New York City webs are generally ⅝ in thick for semiporous and 1 in for porous tiles.

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* Bevier, National Fire Proofing Company, New York City.
† E. A. Hoeppner.

Rise of Segmental Floor-Arches. The RISE of the soffit of the arch above the springing-line should be from one-tenth to one-eighth the span. The greater the rise the less will be the THRUST of the arch. No single-cell tiles should ever be used in any form of terra-cotta arch-construction.

Filling the Haunches. The HAUNCHES of SEGMENTAL ARCHES should be filled with good cement concrete leveled up to a point not less than 1 in above the CROWN of the arch. For short spans cinder-concrete filling may be used, but for wide spans it is better to use gravel concrete, as the concrete filling contributes to the strength of the arch at the haunches.

Tie-Rods. The THRUST of segmental arches is very considerable, so that it is important to provide TIE-RODS between the beams. A formula for determining the STRESS in the tie-rods and their diameter is given on page 871. To be most effective the tie-rods should be placed at the center of the skew. Placing the tie-rods in this manner, however, may cause them to project below the SOFFIT of the arch, giving an unsightly appearance to the ceiling. It is also more difficult to protect them when in this position. Occasionally the tie-rods are incased with special tiles, as in Fig. 19.

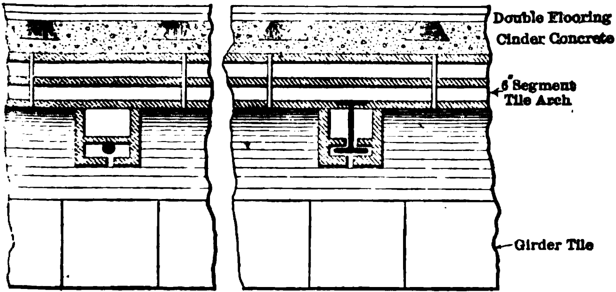

Fig. 19. Segmental Tile Floor-arches. Incased Tie-rods

Strength of Segmental Semiporous-Tile Floor-Arches. The SAFE LOADS per square foot on 6 and 8-in segmental arches, with side-construction, semiporous tile, a rise of one-eighth the span, webs and shells ⅝ in thick, and with a factor of safety of 7, as obtained from the tables of the National Fire Proofing Company are as follows:

Table V. Safe Loads for Segmental Semiporous-Tile Floor-Arches

Span, ft	6-inch arch, lb	8-inch arch, lb	Span, ft	6-inch arch, lb	8-inch arch, lb
4	1 103	1 318	11	402	480
5	878	1 049	12	370	442
6	735	883	13	340	407
7	630	735	14	317	379
8	554	662	15	296	353
9	490	585	16	278	331
10	443	529	....	....	....

These loads include the weight of the construction; so that to get the safe live load, all the dead load of arch-blocks, concrete fill, plastering, flooring, etc., must be deducted.

Side-Construction Tile Floor-Arches. By this term is understood the flat-tile arches in which the voids in the blocks run parallel with the beams, as shown in Fig. 20. One advantage of this arch over the end-construction is the BREAKING OF JOINTS that is effected in the setting of the blocks, by means of which the failure of a single block does not impair the strength of the arch beyond that block. The WEBS should not be less than ⅝ in thick. "RADIAL JOINTS are sometimes specified but should be avoided, as they incur needless expense in manufacture and endless confusion and delay in setting, without any compensating advantage."* In the SKEW-BACKS a web should always be provided across the block at the lower flange of the beam, as at this point comes the greatest pressure in this block. Arches have collapsed because of failure to provide this web. The DEPTH of the arch must be proportioned to the span between the beams and to the load to be carried. For ordinary loads, a safe rule is to make the depth of the block 1¼ in for each foot of span, plus the amount necessary for protection below the beams. SAFE LOADS for semiporous-tile arches, side-construction, with webs ⅝ in thick and a factor of safety of 7, as given by the National Fire Proofing Company, are shown in Table VI.

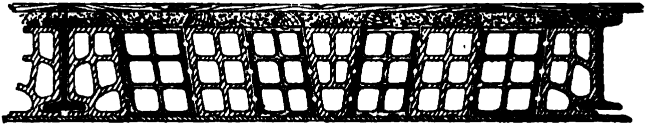

Fig. 20. Flat Tile Floor-arch. Side-construction

Table VI. Safe Loads for Semiporous, Side-Construction, Tile Floor-Arches

Depth of arch	6 in	7 in	8 in	9 in	10 in	12 in
Weight of arch per sq ft*	24 lb	26 lb	27 lb	29 lb	34 lb	37 lb
Span of arch, ft in	Strength of arch in pounds per square foot					
4 0	197	230	263	296	438	525
4 6	156	182	208	233	346	415
5 0	....	148	168	189	281	336
5 6	....	....	139	156	232	278
6 0	....	....	....	131	195	234
6 6	....	....	....	....	166	199
7 0	....	....	....	....	....	172

These loads represent the GROSS LOADS; so that for the SAFE LIVE LOADS the weight of the construction, including the arch-blocks, fill, flooring, plastering, etc., must be deducted. For blocks with thicker webs the loads may be increased proportionately. Where no loads are given in the table, the spans are considered excessive for the depth of block specified. The weights of arch given in the table are for the lightest blocks. If thicker webs are used, the weight of block must be taken proportionately greater.

End-Construction Flat Floor-Arches. In this construction the sides and voids of the individual blocks run at right-angles to the beams, so that the pressure on the blocks is endwise of the tile. It has been conclusively demonstrated that hollow tiles are much stronger in END-COMPRESSION than transversely. "The objection urged against this construction is that it is wasteful of mortar and difficult to get the edges of the blocks properly bedded. They do require slightly more mortar, but the second objection is not serious, for, if the blocks are cut to a proper bevel, the tighter they are set the stronger the arch."* The individual blocks in the END-CONSTRUCTION are commonly made rectangular in shape, advancing by 1 in from 6 to 15 in in depth. The length and width, also, of the blocks may be varied, but the standard size is 12 in for both dimensions. The number of partitions or webs in the blocks varies with the size of the blocks and also with the strength desired. The 6, 7 and 8-in blocks usually have two vertical partitions and one horizontal partition, or one vertical and one horizontal, for blocks 8 in wide. The 10 and 12-in arches may have either one or two horizontal partitions. Arch-blocks over 12 in deep should always have at least two horizontal partitions. In the strongest blocks the voids are about 3 in square. "The arch-blocks must be set end to end in straight courses from beam to beam, and cannot be set breaking joints, as in the SIDE-CONSTRUCTION method."* So that if one block fails, the rest of the arch, for the width of that block, is dependent for its strength on the adhesion of the individual blocks to those adjoining.

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* Bevier, National Fire Proofing Company, New York City.

Thickness of Web. This should be at least ¾ in for porous and ½ in for semiporous tiling. The thicker the webs the greater will be the strength and fire-resistance of the arch. The end-joints are always beveled, as in Figs. 21 and 22, the ends being parallel; thus all the intermediate blocks are made with the same die.

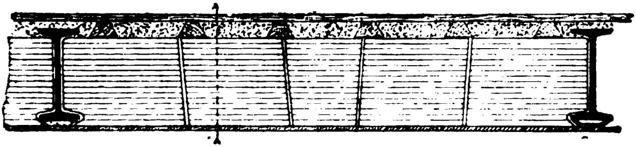

Fig. 21. Flat Tile Floor-arch. End-construction

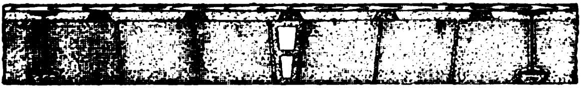

Fig. 22. Flat Tile Floor-arch. End-construction

Form of Skew-backs. An end-construction arch may have SKEW-BACKS formed of the same blocks, with notches in the ends of the blocks to fit over the bottom flanges of the beams, as in Fig. 21. It is generally considered that the end-construction skew-back is much stronger than the side-construction skew-back but on account of the large amount of mortar lost in the voids and the difficulty of obtaining an even bearing with end-construction skew-backs, and, also, because of the greater facility with which the side-construction skew-backs can be used, contractors generally prefer to use the latter; and this has given rise to the COMBINATION-ARCH, shown in Fig. 23. But a more important reason for using side-construction skew-backs with end-construction arches, is the better protection against fire that they afford to the beam or girder. To develop the necessary strength, side-construction skew-backs should have a large sectional area and a sufficient number of partitions, following, approximately, the lines of thrust. With any form of skew-back the recess for the beam-flange should be of ample width, so that when the tiles are set the protecting flanges on the skew-backs will not touch the bottom of the beams, but will be at least ¼ in below them. Many varieties of side-construction skew-backs are made to meet all possible conditions.

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* Bevier.

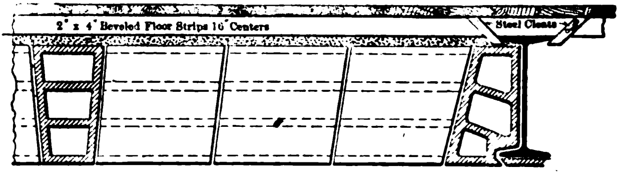

Fig. 23. Flat Tile Floor-arch. Combination End and Side-construction

Keys. Both end-construction and side-construction KEYS are used with end-construction arches, the choice of the key depending principally upon its length. If the span of the arch is such that the standard intermediate blocks require a key 6 in or more in width, the END-METHOD KEY is used, as in Fig. 21; but if the space for the key is small, a SIDE-METHOD KEY, such as shown in Figs. 22 and 23, is used. As the key is almost entirely in compression, a side-construction key 6 in or less in width will usually give all the strength required, provided that the horizontal webs are in the same line with those in the intermediate blocks. E. V. Johnson, western manager of the National Fire Proofing Company, says: "We prefer the use of an end-construction key in all cases where possible. Our custom is to use side-construction keys for spaces of 6 in and under, and end-construction keys for larger spaces. When using the latter keys we insert a ⅞-in fire-clay slab between the ends of the tile."

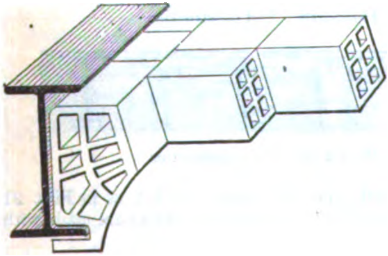

Fig. 24. Raised Side-construction Skew for End-construction Tile Floor-arch

Raised Skew-Backs. Where flat arches are sprung between 18, 20 or 24-in beams it is necessary either to use a RAISED SKEW-BACK or else to have a large space above the top of the tile arches which must be filled in some way. Raised skew-backs are preferable to a hollow space above the tiles and cheaper than concrete filling. They are often used for roof-arches, because for that purpose it is seldom necessary to make the arches as deep as the beams, while the top must be about on a level with the beams. Raised skew-backs are almost always made on the side-construction principle. Figs. 24 and 25 show typical forms of raised skew-backs for end-construction arches.

Flat Versus Paneled Ceilings. In connection with the raising of the arches above the bottom of the beams or girders, J. K. Freitag calls attention to the advantages of FLAT CEILINGS, as follows: "Flat, unbroken ceilings are always to be preferred to any type of terra-cotta arch which may require a paneled effect due to the projection of the girders or beams below the main ceiling-line." A perfectly flat ceiling reflects more light, makes a better-lighted room and deflects the heat. Paneling forms pockets for the retention of heat and flame and greatly increases the exposed area.

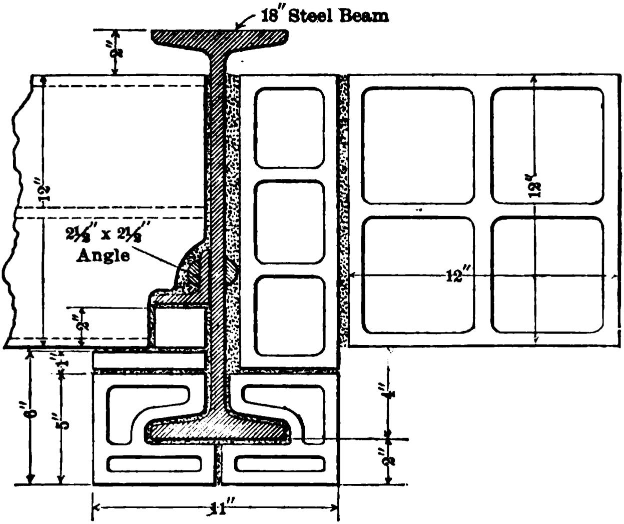

Fig. 25. Raised Tile Floor-arch and Girder-protection

Floor-Arches and Beams of the Same Depth. A deep block makes a much stronger floor than a shallower one, and for the same depth of beams a lighter and cheaper floor. A 12-in arch weighs less per square foot than a 10-in arch with 2 in of concrete filling; and it costs less.

Depth, Span and Weight. The MAXIMUM SPANS for different depths and the AVERAGE WEIGHTS per square foot of this type of arch, set in place, are as follows:

Table VII. Maximum Spans for Flat Tile Floor-Arches of Different Depths and Weights

Depth of arch, in	Maximum span, ft in	Weight per sq ft, lb
6	4 6	29
8	5 6	31
9	6 0	32
10	6 6	33
12	8 0	39
15	9 0	46
16	10 0	50

The weights per square foot, as given by different manufacturers, vary greatly, due, no doubt, to the character of the material used and to the thickness of the webs.

The DEPTH OF ARCH most frequently used is 10 in, the girders being spaced to use 10-in I beams for joists spaced from 5 to 6 ft apart. As a rule the depth of the arch should be about equal to the depth of the beam, as it is just about as cheap and much better construction to use deeper tiles and less concrete filling.

Safe Loads for End-Construction Tile Floor-Arches. The STRENGTH of flat arches of hollow tile depends upon the CRUSHING RESISTANCE of the material, the sectional area per linear foot of arch, the depth and the span. For these reasons it is impossible to give a table for strength which applies to all arches. Table VIII is condensed from two tables prepared by H. L. Hinton, who has gone very elaborately into the strength of tile arches, in the handbook prepared by him for the National Fire Proofing Company. The values given for END-CONSTRUCTION arches are based upon arch-blocks of the cross-sectional areas, per foot, given in the second horizontal line of the table, and are intended to have a FACTOR OF SAFETY of 7, with the weight of the tile only, deducted. Mr. Hinton says: "The SAFE LOADS as they stand in the table afford a safe general statement of SAFE LOADS FOR ALL SECTIONS, since they represent specifically a light section in the case of each arch."

Table VIII. Safe Loads for End-Construction Tile Floor-arches.*

Semiporous material of sectional area per linear foot, as given in the second line
The loads are in pounds per square foot of floor

Depth of arch in inches	6	7	8	9	10	12	15
Areas, sq in	310	340	370	400	430	490	580
Spans, ft in	lb	lb	lb	lb	lb	lb	lb
4 6	196	254	319	391	470	648	968
5 0	155	202	254	312	376	519	777
5 6	......	163	206	254	306	424	636
6 0	......	......	170	209	253	352	529
6 6	......	......	141	175	212	295	446
7 0	......	......	......	147	179	251	380
7 6	......	......	......	......	153	215	326
8 0	......	......	......	......	......	185	282

* This table is condensed from two tables prepared by H. L. Hinton.

Patented End-Construction Tile Floor-Arches. Figs. 26 and 27 show two variations of a type of arch invented and patented by E. V. Johnson when manager of the Pioneer Company, Chicago, Ill. The right to manufacture and use this arch, in certain territory, was granted to the Pioneer Company; also to Henry Maurer & Son, New York City, and to a company in Haydenville, Ohio. The original shape of the arch-tile is illustrated in Fig.

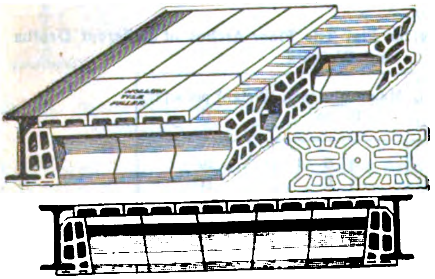

Fig. 26. Excelsior End-construction Tile Floor-arch. Side-skew

27 and this shape is still used by the Pioneer Company. Henry Maurer & Son have modified the shape to that shown in Fig. 26, as they consider that this shape gives a stronger and slightly heavier arch than one of the original shape. The advantages of this arch are the reduction in weight for an equal strength, and the clear space of 5 in between the tiles, which avoids the cutting of the blocks for the tie-rods. This arch can be adapted to any span up to 10 ft by using blocks of suitable depth. The LIMIT OF SPAN, WEIGHT PER SQUARE FOOT and SAFE LOAD of the Excelsior arch (Fig. 26) is given by Maurer & Son as follows:

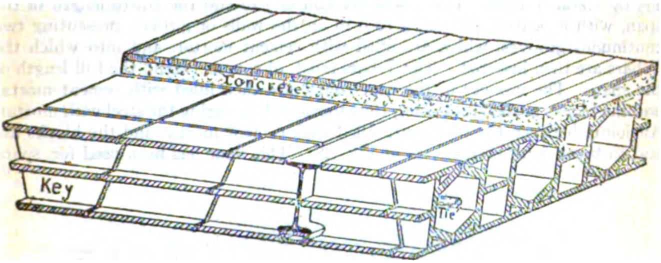

Fig. 27. Johnson End-construction Tile Floor-arch. Original Form

Table IX. Maximum Spans for Excelsior Tile Floor-Arches

Depth of arch, in	Limit of span, ft	Weight per sq ft, lb	Safe load per sq ft, lb
8	5 to 6	27	300
9	6 to 7	29	350
10	7 to 8	33	300
12	8 to 9	38	350

The Pioneer Company has made arch-blocks as deep as 20 in and as heavy as 56 lb per sq ft. This company and Henry Maurer & Son use semiporous material for the arch-blocks. It should be noticed that the arch made by the former has an END-CONSTRUCTION SKEW-BACK, while the latter uses a SIDE-CONSTRUCTION SKEW-BACK. The Pioneer Company formerly used the side-construction skew-back, but found that when arches of this type were tested to destruction the skew-backs were almost invariably the parts which failed; hence their adoption of the end-construction skew-back. Henry Maurer & Son, however, have tested, without failure, Excelsior arches of 8 and 10-ft spans, and with skew-backs as shown by them, with loads of over 1 000 lb per sq ft. These arches have been extensively used in both eastern and western cities.

Reinforced-Tile Floor-Arches. In order to obtain a wide-span flat arch or to obtain a reduced depth of arch-block for the shorter spans, the manufacturers of terra-cotta have applied to their floor-construction the principle of REINFORCEMENT WITH METAL, which is the basis of reinforced-concrete construction. Compared with reinforced concrete, even when cinders are used for the aggregate, the greater depth and hollow construction of these REINFORCED-TILE ARCHES secure for them greater strength per square foot for the same weight of construction. On the other hand, however, they are undoubtedly more expensive than cinder-concrete floor-construction, because of the material used and the increased height of the building due to thicker floors.

The Herculean Arch.* These floor-arches are built of semiporous terra-cotta blocks, 12 by 12 in on top and varying from 6 to 12 in in depth, according to the span and load. In the sides of the blocks are grooves to receive 1½ by 1½ by 3/16-in T bars. The blocks are laid end to end the entire length of the span, with a bearing of from 4 to 6 in on the walls or girders, presenting two continuous grooves, which are filled with cement mortar, and into which the T bars are then inserted. The T bars must, of course, extend the full length of the span. The grooves in the next course are then filled with cement mortar and the blocks pushed into place, thus thoroughly covering the steel with mortar. All joints between the blocks are filled with cement mortar and the blocks are laid to break joint endwise, as in Fig. 28. This floor has been used for spans varying from 19 to 23 ft. The WEIGHT per square foot given for the terra-cotta blocks and steel T bars is 26 lb for blocks 6 in deep, 33 lb for 8-in blocks, 42 lb for 10-in blocks and 51 lb for 12-in blocks. The manufacturers estimate the SAFE LOADS for this construction as follows:

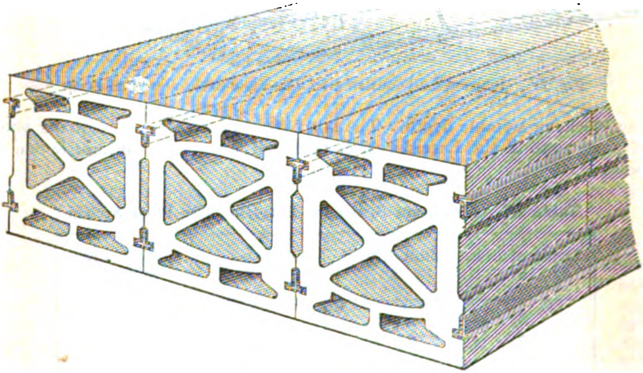

Fig. 28. Herculean Reinforced, Tile Floor-arch

For a 12-in arch with a 20-ft span, 400 lb per sq ft.
For a 10-in arch with a 16-ft span, 400 lb per sq ft.
For a 8-in arch with a 12-ft span, 150 lb per sq ft.

The CHIEF ADVANTAGE of this construction is said to be its low cost as compared with the cost of systems equally fire-proof and requiring steel beams every 6 or 8 ft. It is particularly well adapted to buildings with masonry walls and partitions, as in such buildings little or no structural steel is required. The floor-construction affords, also, an unusually smooth undersurface, thereby reducing the cost of plastering. No TIE-RODS are required for this floor.

The Johnson Long-Span Flat Floor-Construction. This REINFORCED-TILE FLOOR was invented by E. V. Johnson, and is now controlled and erected by the National Fire Proofing Company. Its general construction is as follows:

* Patented and manufactured by Henry Maurer & Son, 1898 and 1900.

A temporary flat centering is first erected, and over this is spread a layer of rich Portland-cement mortar about ¾ in thick. On top of this mortar is laid a WOVEN FABRIC containing steel rods varying from ¼ to ½ in in diameter, according to the span, and spaced from 2 to 8 in, center to center. Another layer of the same mortar is then spread on top and hollow tiles, from 3 to 12 in in depth, according to the span, are then set in the mortar and laid so as to BREAK JOINT and to form continuous rows from one support to the other. A layer of concrete, also, about 2 in thick, is usually spread on top of the tiles. Fig. 29 shows the general method of construction of this system, but without the rods, which are inserted in place as the fabric is used. For short spans the fabric can be used without the rods. This system differs from the flat concrete system only in the substitution of hollow tiles for the concrete in the upper portion of the slabs, the strength of the floor depending upon the REINFORCEMENT and the ADHESION of the cement mortar to the steel and tiles. As the tiles are covered both on the bottom and top with concrete, the FIREPROOFING PROPERTY, also, is measured by the resistance of the concrete and not by that of the tiles. Tests have shown that the ADHESION of the mortar is perfect and that it will stand a high temperature without injury. This construction can be used for any span up to 25 ft, the most ADVANTAGEOUS SPAN being about 16 ft. The WEIGHT per square foot, including the fabric and the cement on the bottom and in the joints, but not on top of the tile, is as follows:

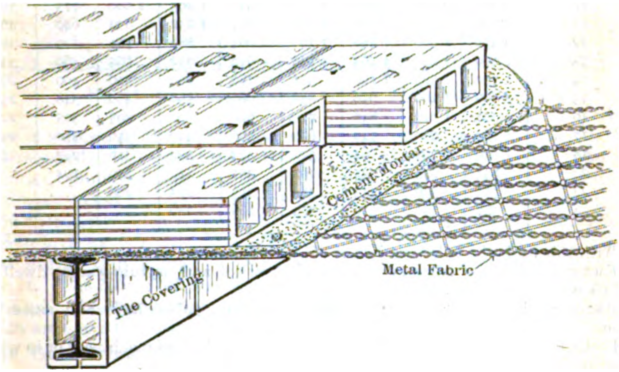

Fig. 29. Johnson Reinforced, Tile Floor-arch

Depth of tile, inches	12	10	9	8	7	6	5	4
Weight per square foot, in pounds	60	55	45	42	37	34	26	24

The concrete above the tile should be figured at 12 lb per sq ft for each inch in thickness. The STRENGTH of the floor, with 1 in of 1 : 3 Portland-cement mortar on top of the tiles, is given as follows:

Table X. Ultimate Strength of the Johnson Floor-Construction

Span in feet	Thickness of tiles in inches								
	12	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3
	Ultimate strength in pounds per square foot								
10	3 375	2 580	2 140	1 850	1 525	1 265	1 000	775	560
11	2 800	2 340	1 780	1 536	1 264	1 052	832	640	464
12	2 350	1 800	1 480	1 280	1 064	880	700	540	390
13	2 000	1 540	1 265	1 100	910	752	595	460	334
14	1 730	1 325	1 100	950	780	650	510	400	290
15	1 500	1 160	950	830	680	590	450	348	250
16	1 320	1 010	840	720	600	500	395	305	220
17	1 180	900	740	640	578	440	350	270	194
18	1 020	795	664	570	473	392	310	242	174
20	844	645	535	462	381	314	250	194	.....
22	700	536	445	384	316	263	208	.....	.....
24	587	450	370	320	266	220	.....	.....	.....

With this table the following factors of safety should be used:

Factor 4. Floors of offices, school-rooms, hospital and asylum-wards, dwellings and roofs.

Factor 5. Floors of stores, warehouses, theaters, public halls and assembly-rooms.

Factor 6. Floors of buildings in which there is vibration of machinery or in which there are loads causing sudden impact.

A section of this floor, 16 ft square, supported on walls around the four sides, and loaded over its entire area with a total uniformly distributed load of 733 lb per sq ft, showed a DEFLECTION of ¼ in, full; and with a load of 350 lb per sq ft, a DEFLECTION of 1/16 in, scant. The ADVANTAGES of this system are the same as noted for all LONG-SPAN FLAT SYSTEMS. It can be used to special advantage for roofs and for buildings so divided by masonry partitions that the spans do not exceed 25 ft. For such buildings very little, if any, structural steel is required.

The New York Reinforced-Tile Floor-Arch. This arch (Fig. 30) was designed by P. H. Bevier, of the New York City branch of the National Fire Proofing Company, for use "when a light and cheap but strong floor construction with a flat ceiling is required, and is particularly adapted to wide spans

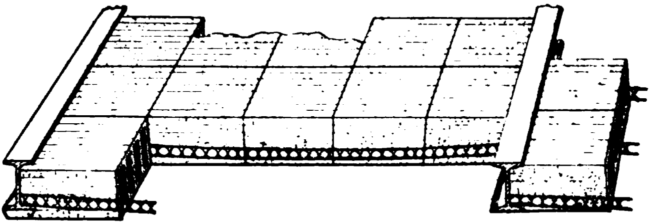

Fig. 30. New York Reinforced, Tile Floor-arch

in shallow beams. When light floor construction with deep beams is necessary it can be secured by setting the blocks level with the tops of the beams and using a flat metal lath ceiling, or by omitting the ceiling a panel effect is obtained. When shallow beams are used the blocks are set level and 1 in below the bottom of the beams. Light cinder concrete or dry cinders is used to level up to the top of the beams. The WIRE TRUSS REINFORCEMENT, Fig. 31, used in this system is shipped to the building in reels, and is cut to proper lengths on the job as required. It is embedded in Portland cement mortar between the blocks, so that it is protected both against rust and fire. The open-work construction of the WIRE TRUSS enables the mortar to flow freely all about it and the joint can be thoroughly filled between the blocks and the wire perfectly embedded. The 6-in arch for 6-ft span, and 8-in arch for 7-ft 6-in span, have been tested by the Bureau of Buildings, of New York, and accepted for live load of 150 lb per sq ft. The New York arch has been used in a number of large buildings in New York. Load tests were made to determine the ULTIMATE STRENGTH of the 6-in arch on a 6-ft span, and it was found to be 1 600 lb per sq ft."

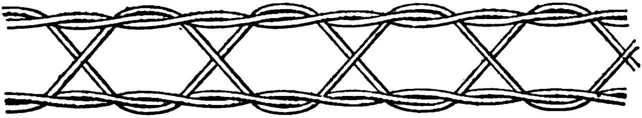

Fig. 31. · Wire Reinforcement for New York Floor-arch

The Guastavino Tile-Arch System. This is a method devised by R. Guastavino of New York and Boston, of constructing floors, partitions, staircases, etc., by means of THIN TILES, 1 in thick, about 6 in wide and from 12 to 24 in long, all bonded together in Portland-cement mortar so as to make one solid mass. The floors are built by spanning the spaces between the girders with single arches, vaults, or domes, constructed of two, three, or more thicknesses of 1-in tiles, the number of thicknesses depending upon the dimensions of the arches or vaults. In its best application, steel is used in tension only in tie-members; and in place of steel girders, tile girders are constructed of the same material. Wherever steel is used it is embedded in the masonry construction.

One of the earliest notable buildings in which this system was used is the Boston Public Library Building, completed in 1895. Some of the later important constructions are the Cathedral of St. John the Divine, New York City; the Minnesota State Capitol Building, St. Paul, Minn.; the Girard Trust Company's Building, Philadelphia; the Chicago and Northwestern Railway terminal station, Chicago; the Pennsylvania and the New York Central Railroad terminal stations, New York City; and the Hall of Fame, University of New York, New York City.

An illustration of the wide spans that can be safely used with this system of construction is seen in the Cathedral of St. John the Divine in New York City. The floor above the crypt, measuring 56 by 60 ft, with no interior supports, and designed to carry a safe load of 400 lb per sq ft, was constructed on this principle. Wherever a VAULTED CEILING is desired this form of construction seems to be well adapted for use. Floors built in this way have been tested under the supervision of the New York City Building Department up to 3 700 lb per sq ft, on spans of 10 ft. When used between I beams the only steel beams required are those spanning from column to column. Architects contemplating the use of this system of construction are advised to consult the R. Guastavino

Company before letting any contracts. Wherever vaulted ceilings are required this construction should be at least as cheap as any other form of equally fire-proof construction, and it is often cheaper. One particular advantage of the system is that frequently the soffit-course of tile is of PRESSED or GLAZED MATERIAL, making a most effective and permanent finish, as in the case of the City Hall station of the New York City subway. This station was constructed for very heavy loads and without the use of steel.

Concrete Floors. Concrete used in fire-proof floors may be either PLAIN or REINFORCED. Without reinforcement its use is generally practicable for very short spans only, on account of its weight. In this chapter it is considered only as a FLOOR-FILLING between steel beams. Chapter XXIV is devoted to a discussion of the principles governing the design and use of reinforced concrete.

Advantages of Reinforced Concrete for Floor-Construction. Although many ADVANTAGES are claimed for reinforced concrete over the tile-systems, the principal advantage is that of economy, taking into account the cost of both the steel framework and the filling between. The other important advantages are less weight per square foot of floor (usually but not always the case), adaptability to irregular framing and rapidity of construction. Except in the immediate locality of the tile-factories, fire-proof floors of concrete can usually be placed at less expense than is incurred in setting floors of hollow tile; and when the spans permit the use of cinder concrete, the concrete floors are lighter than those of the tile, when both floors have the same strength. Some of the long-span tile-systems, on the other hand, are much lighter than many of the concrete floors that are now being built. The materials entering into the construction of reinforced-concrete floors are readily obtained in almost any locality, no specially prepared material is required, except perhaps in a few special forms of reinforcement, and the work can be done almost entirely by unskilled labor. Less capital is required for concrete work than for the tile-constructions, and no material need be carried in stock during an idle period, except tools, mixing-machines, old centering, etc. That the above advantages are real is sufficiently proved by the immense amount of reinforced concrete now under construction throughout the world. Wherever a floor is to have a finished, cement surface, reinforced-concrete constructions are considerably cheaper than any tile-system, because in the former, the entire concrete is used to give strength, while with the flat-tile arches it merely increases the dead weight.

Disadvantages of Reinforced Concrete for Floor-Construction. One decided DISADVANTAGE connected with concrete floor-construction is the interference in a large measure with the progress of other parts of the work. During its installation, there is a constant dripping from the floor, making it sometimes impossible to continue other lines of work. After the completion of the floors a long time is required, depending upon the weather, for the drying out, before interior finishing can proceed.

Composition of the Concrete. The materials used for concrete are discussed on pages 240 to 241 and on page 817. Portland cement, only, should be used in any floor-construction. For most reinforced-concrete floors, having a span between the steel beams of 8 ft or less, CINDER CONCRETE is generally used for the reason that concrete mixed with cinders is much lighter than that mixed with broken stone or gravel. The usual PROPORTIONS OF CINDER CONCRETE are one of cement to two of sand and five or six of cinders. For a first-class concrete the cinders must be screened through a mesh not larger than ¾ in, and only hard-coal cinders should be used. Good cinders may sometimes be obtained from power-plants using soft coal, but they must be well screened and free from ash. Concrete mixed with common ashes, a mixture occasionally used, has little strength and is totally unreliable. For all spans exceeding 8 ft, either GRAVEL OR BROKEN ROCK should be used, and these should be mixed with one part cement to two of clean, sharp sand and four of stone or gravel. The WEIGHT OF CINDER CONCRETE will vary from 80 to 110 lb per sq ft, depending upon the coarseness of the material, the quantity of sand and the amount of tamping. For ordinary purposes a 1 : 2 : 5 cinder concrete should be used, weighing 96 lb per cu ft, or 8 lb per sq ft per inch of thickness.

Forms of Reinforcement. While steel in small sections is used almost entirely for the reinforcement, there is a great variety in the shape and character of the metal employed. Different FORMS OF REINFORCEMENT are described and discussed in Chapter XXIV. All of them may be used, and most of them are now being used in floor-construction. In addition to those forms discussed there, others that are not readily adapted to beam-construction are used in floor-construction. Such are the METAL FABRICS described farther on under the different types of construction. The proper position for the reinforcement in a floor-construction is that in which it will take the TENSIONAL STRESSES, that is, in floor-slabs, near the lower surface. The most logical form is that of a ROD OR BAR. A greater number of small rods or bars is preferable to a smaller number of larger ones, because the proportion of the AREA OF ADHESION between steel and concrete to the SECTIONAL AREA OF STEEL is greater in the former case. This result is apparently attained in systems in which wire fabrics are used. But the disadvantage in the use of the smaller reinforcement is the greater possibility of CORROSION and consequent failure of the construction. There is a further disadvantage in the use of wire fabrics; they are easily displaced in the process of placing of concrete, either getting too low and becoming exposed to fire or corrosion, or getting too high with a corresponding weakening of the floor. Another detail that must be remembered when using metal fabric is that the mesh must be large enough to allow a good BOND to be formed between the concrete above and below it. Reinforcements in the form of bars set vertically in the concrete have a tendency to SHEAR through slabs which are under heavy loads. The best and most LOGICAL REINFORCEMENT for fire-proof floors consists of from ½ to ¾-in round or square rods, either plain or deformed, spaced at varying distances to suit the spans and loads.

Necessity for Cross-Bars. Where wire strands or bars are used for reinforcement it is essential to have CROSS-BARS as well as TRANSVERSE TENSION-BARS, because, when the loads are heavy and concentrated, or when a heavy body falls upon a slab the concrete will crack between the carrying bars. This can be readily demonstrated by testing with a drop-test a floor-slab that has no cross-bars. When the load is UNIFORMLY DISTRIBUTED the cross-bars are not brought into play; floor-loads, however, are more often CONCENTRATED than UNIFORMLY DISTRIBUTED.

Segmental Concrete Floor-Arches. For heavy warehouse-floors the ARCHED SYSTEMS are preferable to the FLAT SYSTEMS, because in the former the concrete is used in its strongest form, and less reinforcement is required. In warehouses, also, a ceiling formed of a series of arches is not objectionable. For spans between floor-beams of 5 ft or less, a 1 : 6 gravel-concrete arch, 3 in thick at crown and without any reinforcement, should sustain, without cracking, a distributed load of 1 500 lb per sq ft. For spans exceeding 5 ft, the celebrated Austrian experiments (1891–1892) seem to show that the reinforcing of concrete with small I beams adds greatly to the strength of the arch; but that small rods or netting are not of sufficient advantage to warrant the additional expense.* Tests made on arches of 8-ft span gave the following results:

A concrete arch, 3⅜ in thick, 9½ in rise, broke at 1 130 lb per sq ft. A Monier arch (wire netting), $1\frac{15}{16}$ in thick, 10¼ in rise, or about one-half the thickness of the concrete arch, failed at 1 217 lb per sq ft. A brick arch, 5½ in thick, 9.85 in rise, failed at 885 lb per sq ft. A hollow-brick arch, $3\frac{15}{16}$ in thick, $5\frac{15}{16}$ in rise, failed at 401 lb per sq ft. A concrete arch, 13-ft span, $3\frac{15}{16}$ in thick, 15⅞ in rise, failed at 812 lb per sq ft. A Melan arch, 3½ in thick, 11.4 in rise, broke at 3 360 lb per sq ft. The Melan arch had I beams 3½ in deep, spaced 40 in apart. The structure was one year old when tested.

While there are several patented arched-floor systems, a plain concrete arch can be built by any one; and if reinforcing is desired for wide spans, plain rods or bars, small tees or channels, and various forms of netting may be used without infringing on any patents. The principal advantages of the patented arch-systems lie in the matter of economy in putting the arches in place. The concrete arch, considered as a monolithic construction, if built of stone concrete, is superior to the brick arch. The cinder-concrete arch is inferior only in point of strength. Such an arch should be at least 4 in deep at the crown, and the rise should be not less than one-eighth the span. The strength of such an arch for ordinary cinder concrete is about the same as that of a 6-in segmental-tile arch of the same span, as given in Table V. All arched systems, whether of concrete or tile, require tie-rods between the beams to take up the thrust of the arches. (See page 871.)

The Roebling Arch Floor-System. This system is now so widely known that it requires but a brief description. It has been used in many of the best buildings in the Eastern States and has proved one of the strongest floor-systems in use; and when the bottoms of the steel beams are protected, as in Type 2 (Fig. 33), it is unquestionably first-class fire-proof construction. The principal types of this kind of floor-construction are shown in Figs. 32 and 33, Type 1 being illustrated in Fig. 32 and Type 2 in Fig. 33. There is, also, a Type 3 which is similar to Type 2; but it has a suspended flat ceiling in addition, which may be adjusted at any level below the floor-beams to admit any necessary piping, etc. The distinctive feature of this system is the permanent wire centering which is always erected in advance of the concreting, thus enabling

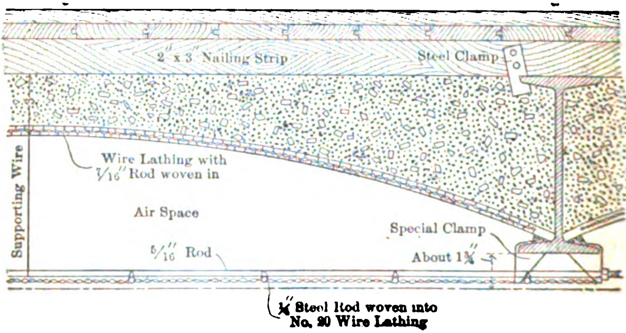

Fig. 32. Roebling Segmental Concrete Floor-arch. Type 1

the work to progress continuously. The centering is made of the proper size and form at the factory, so that it is readily placed in position. This centering has advantages, aside from the saving over wooden centers, and the rapidity with which it can be put in place. It allows the superfluous water to drip out of the concrete as soon as it is in position and it also forms a valuable protection from falling for the workmen, as it is sufficiently strong in itself to sustain a considerable load. Sections of the Roebling-arch floor have, been tested without failure with loads of from 1 400 to 4 100 lb per sq ft. Wide spans require a corresponding depth at the haunches, as the clear rise of the arch for Types 1, 2 and 3 should be 1½ in per ft of span. In an 18-ft span, the clear rise above the beam-flange was 16 in. For a 14-ft span between 18-in beams, the rise would be 14 in.

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* See Architecture and Building, Jan. 4, 1896.

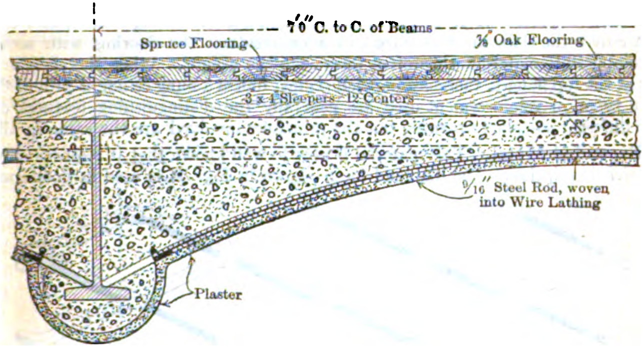

7' 0" C. to C. of Beams
Spruce Flooring
⅞" Oak Flooring
3 x 4 Sleepers 12 Centers
9/16" Steel Rod, woven into Wire Lathing
Plaster

Fig. 33. Roebling Segmental Concrete Floor-arch. Type 2

The following table, prepared by the Roebling Construction Company, gives the weight per square foot for different spans:

Table XI. Weight per Square Foot of the Roebling Floor-Arches

Height of concrete above underside of floor-beams, in	Maximum spacing of steel floor-beams (independently of size of beams), ft in	Thickness of crown at center of arch, in	Weight per sq ft including only concrete and wire, lb
8	4 0	3	33
9	4 6	3	34
10	5 0	3	36
12	6 0	3	41
15	7 6	3	47

The weights given in the table are for concrete to the level indicated in the first column, with a 3-in crown and for all wire construction, including arch-wire for floors and lathing for ceilings.

Flat Reinforced Floors. These floors consist of slabs of concrete, varying in thickness according to the span and load, constructed between the steel floor-beams and reinforced near the lower surface with steel in one of the shapes referred to on page 845, and further described under each system. For ordinary loads the thickness of the slab should be at least ⅜ in for each foot of span, with a minimum thickness of 3½ in. Thinner slabs have been used, but the thickness should be carefully considered for each particular case. The floor-slabs are not usually of the same depth as the beams supporting them. The position of the slabs, therefore, determines the character of the ceiling. When the bottom of the slabs is placed at or below the lower flanges, a flat ceiling results, and the space over the slabs must be filled to the underside of the flooring, with some incombustible material, thus often increasing the weight. When the slabs are set at the top flanges, there is a paneled ceiling, unless a hung ceiling is provided. The types of reinforcement used are generally the distinguishing features of the different so-called SYSTEMS, but the principles involved are the same in all.

Expanded Metal. This material is now so well known that it requires only a brief description. The diamond mesh shown in Fig. 34 is used in floor-construction. For this purpose the 3-in mesh is used, the size of the mesh being designated by the width of the diamond-shaped spaces. It comes in sheets 8 or 12 ft long, and from 3 to 6 ft wide, according to the width of the mesh. It is made from a soft, tough steel of fine texture, varying in thickness from No. 13 to No. 6, Stubbs gauge. When used between I beams, without other reinforcement, the spans usually vary from 6 to 8 ft, although panels 12 ft wide between beams have been constructed.

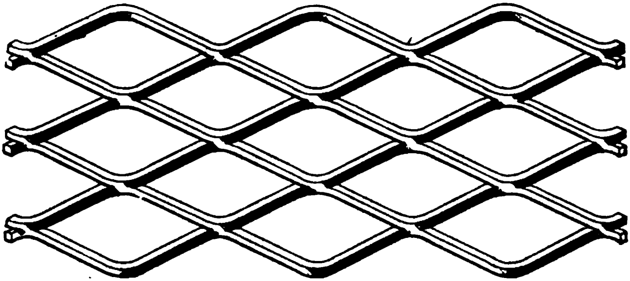


Fig. 34. Expanded Metal, Diamond Mesh

Concrete and Expanded-Metal Floor-Construction. Of the numerous styles of floor-construction possible with expanded-metal reinforcement, the type shown in Fig. 35 is generally used and recommended. At the right hand of the figure is shown the construction when there are steel beams and at the left hand when there are reinforced-concrete beams. The advantages claimed for expanded metal as a reinforcement are: a better arrangement in the concrete than is possible with equal amount of material in any other form; great efficiency in the carrying of concentrated loads, due to the obliquity of the strands; a uniform distribution of small sections at frequent intervals, pref-

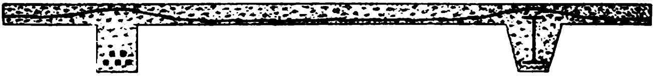


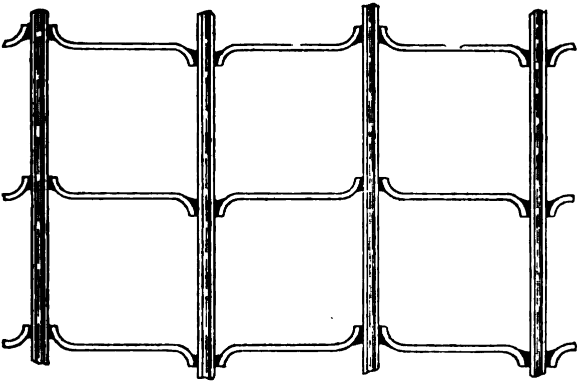
Fig. 35. Concrete Floor-construction. Expanded-metal Reinforcement

erable to larger sections at greater intervals; an increased ultimate strength and high elastic limit, due to the method of manufacture, thus combining the advantages of a low-carbon steel with a high ultimate strength; and a mechanical bond with the surrounding concrete. The standard sizes offered by the Consolidated Expanded Metal Companies and the Northwestern Expanded Metal Company are in accordance with a decimal variation in cross-section, thus: 0.25, 0.30, 0.35, 0.40, etc., sq in per ft of width. The designations of the sizes indicate the cross-sectional areas per foot of width, thus: 3-9-20 denotes a 3-in mesh, No. 9 gauge plate and a cross-sectional area of 0.20 sq in per ft of width. The Youngstown Iron & Steel Company and the General Fireproofing Company offer from eight to ten sizes of expanded metal with a range sufficient to take care of the needs of concrete-floor designs.

Table XII. Properties of Rib-Metal

Size-number	Width of sheet in	Area of metal per foot of width sq in
2	16	0.54
3	24	0.36
4	32	0.27
5	40	0.216
6	48	0.18
7	56	0.154
8	64	0.135

Rib-Metal. The Trussed Concrete Steel Company of Detroit, Mich., is manufacturing a steel reinforcement for concrete floors consisting of a series of straight ribs or main tension-members rigidly connected by light cross-ties expanded from the same sheet of metal in the form of a mesh. (Fig. 36.) It



Area of rib, 0.09 sq in
Ribs spaced 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 in

Fig. 36. Rib-metal Reinforcement for Concrete Floors

is manufactured from medium open-hearth steel in seven sizes of mesh, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 in, and in lengths up to 18 ft. It is supplied in either flat or curved sheets and longer lengths and special sizes of mesh can be provided. The width of sheet is governed by the size of mesh, there being nine bars or ribs in each sheet.

Welded-Metal Fabric. The Clinton Wire Cloth Company manufactures a welded fabric or mesh which has been extensively used in the United States as a reinforcement for concrete construction of all kinds. Fig. 37 shows the general style of the fabric, the meshes and wires of which can be varied indefinitely, upwards from a 1-in mesh. The advantage claimed for this fabric as a reinforcement for slab-construction is that the carrying wires may be varied, both in size and spacing, to give the necessary area for any given weight and span, and the distributing or cross-wires, also, may be varied in the same way. The direction of the wires coincides with the LINE OF STRESS, so that there is no tendency to distort the rectangle of the mesh. The cross-wires, being welded to the carrying wires, are rigidly held in place and prevent the latter from slipping in the concrete. The claim is made that the elongation that takes place in the carrying wire under the stress of heavy loading, is divided along the carrying wire as often as the cross-wires occur, instead of being concentrated at one point as is the case with loose rods or wires. In the meshes commonly used the carrying wires vary from No. 10 to No. 3 in size (Washburn & Moen gauge), and are spaced from 1 to 4 in on centers; while the distributing wires vary from No. 11 to No. 6 in size, and are spaced from 3 to 12 in on centers. Welded metal is manufactured in long rolls, and by its use, all joints and laps are avoided. A floor can be made with a continuous metallic bond from wall to wall, that is, when the mesh is laid over the tops of the steel beams. The width of the rolls varies from 48 to 86 in.

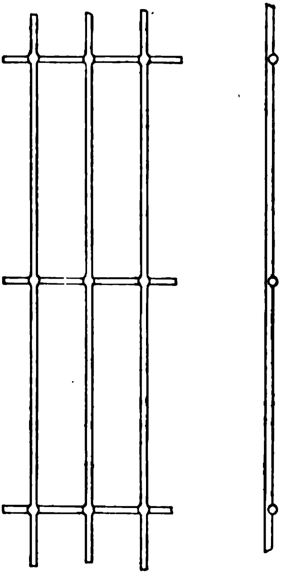


Fig. 37. Welded-metal Fabric. Clinton Wire Cloth

Lock-Woven Fabric. This fabric* is made up in a rectangular mesh, the usual spacing of the longitudinal wires being 3 in on centers and that of the transverse wires 12 in on centers. These spacings can be easily varied to meet special conditions. The fabric is usually made 54 in wide and comes in rolls containing from 150 to 600 lin ft, the 150-ft length being commonly used. While the usual width of the fabric is 54 in, it can be varied in multiples of 1½ in from 18 in up to a maximum of 54 in. The longitudinals or carrying wires of the fabric are held in place by wrapping around them the transverse wires as shown in Fig. 38. The longitudinal wires can be furnished in sizes varying from No. 14 to No. 7; the transverse wires are usually No. 14 or No. 12. The longitudinal wires are made by a special process which gives them an ULTIMATE TENSILE STRENGTH of from 150 000 to 180 000 lb per sq in, with a correspondingly high ELASTIC LIMIT. The fabric can be furnished either black or galvanized, the latter being more commonly used. This fabric has the general advantages common to any continuous, rectangular-mesh material as it provides a CONTINUOUS BOND from end to end of a structure, and the wires are so placed that they lie parallel to the LINES OF STRESSES which they are called upon to carry. The standard type of construction for floor-slabs and roof-slabs is similar to that shown in Fig. 35 for expanded metal. Where a flat ceiling is desired the type of construction shown in Fig. 39 is very useful. Both of these types have been approved by the Bureau of Buildings of the City of New York on spans up to and including 6 ft, for live loads running from 130 to 330 lb per sq ft; and on spans of 7 ft, approvals have been given up to 175 lb per sq ft, and on spans of 8 ft, up to 150 lb per sq ft. All of these approvals are based upon the use of cinder concrete and on a factor of safety of 10. In addition to its use for the construction of floor-slabs and roof-slabs, the fabric is suitable for use in panel-walls, sewers, penstocks and tanks, and in all other places where a sheet-reinforcement can be used to advantage.

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* Controlled by W. N. Wight & Company, New York City.

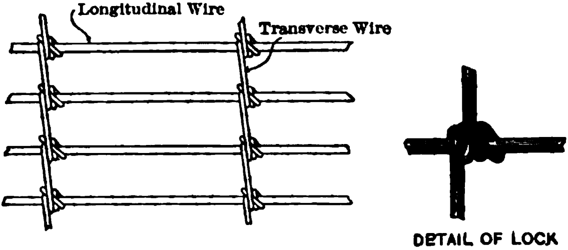

Fig. 38. Lock-woven Fabric

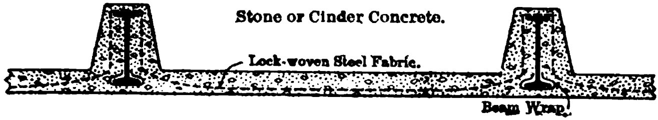

Fig. 39. Concrete Ceiling-slab Reinforced with Lock-woven Fabric

Triangle-Mesh Wire-Fabric Reinforcement. Under this name the American Steel and Wire Company is manufacturing a wire fabric of cold-drawn steel wire for the reinforcement of fire-proof floors. A detail of the standard material is shown in Fig. 40. The triangular mesh is built up of either single or stranded longitudinals with the cross-wires or bond-wires running diagonally across the width of the fabric. It is claimed that the triangular mesh affords an even distribution of the steel, reinforcing in every possible direction; that the strength is increased by reason of the truss-construction; and that the stranding, in addition to the ADHESION of the concrete to the steel, affords a more perfect MECHANICAL BOND, and at the same time provides sufficient area of steel to prevent temperature-cracks. For floor-reinforcement, this fabric is used the same way that any of the other fabrics previously described are used, and as indicated in Figs. 29, 35 and 39. The longitudinal wires in Triangle Mesh are invariably spaced 4 in on centers, but the diagonal wires may be spaced either 2 or 4 in apart. The manufacturers can furnish eighty-eight different styles, giving variations in the cross-sectional area of the longitudinal wires from about 0.038 sq in to about 0.380 sq in per ft in width of the fabric, or a variation in weight per square foot of from 0.2 to 1.5 lb. These styles vary in three ways. (1) The material is furnished either galvanized or plain, (2) the longitudinal wires are made of either a single wire or of two or three wires stranded, and (3) the cross-wires or bond-wires are of either No. 14 or No. 12½ gauge. Special sizes of additional area can be furnished upon application to the company. This fabric is said to have an ultimate strength of not less than 85 000 lb per sq in.

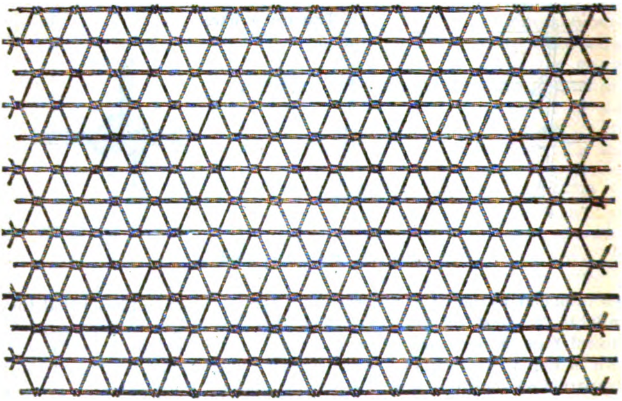

Fig. 40. Wire-fabric Reinforcement, Triangular Mesh

Patented Systems of Flat Floor-Construction. The following systems of floor-construction, described in the following paragraphs, while based upon the same general principles as those already described, are patented and can be used only by the patentees.

Roebling Flat Floor-Construction. This system was introduced by the Roebling Construction Company to meet the demand for a light, economical floor, with greater spans between the I beams than is practicable for their arched system. This flat construction is a reinforced-concrete system, differing from other flat systems only in the reinforcing frame. The details of construction are quite clearly shown in Fig. 41. The main tension-members consist of flat bars, usually 2 in in width and varying from ⅛ to ¼ in in thickness, according to the spacing of the beams and the load to be supported. These bars stand on edge in the concrete, are twisted at the end to lie flat on the I beams, and are also bent around the flanges. The bars are held in position laterally by means of spacers, formed from half-oval iron, with a hook at each end to fit over the bars. Besides the type of construction shown in Fig. 41 three other types, differing principally in the manner of supporting the steel bars, are employed. In what is known as Type 4, the tension-bars are supported on the bottom flange of the I beams, so as to give a level ceiling between the beams.

This type, however, is not desirable when the I beams are more than 7 in deep. When the distance between the steel beams is greater than 9 or 10 ft, the tension-bars are bent downward so as to give a sag of about 2 in or more at the middle of the span, as in Fig. 42, the spacers being used as in Fig. 41. This is known as Type 5 and has been successfully used in spans up to 22 ft. Under ordinary conditions, however, considering both the steelwork and the fireproofing, the most economical results are obtained when the girders are spaced from 14 to 16 ft apart. With this system a suspended ceiling is not necessary or desirable.

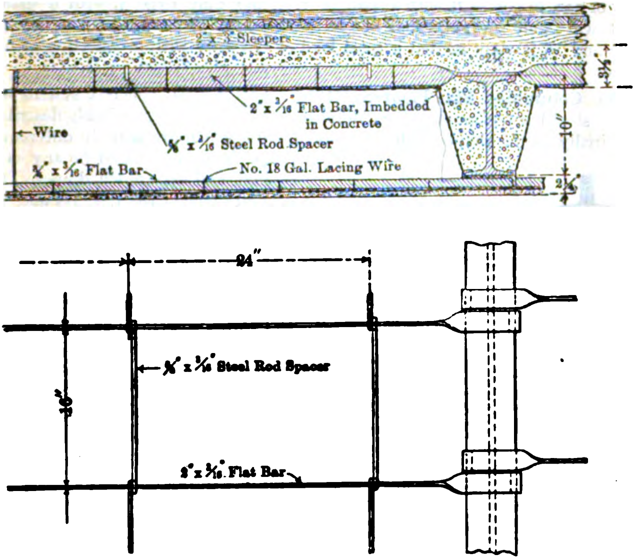

Fig. 41. Roebling Flat Concrete Floor-construction

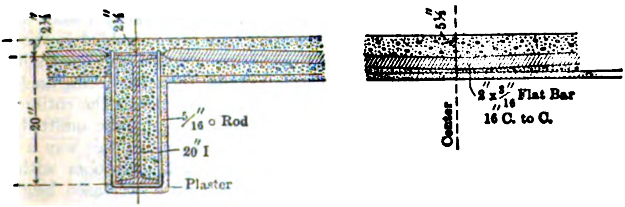

Fig. 42. Roebling Flat Concrete Floor-construction. Type 5

The concrete used with this system is composed of high-grade Portland cement mortar, sharp sand, and clean cinders, mixed ordinarily in the proportions 1 : 2½ : 6. This floor-system is particularly adapted to public buildings, offices, theaters, schools, hospitals, hotels, residences, etc., or where there is no great weight to be supported, and the fire-hazard is not as great as in stores, factories etc. It can be successfully adapted, however, to stores and warehouses, but requires shorter spans and heavier construction. The Roebling Construction Company claims that Type 1 has a safe carrying capacity, with a factor of safety of 4, of 200 lb per sq ft with a span of 8 ft, and that Type 5, with a span of 16 ft, will safely support a load of 100 lb per sq ft. A section of floor 4 ft 5 in wide and 16 ft span, carried a total load of 17 250 lb with a deflection of only 7/16 in.

The Columbian Flat Floor-System.* This is a flat concrete system with ribbed steel-bar tension-members, differing from the system previously described, principally in the shape of the reinforcing bars, which are entirely different in shape from those used in any other system, and very much deeper. The general shape of the 1, 2, 2½ and 3½-in bars is shown by the hole in the stirrup, Fig. 43; the larger sizes have more ribs, as shown in the reduced section at *A*. The Columbian floors are made in two styles, LONG SPAN and SHORT SPAN. In the SHORT-SPAN SYSTEM the ribbed-steel bars are suspended from the steel beams, and supported on edge by means of steel stirrups which have holes of the same cross-sections as those of the bars cut in them, as shown in Fig. 43, these bars being surrounded by and completely embedded in concrete. Three sizes of bars are used for this floor-construction, the 2½, 2 and 1-in bars, their maximum spacing being 24 in. The carrying capacity of this floor is given in Table XIII. The most economical spacing of floor-beams for this type is usually 6 ft for hotels, apartment-houses and office-buildings, using 1-in bars, and from 6 to 9 ft for greater floor-loads, using 2 and 2½-in bars, depending upon the load required to be carried. Economy is claimed for this type of construction in that wall-channels are not required, and beams may be spaced up to 9 ft, center to center.

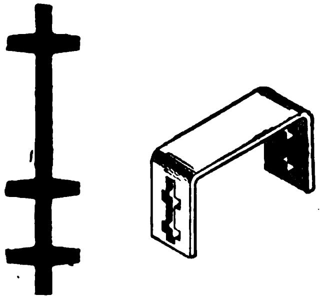
A, Section of 5-inch bar (reduced).

Fig. 43. Stirrup and Bar. Columbian Concrete Floor-construction

In the second type of this construction, or what is commonly known as the LONG-SPAN SYSTEM, the rolled and ribbed steel bars are embedded in the concrete, as in the short-span system, and either hung in specially formed stirrups or framed directly to the beams, as shown in Fig. 44, these bars being anchored at intervals into the wall, and forming a continuous tie across the entire floor of the building. The floor-beams between girders may thus be omitted, the monolithic slabs of concrete and steel taking their place. In this way a level ceiling is obtained between girders, and an increased head-room with the same amount of masonry, or the same head-room with a decreased height of masonry. This is possible because the extreme thickness of this floor-construction on a span of 20 ft between beams, is but 6½ in, whereas for a span of 15 ft, with a lighter load, the thickness of concrete may be reduced to 5 in. The sizes of bars used in this type of construction are 3½, 4½, 5 and 6 in, requiring respectively 5, 5¾, 6½ and 7½ in of concrete.

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* **Controlled by the Columbian Concrete-Steel Bar Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.**

Table XIII. Safe Loads in Pounds per Square Foot for Columbian Floor-Construction

STONE CONCRETE

Size of bar in ins and wt per linear ft	2½ × ⅛ in 1.65 lb									3½ × 13/64 in 3.8 lb						4¼ × ¼ in 5.3 lb	
Spacing of bars in inches	24			20			15½			24			21			24	
Weight of steel per sq ft of floor in lbs	0.83			0.98			1.3			1.9			2.2			2.65	
Thickness of slab in inches	4	4½	5	4	4½	5	4	4½	5	5	5½	6	5	5½	6	5¾	6½
Span in feet	Pounds per square foot																
4	560	…	…	672	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
5	360	440	…	432	528	…	480	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
6	250	305	335	300	366	402	335	390	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
7	185	225	245	222	270	294	245	285	325	550	610	660	…	…	…	…	…
8	140	170	185	168	204	222	185	220	250	420	465	510	520	580	640	680	…
9	110	135	150	120	162	180	150	170	195	335	370	400	420	460	500	540	780
10	90	110	120	110	120	144	120	140	170	270	295	325	340	370	400	435	620
11	75	90	100	90	110	120	100	125	150	220	245	270	280	310	335	360	415
12	60	75	95	75	90	114	85	100	130	190	205	225	245	260	280	300	350
13	…	…	70	…	75	95	…	80	100	160	175	190	200	220	240	260	300
14	…	…	…	…	…	70	…	…	80	140	150	165	175	190	210	225	255
15	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	120	135	155	150	165	180	190	225
16	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	100	120	135	110	145	160	170	195
17	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	125	155	175
18	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	100	125
19	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	60	85

CINDER CONCRETE

Size of bar in ins and wt per linear ft	1 × 3/16 in 1.1 lb					2 × ¼ in 1.45 lb					2½ × ⅛ in 1.65 lb								
Spacing of bars in ins	24		20			24		15			24			20			15½		
Wt of steel per sq ft of floor in lbs	0.55		0.65			0.73		1.15			0.83			0.98			1.3		
Thickness of slab in ins	3	3½	3	3½	4	3½	4	3½	4	4½	4	4½	5	4	4½	5	4	4½	5
Span in feet	Pounds per square foot																		
4	225	265	300	375	450	400	420	425	475	525	450	500	575	640	600	690	650	700	…
5	160	200	215	265	325	300	330	325	350	400	350	370	440	470	444	528	550	575	650
6	90	130	150	190	215	210	240	230	255	300	250	270	300	350	324	360	430	460	480
7	60	70	80	115	140	140	165	160	175	200	170	185	210	204	222	252	250	275	325
8	…	…	…	…	85	85	100	90	120	135	110	130	140	132	156	168	160	200	225
9	…	…	…	…	…	…	60	…	80	100	70	100	110	84	140	140	105	150	175
10	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	75	…	70	80	…	84	96	75	110	135
11	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	60	…	…	72	…	90	110
12	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	80

Table XIII gives the loads that the Columbian Concrete-Steel Bar Company guarantees their various forms of floors will carry safely. This table is compiled from actual tests on sections of floors, by using a safety factor of 4. Bars can be spaced down to 15½ in, thereby increasing the strength of a floor; but 2 ft is the maximum spacing. After a fire-test and water-test of three hours' duration made on this system in Boston,* this floor on a span of 11 ft 3 in, carried 1 650 lb with a deflection of only 1⅜ in. Before the floor-slab began to show any sign of failure, the loading had to be stopped because the walls of the test-hut which carried the floor began to crack.

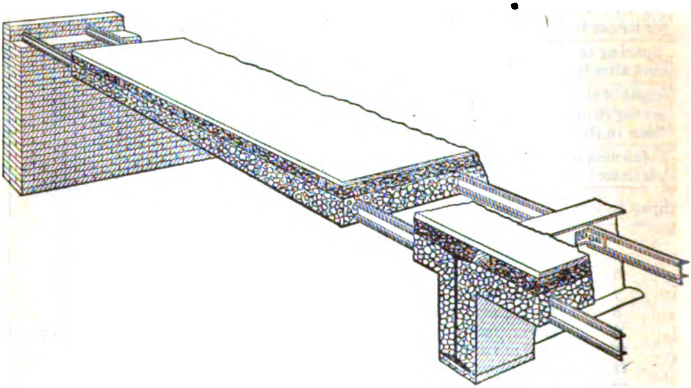

Fig. 44. Columbian Long-span Concrete Floor-construction

Dovetailed Corrugated Sheets. Ferroinclave. Sheets of thin steel corrugated so as to form dovetailed grooves have been used as a reinforcement and centering for concrete-steel, the dovetailing serving to unite the sheets to the concrete. The Brown Hoisting Machinery Company of Cleveland, Ohio, has patented, under the name Ferroinclave, a tapered corrugation which is small enough to hold hard mortar, and hence can be plastered on the under side. Fig. 45 shows a partial section of the Ferroinclave corrugated sheets, the depth of the corrugations being ½ in, the distance from center to center of corrugations 2 in, and the corrugations, with the opening between the edges, ⅞ in. The tapering of the corrugations is of especial advantage for roofs, as it allows the sheets to be lapped at the end-joints, making a roof absolutely tight, even if water should

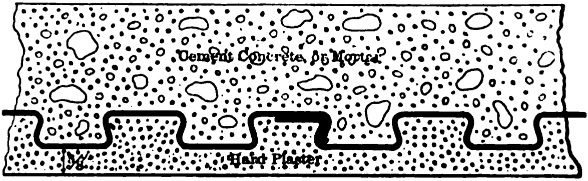

Fig. 45. Ferroinclave Reinforcement for Concrete Floors

penetrate the cement coating. The principal advantage in the use of corrugated sheets for floor-construction is that they sustain the concrete, when the spans are of moderate width, before it has set, thus saving the cost of centering and the time required to put it in place. This advantage, however, appears to be offset by the high cost of the sheets when they have to be shipped. This expense makes the completed floor cost just as much as the average of the reinforced-concrete systems, and more than some of them. For roofs, however, this construction is light and relatively cheap, as the total thickness need not exceed 1¼ in for spans of 4 ft 10 in, and only one coat of asphaltic paint is required over the cement to make the roof water-tight. With a good coat of hard plaster or gauged mortar on the under-side, the iron will not be affected by heat until a considerable time has elapsed; and even if the mortar on the under-side should be more or less dislodged by the streams of water, it can be replaced, at a very slight expense. Another advantage in the use of Ferroinclave for roofs is that a building can be covered and made water-tight in the most severe winter weather and the cement applied during the following spring.

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* Reported in Engineering News, Nov. 21, 1901.

Ferroinclave is made in sheets 20 in wide and up to 10 ft long, and it is usually of No. 24 gauge. For roofs it is attached to purlins in the same way that iron roofing is attached, the most economical spacing of the purlins being 4 ft 10½ in center to center, which accommodates sheets 10 ft long and leaves an end-lap of 3 in. For the cement top coat on roofs, a mixture of one part Portland cement to two parts sand, applied to a thickness of ⅜-in above the top of the sheets, is sufficient. For floors a rich, gravel or crushed-stone concrete should be used, the thickness being governed by the span and the loads to be supported.

The following table shows the ultimate strength of No. 24 Ferroinclave with different thicknesses of concrete, as determined by actual tests with sheets 20 in wide over a 4-ft 10½-in span:

Thickness in inches of 1 : 2 mortar above the metal	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4
Ultimate strength in lb per sq ft for a span 4 ft 10½ in	615	915	1 220	1 560	1 860	2 120

A factor of safety of 6 should be ample for ordinary loads.

About a million square feet of Ferroinclave have thus far been used for floors, roofing and side walls. It is especially adapted for the walls, roofs and floors of large manufacturing plants, and may be used to advantage for partitions, gutters, stair-treads, vats, water-closet partitions and fire-proof doors.

Berger's Multiplex Steel Plate. Fig. 46 shows a section of a corrugated steel plate manufactured by the Berger Manufacturing Company, Canton, Ohio, for floor and roof-construction, the plate being an invention of G. Fugman. As shown in the illustration, it consists of a series of vertical corrugations of sheet steel, painted or galvanized, ending at the top and bottom in three half-circle arches, separating the vertical sides of the corrugations from each other and giving stiffness to the top and bottom of the plate. The plate is made with depths, *D*, of 2, 2½, 3, 3½ and 4 in, and in corresponding widths of 13½, 14, 14½ and 15 in. The maximum length of plate is 10 ft. It can be made of any gauge of steel, from No. 24 to No. 16, but No. 18 is as heavy a weight as is generally required. For floors and roofs, the corrugated plate is laid on top of the beams and the top portion filled with concrete and leveled off about 1 in above the plate. For wooden floors the nailing-strips may be embedded in the concrete and the bottom of the strips raised only about ½ in above the top of the plate. The construction is very light and strong and requires no centering. It cannot be plastered, however, on the under side; and where plaster ceiling is required it must be constructed independently of the plate b means of furring-strips and metal lath. The weight of the 4-in plate, with 1 : 2 : 5 furnace-slag concrete leveled 1 in above the top of the plate is abou 40 lb per sq ft, and the safe load for a 10-ft span is given at 270 lb per sq ft While this floor has several practical advantages, it cannot be considered thoroughly fire-proof, because the metal is exposed on the bottom. But with a plastered ceiling on the under side, the iron would probably not be affected by any ordinary fire before the latter could be controlled.

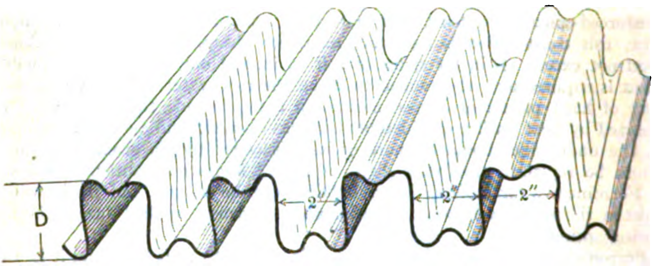


Fig. 46. Berger's Multiplex Steel Plate

Permanent Centering. Numerous forms of sheet-metal fabrics, similar to those just described, have been developed in recent years for use as floor-reinforcements. They consist, generally, of steel plates pressed into series of solid ribs, variously spaced, between which the metal is stamped or perforated, or deployed into an open mesh-work. The characteristic form is shown in Fig. 47. The mesh is kept small enough to prevent ordinary concrete from passing through. For use as a reinforcement the sheets are furnished either in flat or segmental form. A 1 : 2½ : 5 stone or cinder concrete may be used, the thickness depending upon the span and the load to be provided for. For spans exceeding from 3 to 5 ft, according to the gauge of metal, the sheets must be temporarily supported until the concrete has set. The difficulty of providing efficient fire-protection on the underside of reinforcements of this type, and around the lower flanges of the supporting steel beams, is a serious disadvantage. Be-

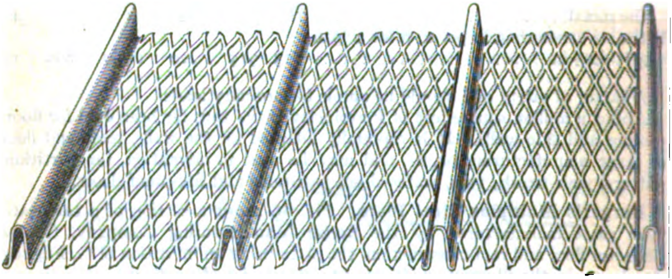


Fig. 47. Permanent Centering. Characteristic Form

sides, the bond between the metal and the floor-concrete is on one side of the sheet only. Some of the forms now on the market, with their special characteristics, are briefly described in the following paragraphs.

Rib-Truss. These plates, manufactured by the Berger Manufacturing Company, Canton, Ohio, are designed with five longitudinal ribs, 6 in on centers and ½, ¾, 1 and 1¼ in high. The metal between the ribs is slit into truss-loops which are further reinforced with beads at right-angles to the main ribs. The standard sheets are 24 in in width and are carried in stock in lengths up to 12 ft, and made of No. 24, 26, 27 and 28-gauge metal.

Self-Sentering. In this form, the ribs, manufactured by the General Fireproofing Company, Youngstown, Ohio, are 1³⁄₁₆ in in height, 3½ in on centers and connected by expanded metal. The sheets are 28 in in width and come in lengths up to 14 ft. Self-Sentering is made of No. 24, 26 and 28-gauge metal. (See, also, page 891.)

Hy-Rib. Hy-rib, controlled by the Trussed Concrete Steel Company, Detroit, Mich., is made in sheets measuring 10½ in from center to center of outside ribs and having four ribs 1³⁄₁₆ in in height, and also in sheets 14 in in width having three ribs. There is also a type known as the Deep Rib. The lengths are 6, 8, 10 and 12 ft. The sheets are of No. 24, 26 or 28 United States gauge, and are furnished either flat or in various types of curves. (See, also, page 891.)

Corr-Mesh. Corr-mesh is furnished by the Corrugated Bar Company, Buffalo, N. Y., which supplies, also, special clips for splicing and fastening the mesh. The ribs, ¾ in in height are spaced uniformly 3⁵⁄₃₂ in on centers, the sheets being 12⅝ in from center to center of outside ribs. The mesh is furnished in the standard United States gauge, Nos. 24, 26 and 28, but it can be furnished in other gauges if required. Standard sheets are 6, 8, 10 and 12 ft in length but may be had up to 14 ft. This metal is always painted before it is shipped unless otherwise ordered.

Duplex Self-Centering. The Youngstown Iron Steel Company, Youngstown, Ohio, manufactures the Duplex Self-Centering. It is 23 in in width, is furnished in lengths of from 4 to 12 ft, and in No. 24, 26 and 28 metal, United States gauge. It weighs 1.37 lb per sq ft for the No. 24 gauge, 1.03 lb for the No. 26 gauge and 0.86 lb for the No. 28 gauge; and it has a corresponding cross-sectional area per foot of width, of 0.411, 0.308 and 0.257 sq in.

Keyridge. Keyridge reinforcement is made by the Cellular Metal Company, of No. 24, 26 and 28-gauge, black steel, 24 in in width and in lengths up to 12 ft. It is furnished with or without perforations. The ridges are spaced 3⅜ in on centers, each sheet containing 7½ ridges. The sheets are so placed that the last half-ridge on each sheet overlaps the first full ridge on the adjoining sheet.

Sectional Systems. During recent years, the UNIT SYSTEM or SEPARATELY MOLDED SYSTEM, consisting of shop-made reinforced-concrete members, such as girders, lintels, floor-slabs and wall-panels, made at a factory and shipped to the sites of building operations, has been receiving considerable attention in this country. This system is more completely discussed in Chapter XXIV, page 955, under the title SEPARATELY-MOLDED CONSTRUCTION. The most extensive use of separately molded members has been between the steel beams of fire-proof floor-construction as a substitute floor-filling for the usual terra-cotta or concrete floor-arches. The advantages of such systems, where they are practicable, are obvious. Such members are usually made as large as they can be conveniently handled and of comparatively long span.

Disadvantages of Sectional Systems. The reason that the SECTIONAL SYSTEMS have not found favor is because they necessitate a fairly uniform spacing of beams throughout a structure, and this is generally impracticable. The casting of the parts has hitherto not been commercially successful, as the forms, although used repeatedly, have been more expensive than the usual centering at the building; and it is also generally necessary to use a concrete that is richer and more carefully prepared in order that it may stand the additional handling. Even with all possible care, the breakages in transportation are considerable. As the methods of manufacture of factory-made members are constantly being perfected, chiefly in mechanical contrivances for cheapening the forms and reducing the handling during the process of manufacture, the economy of this system is being substantiated, and particularly when it is used in combination with a light structural-steel fire-proofed frame.

Waite's Concrete Beam. In Fig. 48 is shown a type of SECTIONAL FLOOR-CONSTRUCTION that has been used by the Standard Concrete Steel Company of New York City in a number of buildings. The floor-construction consists of a series of concrete I beams 10 or 12 in in depth, supported on the lower flanges of the steel beams, which are spaced from 5 to 7 ft apart. The concrete beams are set about 12 in apart and the spaces between the lower flanges are filled in with a cinder concrete of the same composition as the I beams. On the tops of the concrete beams is placed a metal fabric of small mesh on which a lean-concrete slab is laid. This makes a comparatively light floor-construction, because of the large spaces between the concrete beams. The concrete I beams are cast at the shop and allowed to harden before they are sent to the building. In the lower flange is inserted, as shown, a steel reinforcement, of small circular or other cross-section, to furnish the necessary tensile strength. The beams are cast with the proper lengths, in accordance with the drawings; and any slight variations at the building are made up by filling the spaces between the ends of the concrete beams and the webs of the steel beams, and covering the webs of the latter with concrete. A similar construction, consisting of a series of ⊤ beams, with lower flanges 1½ in thick and 12 in wide and stems 2 in thick and 12 in deep, of 1 : 4 cinder concrete, reinforced with 3/16-in rods near the flanges, and without floor-finish of any kind, successfully withstood the fire, water and load-tests of the New York City Bureau of Buildings after having been constructed 28 days. This system has proved to be practical in cases in which a flat or level ceiling is required and the steel floor-beams are 10 in or more in depth. The cost of construction compares favorably with that of other flush-ceiling types.

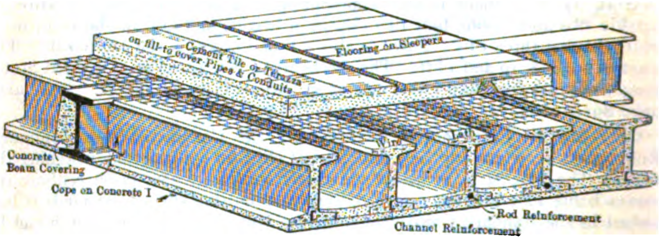
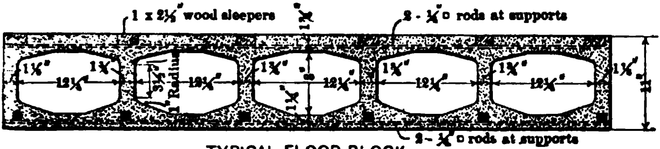


Fig. 48. Waite's Concrete I Beam

The Siegwart Floor-System. This system (Fig. 49), designed by Hans Siegwart, of Lucerne, Switzerland, is in extensive use in that country. A factory for making these beams in America is located at Montreal, Canada. The sectional units are made in standard sizes, usually 10 in in width, the height and reinforcement varying with the span and load. In a test on a beam of this type, in which the Standard Section, No. 21, was used, designed to carry a live load of 150 lb per superficial ft over a 16-ft span, the construction withstood a satisfactory four-hour fire-test with a load of 150 lb per sq ft, followed after the fire by a test with a load of 600 lb per sq ft. It is claimed for this system, that using the same working units for the strength of the material, the dead weight of the construction is only one-half that of a monolithic reinforced-concrete floor designed to carry the same load with the same percentage of reinforcement. "The Siegwart Company claim their method to be much cheaper than monolithic floors. From quotations furnished by their Canadian Company, the price in Montreal is quite a little less than the author's experience for monolithic floors in the same city, ranging from 17 to 26 cts per sq ft, erected, for various spans and loads."* A modification of the Siegwart system has been developed by Grosvenor Atterbury, and has been employed in two-story and three-story residence-buildings for the Sage Foundation Homes Company at Forest Hills (Long Island), N. Y.



TYPICAL FLOOR BLOCK
6'0" Wide 13'0" long. Total Weight 4867# or 62.3# sq.ft.
Reinforcement 1 - ⅝" x ⅝" Havemeyer Bar in each Web
Mixture(1-2½-3½)top inch 1-5 Mortar

Fig. 49. Siegwart Reinforced-concrete Floor-construction

The Climax Floor-System. This system (Fig. 50) was designed by S. M. Randolph, and is marketed by the Climax Company, Chicago, Ill. The design is similar to that of the Siegwart floor-system.

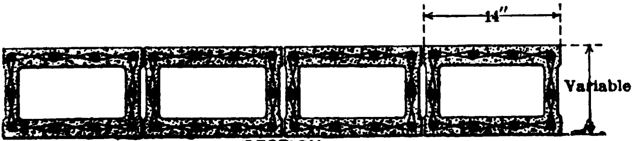


Fig. 50. Climax Reinforced-concrete Floor-construction

The Vaughan Floor-System. The Vaughan Company of Detroit, Mich., is manufacturing a shop-made unit which is employed considerably throughout the Middle West. The general form of this unit is like that of Waite's concrete beam, shown in Fig. 48.

The Watson Floor-System. Two types of sectional floor-systems for fire-proof floor-fillings between steel beams are shown in Figs. 51 and 52. For long spans and heavy loads, the T sections are used, laid side by side; and for spans less than 20 ft and loads of 200 lb per sq ft or less, the beams are spaced 5 ft on centers with flat slabs between. This system is controlled and installed by the Unit Construction Company of St. Louis, Mo. Beams and girders are cast with unit frames in horizontal molds and slabs are made on edge in steel forms. In the American School Board Journal for August, 1912, Theodore H. Skinner describes the construction and erection of a story-and-basement schoolhouse with a structural-steel frame and shop-made reinforced-concrete joists, with unit-ribbed reinforced-concrete slabs.

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* Chas. D. Watson, Concrete Construction with Separately Moulded Members and Costs. Proc. Nat. Asso. Cement Users, Vol. VI, 1910.

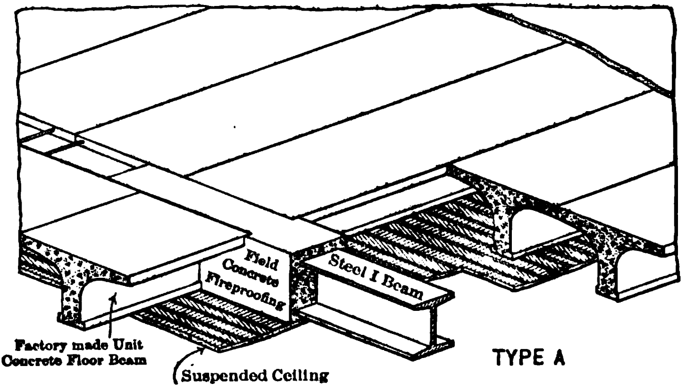

Field Concrete Fireproofing
Steel I Beam
Factory made Unit Concrete Floor Beam
Suspended Ceiling
TYPE A

Fig. 51. Watson Reinforced-concrete Floor-construction. Without Slabs

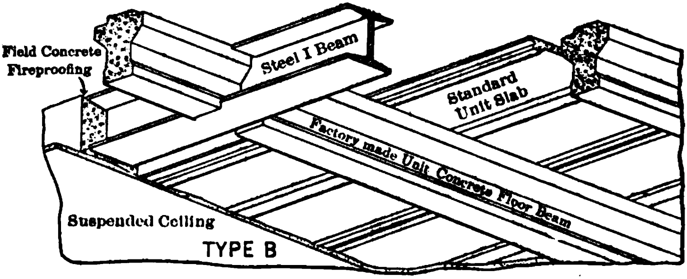

Field Concrete Fireproofing
Steel I Beam
Standard Unit Slab
Factory made Unit Concrete Floor Beam
Suspended Ceiling
TYPE B

Fig. 52. Watson Reinforced-concrete Floor-construction. With Slabs

Berger Metal Lumber. A development of the Berger Prong Lock studding and furring, described on page 886, has given rise to a system of pressed-steel I joists, channel-joists, corner-joists, wall-ribbons, etc., which, in connection with the studs and metal lath, are used as substitutes for ordinary wooden framing in the construction of walls, floors, roofs and partitions. Partition-construction is fully described on pages 886 and 887. In floor-construction, the I joists and channel-joists, of No. 16 to 12 United States gauge sheet metal, are braced by metal bridging, to give additional rigidity. A typical floor-construction is shown in Fig. 53. The steel floor-joists are covered above with a concrete slab reinforced with expanded-metal lath, and the lower flanges are protected by a ceiling of metal lath and cement plaster attached to the joists by means of the prongs. The metal-lumber joists frame into ordinary steel girders, resting on a shelf-angle as shown in the drawing. The joists are cut to length at the factory, properly marked and tagged and, with the erection-diagrams, are shipped to the site. All joints and splices are riveted in the field. The steel girders should be properly incased in some fire-proof covering. The materials for this floor-construction are manufactured by the Berger Manufacturing Company, of Canton, Ohio, which publishes safe-load tables for metal-lumber I joists and channel-studs for spans of from 4 to 20 ft. This system, contemplating the use of steel joists and girders, not thoroughly incased with fire-proof materials, should not be considered thoroughly fire-resistant under severe tests. It has been extensively used to replace combustible building-construction, especially in residence-buildings.

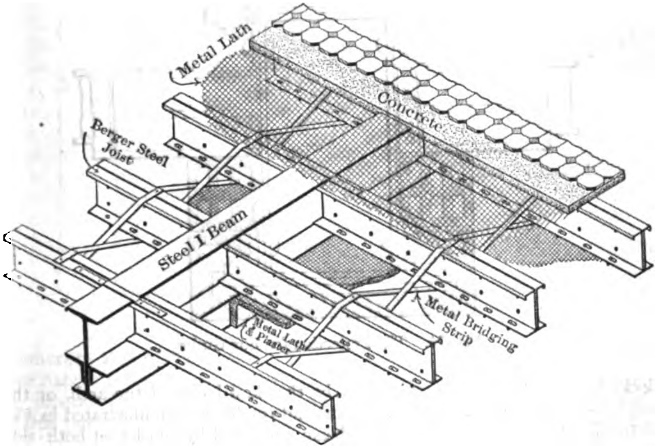


Fig. 53. Berger's Metal Lumber and Concrete Floor-construction

Protection of Girders and Beams. No form of floor-construction can be considered thoroughly fire-proof unless it includes a protection of the lower flanges of all steel beams and girders, or provides for the protection of all steel used in its construction or support. The material used for the protective covering is generally the same as that used in the floor-construction itself. The principal materials are tile, either dense, porous, or semiporous, and concrete either of cinders, stone, or slag. Plaster compositions have also been used, but are not recommended. (See page 818.) Beam-protection, where the floor-construction incases the sides of the beams, as in Figs. 17, 20, or 39, should never be less than 1 in thick. Where paneled ceilings are used, that is, where the lower part of the beams is below the lower side of the floor-construction, as in Figs. 18, 35, or 44, the protection should be increased to at least 1½ in at all points.

Tile Beam-Protection. When tile is used, there are two types of protection. In one case the blocks incasing the bottom flanges of the steel beams meet at the middle of the lower side of the flanges; in the other, they simply turn under the edges of the bottom flanges and hold flat tiles with beveled edges against the lower side of those flanges. The former is the better method, as in the latter the danger of breakage of the part extending under the flange is supplemented by the possibility of an omission of the flat protection-tiles. The blocks incasing the lower flanges may be the skew-backs of the arch, or they may be separate blocks. Different forms and conditions are illustrated in Figs. 15 to 27. Fig. 29 shows the entire beam protected by blocks on both sides. Girders, which often project below the ceiling-line, are much more exposed to the effects of fire and water than the floor-beams, and they should have, therefore, the most efficient protection. As a rule, such girders should be provided with not less than 4 in of terra-cotta protection at the sides and 1½ in of solid tile on the lower side with a space of ¼ in between the terra-cotta tiles and the girder. Figs. 54 and 55 are typical methods of protecting girders by means of hollow tiles. The bottoms of the skew-backs (Fig. 54) are prevented from spreading by wire ties placed in the end-joints between the soffit-tiles and hooked into the round holes in the skew-backs. Single-beam girders are usually

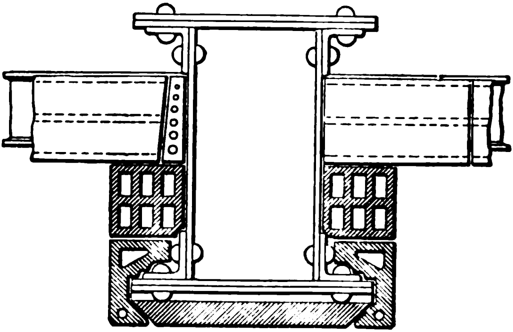


Fig. 54. Tile Protection for Box Girder

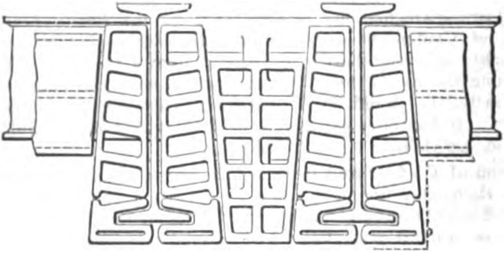


Fig. 55. Tile Protection for I-beam Girders

protected, as shown in Figs. 25 and 56, the latter figure showing more particularly the protection of a beam at the side of an opening in the floor.

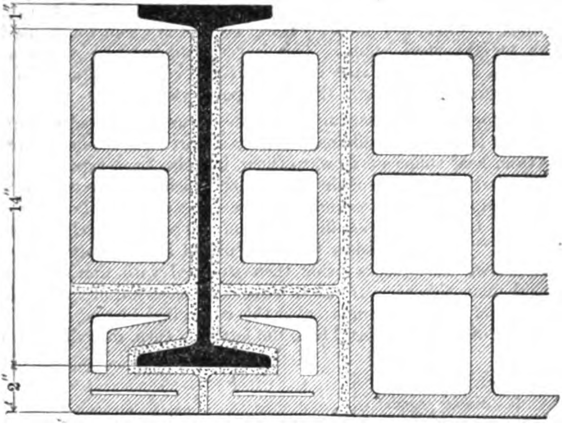


Fig. 56. Tile Protection for Single-beam Girder

Concrete Beam-Protection. A more thorough incasing of the webs and lower flanges of beams and girders can be accomplished by the use of concrete. The superior fire-proof character of cinder concrete makes it the best material for this purpose. If of sufficient thickness and properly applied, it will hold securely, without reinforcement, around the flanges of beams and girders. But where it is less than 2 in thick, wire or metal lath, wrapped around the flanges, should be embedded in it. A common form of concrete-protection is shown in Fig. 33. Sometimes the soffit of the beam is protected by a concrete

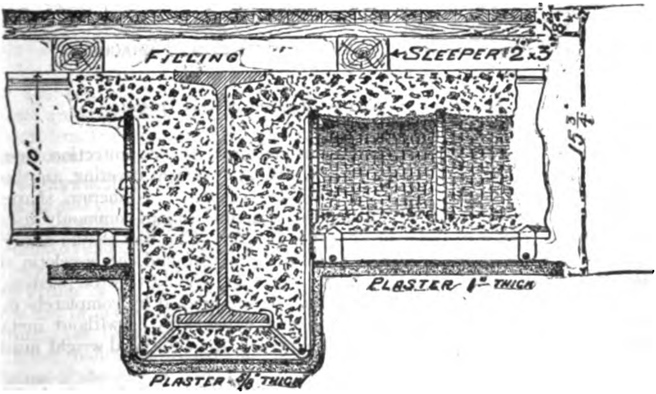
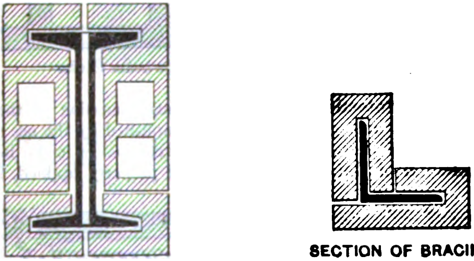


Fig. 57. Concrete Protection for I Beam

slab with an insulating air-space. This method is one that may be advantageously used for the protection of girders. A fire-test of this form of girder-protection made in the Butterick Building, New York City, thoroughly established its efficiency. A typical girder-protection of cinder concrete is shown in the Roebling method in Fig. 57. Hung ceilings are sometimes used as the protection for the steel beams. This is very bad practice, as these ceilings are more than likely to collapse in a severe fire. The experience in the Baltimore fire confirms this belief. (See, also, pages 780 to 782.)

The Fireproofing of Trusses. When steel trusses are used to support the roof or several stories of a building it is very important that they be protected, not only from heat sufficient to warp them, but also from expansion sufficient to affect the vertical position of the columns on which they are supported. The following description of the covering of the trusses in the Tremont Temple, Boston, Mass., furnishes a good illustration of the way in which this should be accomplished: "The steel girders were first placed in terra-cotta blocks on all sides and below, these blocks being then strapped with iron all around the girders, and upon this was stretched expanded-metal lathing, covered with a heavy coating of Windsor cement; over this comes iron furring, which receives a second layer of expanded-metal lath, the latter, in turn, receiving the finished plaster. There is, consequently, in this arrangement for fire-protection, first, a dead-air space, then a layer of terra-cotta, a Windsor cement covering, another dead-air space, and finally, the external Windsor cement." Numerous shapes of terra-cotta tiles are made for incasing the structural shapes commonly used in steel trusses. Some of these are shown in Fig. 58. The tiles should always be secured in place by metal clamps passing entirely around the envelope, or better still, by wrapping with wire lath. The tiling should then be plastered with hard wall-plaster. Trusses, also, may be fire-proofed by completely incasing the several members in cinder concrete, either with or without metal reinforcement. When trusses are to be fireproofed, the additional weight must be provided for in the strength of the truss.



SECTION OF STRUT

SECTION OF BRACING

Fig. 58. Tile Protection for Members of Steel Trusses

Steel Framing for Fire-proof Floors. Before the framing-plans of a building can be made, it is necessary to decide, in a general way, upon the SYSTEM OF FLOOR-CONSTRUCTION or fireproofing that will be employed; thus, if any one of the LONG-SPAN SYSTEMS, such as the Herculean, Johnson, and many of the concrete systems, is to be adopted, the girders should be spaced so that the floor-construction will span between them, without floor-beams, as shown in Fig. 59, while if an ORDINARY FLAT-TILE ARCH is to be used, floor-beams will be required, spaced from 5½ to 9 ft apart, and these beams must be supported by girders, as indicated in Fig. 60. When there are no floor-beams, a STRUT-BEAM should be riveted between the columns, as in Fig. 59, to hold the latter in place during erection and to stiffen the building. It should be remembered that with floor-beams spaced not more than 7 ft on centers, almost any system of floor-construction may be employed; while if the floor-beams are omitted, there are few systems to select from. With any form of filling between beams or girders, less steel is required for moderate than for excessive spans of beams or girders.

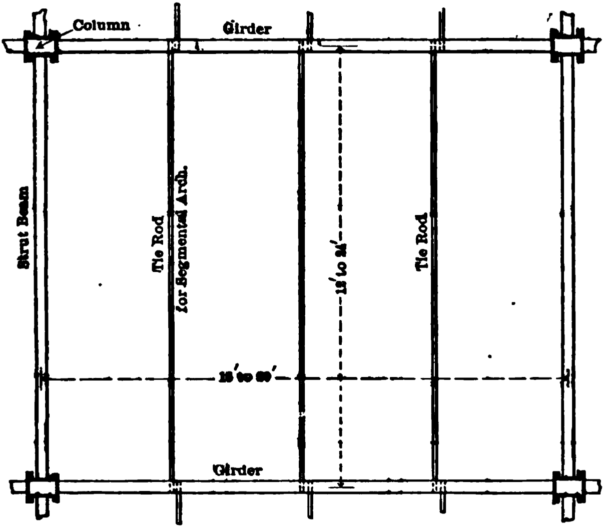


Fig. 59. Steel Floor-framing for Long-span Construction

Computations for the Steel Framing. The computations for the steel beams and girders of a fire-proof floor are very much the same as for a wooden floor. The load or loads which any given beam is required to support are first estimated and then the beam of the necessary size to support the load is selected. The DEAD LOAD for any fire-proof floor may be estimated with sufficient accuracy by means of the data given in this chapter in connection with the different systems of floor-construction. The dead load should include the weight of the beams, the fireproofing, including all concrete filling, the plastering, furring, lathing, nailing-strips and flooring. The LIVE LOADS may be estimated by means of the data given in Chapter XXI, pages 718 to 721.

Example. The best arrangement for the columns in a retail store is to set them 18 ft on centers in one direction and 19 ft 6 in in the other. It is decided to run the girders as shown by Fig. 60, and to put a beam opposite each column and two beams between the columns. It is required to determine the proper sizes of the beams and girders, using an ordinary end-arch construction between the beams.

Solution. From Table VII, page 837, we find that the least depth of arch which it is advisable to use is 10 in, but as we will probably have to use 12-in beams it will be better to figure on a 12-in arch, as this will give less filling on top. The weight of the 12-in arch will be about 39 lb per sq ft. We shall probably require 2 in of concrete filling on top, which will weigh 16 lb, and 1½ in of light filling between nailing-strips, weighing, say, 9 lb per sq ft. The flooring and nailing-strips will weigh about 4 lb, the plastering on the ceiling 5 lb, and we must allow at least 6 lb per sq ft for the weight of the beams themselves. These make a total dead weight of 79 lb per sq ft. The live load for a retail store should be taken at 150 lb per sq ft, making a total load per square foot on the beams of 229 lb. The total load that each beam must be capable of supporting will be 6½ ft by 18 ft by 229 lb, or 26 793 lb, or 13.4 tons, which is assumed to be uniformly distributed. From Table IV, page 580, we find that this load, with a span of 18 ft, will require either a 12-in, 45-lb beam, or a 15-in, 42-lb beam. The latter will be both stronger and cheaper, but will increase the thickness of the floor by 3 in and require additional filling.

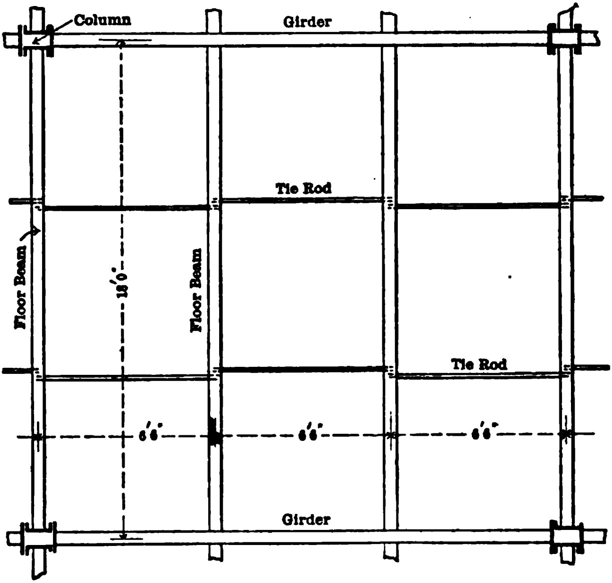


Fig. 60. Steel Floor-framing for Short-span Construction

The girder must support two concentrated loads of 26 793 lb or 13.4 tons each. On page 566 it is stated that when a beam supports two equal loads applied at points one-third the length of the span from each end, the equivalent uniformly distributed load may be found by multiplying one load by 2⅔. Multiplying 26 793 lb by 2⅔ we have 71 448 lb as the equivalent distributed load on the girder, to which should be added the weight of the girder. This requires a standard 24-in 80-lb beam (Table IV, page 577).

If instead of using tile arches between beams 6½ ft apart, we conclude to use the Herculean or Johnson construction spanning from girder to girder, we should frame our floor as in Fig. 59. For this span we should require 10-in tiles, weighing 55 lb per sq ft. Allowing 8 lb for 1 in of concrete, 9 lb for filling, 4 lb for flooring and strips and 5 lb for plastering, we have 81 lb as the dead load per square foot. We have added nothing for the weight of the girder, as this will be fully offset by the portions of the floor not loaded. The live load per square foot will be 150 lb as before, and the total load to be supported by the girder, 18 ft by 19 ft 6 in by 231 lb, or 81 081 lb, or 40.54 tons, which will require a 24-in 80-lb beam (Table IV, page 577). Hence by this arrangement we save the weight of the floor-beams; but a 6-in strut-beam should be placed between the columns, as in Fig. 59. The calculations for any other floor-construction are similar to the calculations for this example, the only variations being in the figuring of the dead weights of the construction.

Tables for Floor-Beams. It is a difficult matter to prepare tables that may be generally used, showing the size of steel beams required for fire-proof floors, because such beams are often irregularly spaced, and there is a wide variation in the dead loads. The following tables, however, may be used in making approximate estimates and in checking the computations for any particular floor. The sizes of I beams given may be safely used where the total live and dead loads do not exceed the values given in the headings. The total loads should include sufficient allowance for the weights of any partitions that the floor-beams may be called upon to support.

Table XIV. Sizes and Weights of I Beams for Floors of Offices, Hotels and Apartment-Houses

Total load, 120 pounds per square foot

Span of beams in feet	Distance between centers of beams in feet									
	4½		5		5½		6		7	
	in	lb	in	lb	in	lb	in	lb	in	lb
10	6	12¼	6	12¼	6	12¼	6	12¼	7	15
11	6	12¼	6	12¼	7	15	7	15	7	15
12	6	12¼	7	15	7	15	7	15	8	18
13	7	15	7	15	7	15	8	18	8	18
14	7	15	8	18	8	18	8	18	9	21
15	8	18	8	18	8	18	9	21	9	21
16	8	18	9	21	9	21	9	21	10	25
17	9	21	9	21	9	21	10	25	10	25
18	9	21	9	21	10	25	10	25	12	31½
19	9	21	10	25	10	25	10	25	12	31½
20	10	25	10	25	12	31½	12	31½	12	31½
21	10	25	12	31½	12	31½	12	31½	12	31½
22	10	25	12	31½	12	31½	12	31½	15	42
23	12	31½	12	31½	12	31½	12	31½	15	42
24	12	31½	12	31½	12	31½	15	42	15	42
25	12	31½	12	31½	15	42	15	42	15	42

Table XV. Sizes and Weights of I Beams for Floors of Retail Stores and Assembly-Rooms

Total load, 200 pounds per square foot

Span of beams in feet	Distance between centers of beams in feet									
	4½		5		5½		6		7	
	in	lb	in	lb	in	lb	in	lb	in	lb
10	7	15	7	15	7	15	8	18	8	18
11	7	15	8	18	8	18	8	18	9	21
12	8	18	8	18	9	21	9	21	9	21
13	8	18	9	21	9	21	10	25	10	25
14	9	21	9	21	10	25	10	25	12	31½
15	9	21	10	25	10	25	12	31½	12	31½
16	10	25	10	25	12	31½	12	31½	12	31½
17	10	25	12	31½	12	31½	12	31½	12	40
18	12	31½	12	31½	12	31½	12	40	12	40
19	12	31½	12	31½	12	40	12	40	15	42
20	12	31½	12	40	12	40	15	42	15	42

Table XVI. Sizes and Weights of I Beams for Floors of Warehouses

Total load, 270 pounds per square foot

Span of beams in feet	Distance between centers of beams in feet									
	4½		5		5½		6		6½	
	in	lb	in	lb	in	lb	in	lb	in	lb
10	8	18	8	18	8	18	9	21	9	21
11	8	18	9	21	9	21	9	21	10	25
12	9	21	9	21	10	25	10	25	10	25
13	10	25	10	25	10	25	12	31½	12	31½
14	10	25	12	31½	12	31½	12	31½	12	31½
15	12	31½	12	31½	12	31½	12	31½	12	40
16	12	31½	12	31½	12	31½	12	40	12	40
17	12	31½	12	40	12	40	12	40	15	42
18	12	40	12	40	15	42	15	42	15	42
19	12	40	15	42	15	42	15	42	15	42
20	15	42	15	42	15	42	15	45	15	55

Tie-rods. In all segmental arches and other types in which a thrust is exerted against the beams, TIE-RODS must be provided to prevent the beams from being pushed apart, and especially to prevent the outer bays from spreading. They should run from beam to beam from one end of the floor to the other. If the outer arches spring from an angle, as in Fig. 14, the tie-rods in this bay should be anchored into the walls with large plate-washers. The tie-rods should be located in the LINES OF THRUST of the arches, which are ordinarily below the half-depth of the beams, and in some cases near the bottom flanges. If their appearance is objectionable, they should be hidden by a hung ceiling. For constructional purposes they are desirable in all types of floor-construction, even though the floors do not exert a thrust on the beams. As a rule tie-rods are proportioned and spaced according to some RULE OF THUMB rather than by actual calculations of the thrust. For the interior arches this practice is probably safe enough, but for outside spans, and particularly for segmental arches, the thrusts of the arches should be computed and the rods proportioned accordingly. The spacing of the rods is generally eight times the depth of the supporting beams, but never more than 8 ft. For interior flat-tile arches, the following rule can usually be safely followed: for spans of 6 ft or less, use ¾-in rods spaced about 5 ft apart; for 7-ft spans, ⅞-in rods, 5 ft apart and for 9-ft spans, ⅞-in rods, 4 ft apart.

The HORIZONTAL THRUST of an arch may be found by the following formula:

$$T = \frac{3\,wL^2}{2\,R}$$

in which

T = pressure or thrust in pounds per linear foot of arch;
w = load on arch in pounds per square foot, uniformly distributed;
L = span of arch in feet;
R = rise of segmental arch, or effective rise of flat arch, in inches.

The RISE of a segmental arch is measured from the springing-line to the soffit of the arch at the middle. For flat hollow-tile arches, the effective rise may be figured from the top of the beam-flange to the top of the tiles. As the tiles usually project from 1½ to 2 in below the bottom of the beams, the effective rise will be from 2 to 2½ in less than the thickness of the arch. For the interior arches of a floor, w may be taken for the live load only, but for the exterior arches, w should include both the full dead and live loads. Having found the thrust of the arch, the SPACING OF THE RODS of any particular size may be readily determined by dividing the safe load given for that size of rod in the table on page 388, allowing 16 000 lb UNIT STRESS, by the thrust. The result will be the spacing in feet.

Example. What size of tie-rods and what spacing should be used for the floor-construction described on page 868, in the preceding example?

Solution. The depth of a tile arch is 12 in, the dead load 79 lb and the assumed live load 150 lb. The span between the beams is 6½ ft. Then, for the interior arches, $w = 150$ lb, $R = 12 - 2\frac{1}{2} = 9\frac{1}{2}$ in, $L = 6\frac{1}{2}$ ft and $T = (3 \times 150 \times 42.25)/(2 \times 9\frac{1}{2}) = 1\,000$ lb. The tensile strength of a ¾-in rod, not upset, at 16 000 lb per sq in, is, from Table II, page 388, 4 832 lb. Dividing this by 1 000 we have a little less than 4 ft 10 in as the spacing. The tensile strength of a ⅞-in rod is given as 6 720 lb, which would admit of a spacing of a little more than 6 ft 8 in. For the outer spans, w should be taken at $150 + 79 = 229$ lb. Then $T = (3 \times 229 \times 42.25)/(2 \times 9\frac{1}{2}) = 1\,526$ lb. For this thrust we should use ⅞-in rods spaced about 4 ft 5 in apart.

Load-Tests. It may be desirable at times to test fire-proof floors after they have been installed. The same precautions should be taken as for tests on reinforced-concrete construction, described on page 967. If it is desired to determine from such tests the ULTIMATE STRENGTH, a section of the floor of a width equal to the span should be cut loose from the rest and loaded to destruction, the supporting steel beams being shored up during the test. The SAFE WORKING LOAD is found by dividing the BREAKING-LOAD by the proper FACTOR OF SAFETY.

5. Fire-proof Roof-Construction

Flat Roofs. Flat roofs are constructed in the same way as the floors, except that the beams and girders are set so as to give a slight pitch to the roof to drain the water. As the ROOF-LOADS are usually less than the FLOOR-LOADS and as there are no partitions to be supported, the arches or roof-panels are usually considerably lighter than the floor-panels, but the general construction is practically the same for both. When the roof is formed of reinforced concrete, the beams should be set so that the concrete will give the desired inclination to the roof, and should have a nearly uniform thickness, as this reduces the amount of concrete required, and also the weight. If the roof is to be covered with tin or copper, nailing-strips should be embedded in the concrete, as for wooden floors, and the entire roof sheathed, as it is claimed that tin or copper laid over terra-cotta or concrete will rust out in a few years.* Gravel or tile roofs may be built without woodwork of any kind. Whether terra-cotta or concrete is used for the roof-panels, the sides and bottoms of the steel beams and girders should be efficiently protected, and all columns or other structural metal in the roof-space well protected. In an ordinary building, in which there are stair-wells or elevator-wells, the roof and upper ceiling are likely to be more severely tested by heat, in case of fire, than any of the floors below, and experience has shown that this part of the building often has the poorest protection.

Pitched Roofs. Pitched roofs may be constructed in various ways, according to the material that is to be used and the kind of roofing that is to be employed. When terra-cotta is to be used for the fireproofing, the most common method of construction is that which involves the framing of the roof with I-beam rafters and T-iron purlins, set horizontally and spaced 1 in farther apart than the lengths of the tile. Between the tees, book-tiles or roofing-tiles are placed as in Fig. 61, and the roofing is applied directly to the surface of the tiles. If the roofing is to be of slate or of clay tiles, solid, porous terra-cotta blocks should be used between the tees, as the solid blocks hold the nails better than

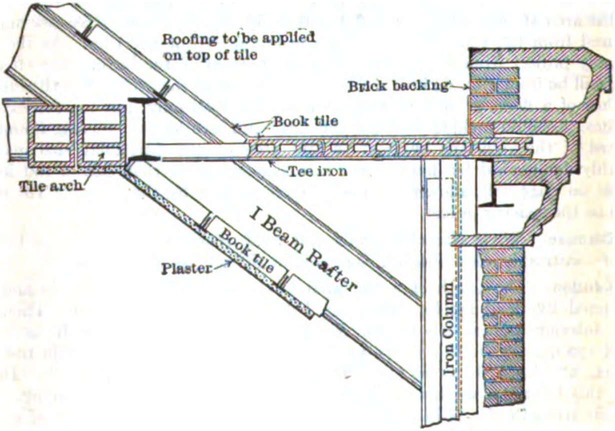


Fig. 61. Tile Fireproofing for Roof-construction

do the hollow tiles. The same construction may be used for flat roofs; but on account of the expense of the tees it will usually be more expensive than the construction above described, and not as strong or desirable. With the construction shown in Fig. 61, it is impossible, by any economical method, to efficiently protect the bottom of the T irons from the effects of heat.

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* Freitag.

Reinforced-cinder concrete, or reinforced porous terra-cotta tile, Johnson System, affords an excellent and also an economical construction for fire-proof pitched roofs. Either of these constructions may be filled between or on top of the rafters without the use of purlins, except about once in from 6 to 10 ft, to prevent sliding and to stiffen the roof.

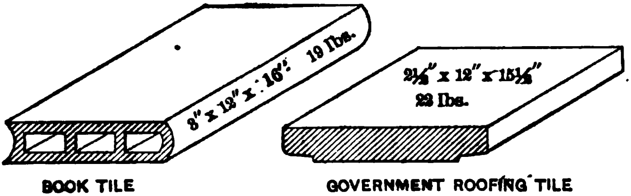

Fig. 62. Hollow Book-tile and Solid Tile for Roofs

"Three-inch plates of concrete, with expanded metal embedded, have been successfully used in spans of from 6 to 7 ft and in some cases even in 8-ft spans. The concrete is deposited on wooden centerings, as in the floor-construction, and the upper side is smoothed off during the setting and floated smooth and straight to receive the roof-covering."*

The roof-covering, usually slate, or clay tiles, may be nailed directly to the concrete, as cinder concrete holds the nails nearly as well as does wood. This applies only to cinder concrete, as it is quite impossible to nail into rock concrete or gravel concrete. In concrete roofs the rafters, also, should be surrounded with concrete held in place by metal lath. With terra-cotta roofs, the beams should be incased with terra-cotta blocks. Fig. 62 shows the standard shapes of book-tiles and solid roofing-tiles. These are made 2, 2½ and 3 in thick, and

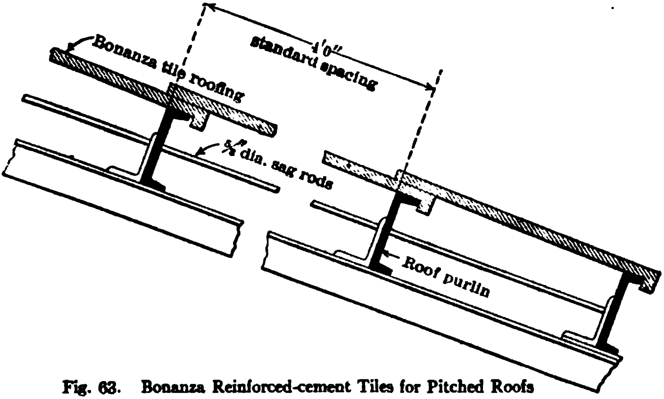

Fig. 63. Bonanza Reinforced-cement Tiles for Pitched Roofs

from 16 to 24 in long. Three-inch book-tiles weigh about 13 lb per sq ft and 2½-in solid tiles about 16 lb per sq ft. Tiles of both of these shapes are also used for ceilings and where a light, fire-proof filling is required.

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* Freitag.

Reinforced-Cement Tiles. Cement tiles of interlocking types, made in the factory and reinforced with metal fabric or mesh, may be laid without sheathing directly on steel purlins. This type of construction, however, is suitable only as a semifire-resisting roof-covering, as it is usually made with plates of insufficient thickness and does not contemplate the thorough incasing of the steel understructure with concrete or other fire-resisting materials. Bonanza Cement Tile roofing is a type of this shop-made tile and is manufactured and controlled by the American Cement Tile Manufacturing Company, Wampum, Pa. and Lincoln, N. J. Two types of tiles are made, one for pitched-roof and the other for flat-roof construction (Figs. 63 and 64). The properties of the tiles are given in the following tabulation:

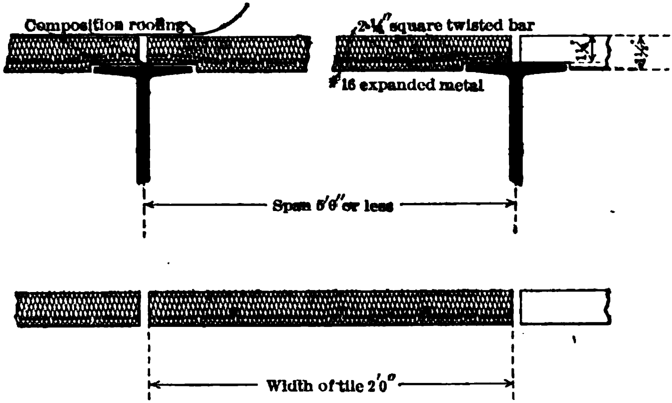

Fig. 64. Bonanza Reinforced-cement Tiles for Flat Roofs

Standard, Pitched-Roof Tiles

Thickness of tiles	⅞ in
Over-all dimensions of tiles	26 by 52 in
Tile-surface exposed to weather	24 by 48 in
Number of tiles per 100 sq ft of roof	12½
Weight of tiles per 100 sq ft of roof	1 330 lb

Standard, Flat-Roof Tiles

Width of tiles	24 in
Length of tiles	60 in or less
Thickness of tiles	1⅛ in
Reinforcement	No. 16 expanded metal and 2¼-in square, twisted bars
Weight of tiles	16 lb per sq ft

The flat-roof tiles are designed for and have been used in connection with buildings for manufacturing-plants on spans of 5 ft between purlins. On these spans they have been tested up to an ultimate live load of 250 lb per sq ft.

The top surfaces of these tiles are finished in a weather-proof and water-proof material of a dark, terra-cotta-red color.

Mansard Roofs are usually framed with rafters, riveted or bolted to wall-plates. The space between the rafters may be filled with cinder concrete, hollow partition-tiles, or blocks extending from rafter to rafter, as in Fig. 65. Slates or tiles may be nailed directly to cinder concrete or to porous terra-cotta. Probably the best way to attach slates or tiles is to nail 1¼ by 2-in wooden strips to the outer face of the concrete or terra-cotta, set them at the proper distances apart to receive the slates or tiles, and then plaster between the strips with cement mortar. This gives a better nailing for the roofing, and the wooden strips are not affected by fire until the slate is practically destroyed.

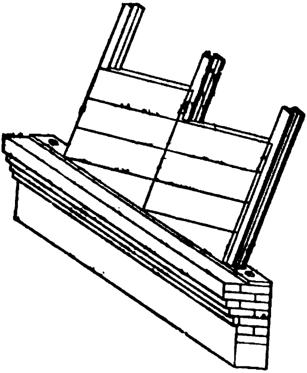

Fig. 65. Tiles for Mansard Roof

Roof-Coverings. The materials ordinarily used for the roof-covering of fire-proof buildings are: (1) tar and gravel; (2) asphalt and gravel or sand; (3) vitrified tiles, bricks or slate tiles over tarred felt. Tar and gravel, or asphalt felting and gravel, or sand, offer the cheapest roof suitable for a fire-proof building; and when a good quality of felt and distilled pitch or the best grades of asphalt are used, make a very satisfactory covering. Such roofs, however, require to be renewed about every ten years. The roofing is put on in the same manner as over wooden construction, the felt being laid directly on the concrete. Probably the best flat roof that can be put on a building is one of vitrified or slate tiles, laid over five plys of tarred felt. The felt is laid and mopped as for a gravel roof, and the tiles are bedded on the felt in cement mortar. Vitrified tiles, about 8 in square and 1½ in thick, are made for this purpose, and slate tiles, 12 in square by 1 in thick, have been used. Flat, vitrified-brick tiles, also, are used. Gravel roofing should not be used on roofs which have an inclination exceeding ¾ in in 1 ft. For pitched or inclined roofs, slates, clay tiles, or metal tiles may be used. Clay tiles are superior to slate when exposed to fire and are generally to be preferred to slate; this is especially true of some of the patent interlocking tiles. (See, also, pages 1496 to 1502, and 1509 to 1513.)

Suspended Ceilings. Office-buildings, apartment-houses, etc., having flat roofs, require ceilings below the roofs in order to make a proper finish in the rooms, and also for heat-insulation. In office-buildings the ceilings of the top story are often framed and constructed like the floors, but with a lighter construction. More often the ceilings are suspended from the roof, as this requires much less steel and is consequently much cheaper. It answers the purpose fully as well, that is, if the roof-beams are efficiently protected.

Fig. 66 shows a common construction for such ceilings. Wrought-iron hangers, about 1½ by 3/16 in or 1 by ¼ in, split at one end to hook over the lower flanges of the roof-beams, are used to support 5/16 by ¾-in flat steel bars, spaced about 4 ft on centers; and to the under-side of these are laced ¾, ⅞, or 1¼-in channels, 12 or 16 in on centers, to receive the metal lathing. The bottom of each hanger is bent at right-angles to form a seat for the bar, and the bar is laced to the hangers. No bolting or riveting is required, all connections being made by lacing wire, or by bending the iron. Where stiffened, wire lath, such as the Roebling or Clinton lath, is used, the channels may be spaced 16 in on centers; but if the ordinary expanded laths are used, it is better to place the channels 12 in on centers. If ordinary lime mortar is used for plastering, a 12-in spacing is really necessary.

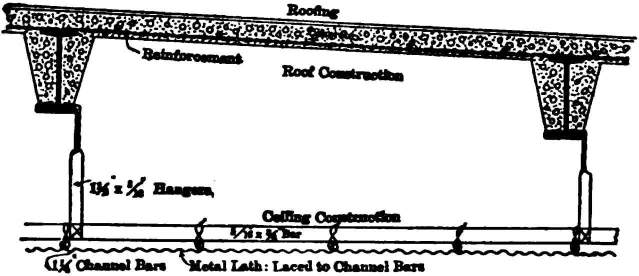

Fig. 66. Suspended-ceiling Construction

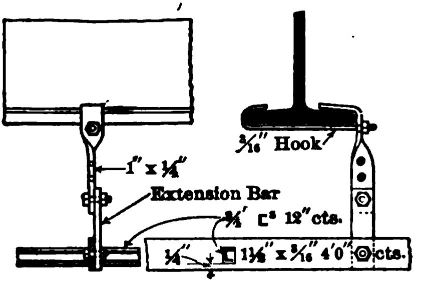

Fig. 67. Suspended Ceiling. Details of Two-bar System

Another system is one which uses only one set of horizontal bars, which are spaced close enough to receive the lathing, and which are supported by hangers. With stiffened, wire lathing, roof-beams spaced not over 5 ft apart, and short hangers, this may be the cheaper system; but without the stiffened lathing, there is no stiffness to the ceiling at right-angles to the bars. Where the hangers are 3, 4 or 5 ft long, and the spans between the beams wider than 5 ft, the two-bar system, shown in Fig. 66, requires less steel, for the reason that the channels, having spans of only 4 ft, may be made very light, and only one-third or one-fourth the number of hangers are required. In place of the small channels, small T bars or flat bars may be used, but when the bars are held by lacing, channels are preferable.

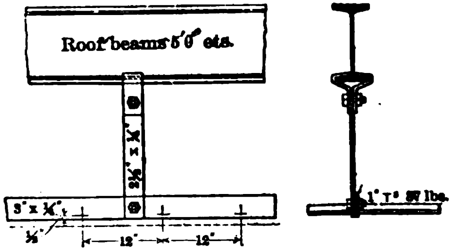

Fig. 68. Suspended Ceiling. Details of Two-bar System

Figs. 67* and 68* show very satisfactory details for the construction of the

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* From Fire Prevention and Fire Protection, J. K. Freitag, pages 687 and 688.

two-bar system. Instead of the hook shown in Fig. 67, the hanger may be split at the top, one-half bending around one side of the beam-flange and the other half around the other side. Where the ceiling is suspended below terra-cotta arches, toggle-bolts are used for the support of the hangers. The ends of the small bars supporting the lathing are usually spliced by means of sheet-iron clamps, about 6 in long, wrapped closely around the bars and hammered tight. For suspended ceilings under segmental or paneled floor-construction, the same methods are employed, except that the hangers are replaced by clips holding the ceiling-bars close to the soffits of the beams.

Steel Clips for Fastening Angles or T Bars to I Beams and Channels. Several years ago H. A. Streeter patented a steel clip for connecting angles and T bars to I beams without drilling or bolting, and they have been extensively used, particularly in roof-construction and suspended ceilings. Besides effecting a saving in doing away with the drilling and bolting required by the old method, they also enable the workmen to make the connections in less time. They afford, also, an easy method of adjusting T bars to any width of tile. Several forms of clips with their applications are illustrated in Figs. 69 and 70. Other forms, also, are made on the same principle. The safe loads which may be supported by clips like *N*, or *NN* (Fig. 70), and 1½ in wide, are as follows:

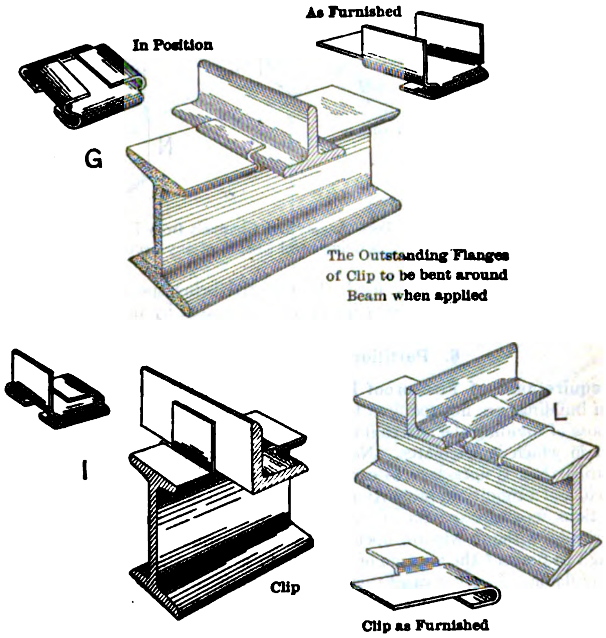

Fig. 69. Clips for Fastening Tees and Angles on I Beams and Channels

No. 12 gauge = 0.0808 in, 600 lb;
No. 14 gauge = 0.0641 in, 414 lb;
No. 16 gauge = 0.0508 in, 215 lb.

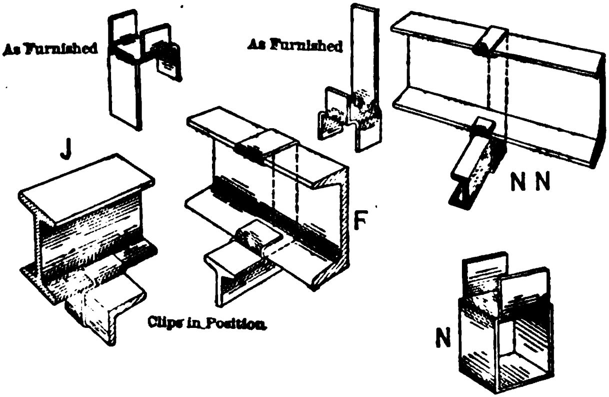

Fig. 70. Clips for Suspending Tees, Angles and Channels from I Beams and Channels. Clip *N* may be Used for Suspending Steel Shapes of any Section from Beams

No. 14 gauge is generally used, the material being specially made for this purpose. The strength of the clips may be increased by increasing the width.

6. Partitions and Wall-Coverings

Requirement of Fire-proof Partitions. As a rule the partitions in fire-proof buildings are not required to support any weight, but merely to serve the purpose of dividing the spaces into rooms, and to confine a fire to the compartment in which it originates. No greater strength, therefore, is required in a partition than is necessary to carry its own weight. Rigidity, however, is required, and a rigidity in proportion to its height and unsupported length. When partitions separate apartments or sections of a story, that is, when they are practically without window-openings or door-openings, they should be rigid enough to prevent the passage of water from a hose-stream as well as the passage of flame. In other cases this may be unnecessary; in fact, at times it may seem desirable to construct partitions which can be easily removed to get at a fire spreading through doors or windows. The materials of partitions should be incombustible. They should be poor conductors of heat. It is desirable, also, to have them unaffected by water. Lightness is a good property, as any increase in the dead weight of the construction adds to the cost of the structure. Partitions should be as sound-proof as possible. Window-openings should be avoided, when possible, in fire-proof partitions, and even door-openings should be reduced in number to a minimum. In many buildings, however, in which halls have no openings into streets or courts, such windows are necessary for lighting the halls. When this is the case the frames should be made fire-proof, wire-glass should be used, and, if possible, the sash made stationary.

Fire-Tests on Partitions. The Bureau of Buildings of New York City does not permit the use of any materials or type of construction for partitions in fire-proof buildings that have not met the required fire-tests.* The standard test of the American Society for Testing Materials is based on the New York test.† Briefly, these tests require that the partition shall resist for one hour the destructive action of a wood fire, the heat of which has been gradually increased to 1 700° F. during the first half-hour and maintained at that temperature for the balance of the time; and that it shall resist, also, for two and a half minutes at the conclusion of the fire-test, the application of a hose-stream at 30 lb pressure.

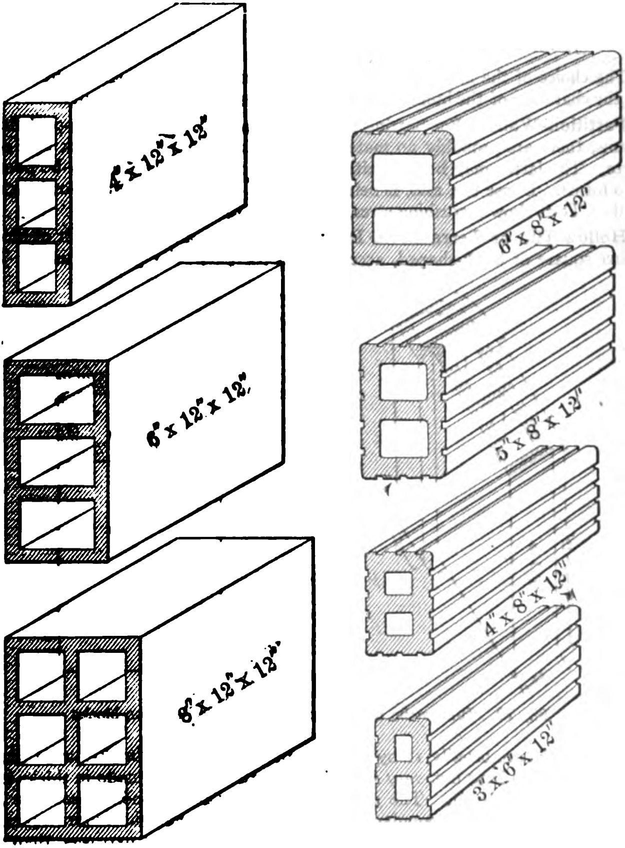

Fig. 71. Hollow-tile or Terra-cotta Partition-blocks

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* See Annual Reports, Bureau of Buildings, 1910 and 1911, for test-requirements and list of approved constructions.

† See Year-Book, Am. Soc. for Test. Mats.

Types of Partitions. Fire-proof partitions that are in common use may be grouped, according to the materials or the method of construction used, as follows:

(1) Brick;
(2) Hollow tile or terra-cotta;
(3) Concrete, stone or cinder;
(4) Plaster-block;
(5) Plaster or concrete and metal.

The choice of the materials and the type of construction is largely influenced by the character of the building and the purposes for which it is used.

Partition-Walls. For bearing-partitions, that is, those which support floor-beams, there are probably no materials more satisfactory than brick and concrete. The latter may be used either in the form of blocks, or may be poured into forms. Dense tile, also, is being used with satisfactory results for bearing-walls. Tests show a crushing strength equal to that of brick.

Hollow Tile or Terra-Cotta Partitions. These are usually built of blocks either square or brick-shaped, according to the particular product used. The square blocks are usually 12 by 12 in on the face, and the brick-shaped blocks are usually 12 in long but vary in height. Both shapes are made in thicknesses varying from 2 to 12 in. The 3, 4 and 6-in blocks are commonly used, the 4-in blocks being the most popular for ordinary work. For the more important partitions, such as stair and elevator-enclosures, nothing narrower than the 6-in blocks with the double row of cells should be used. The blocks are commonly set with the voids horizontal, as in Fig. 71, the blocks breaking joint like bricks; but at the ends of partitions and in filling small spaces they are sometimes set vertically. Fig. 71 shows typical shapes of both the square and brick-shaped blocks. Fig. 72 shows round-cornered and angle-cornered partition-blocks, which must be set vertically.

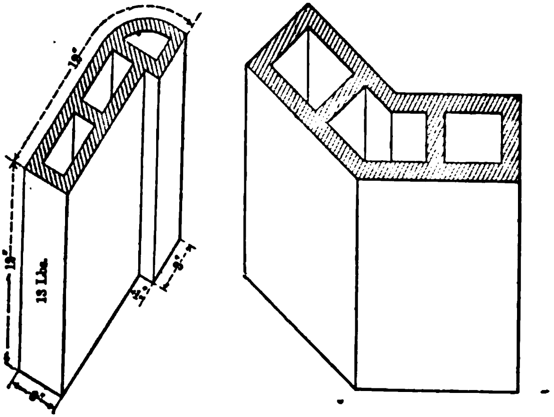

Fig. 72. Hollow-tile Round-corner and Angle Partition-blocks

"Terra-cotta partitions of a 2-in thickness have been placed on the market, but have not been extensively used. A 2-in terra-cotta partition of any strength or efficiency is quite impracticable, and where floor-area is so valuable that more space cannot be occupied, terra-cotta is not the material to be employed." * Through the addition, however, of band-iron laid between the courses and patented under the name Phœnix, the strength of a 2-in tile partition is greatly increased. The New York partition, Bevier Patent, consists of 2-in tiles, reinforced with truss-metal, such as is used in the New York floor-arch. (See Fig. 31.)

Porous versus Dense Materials. For inside partitions the POROUS materials are preferable to the DENSE, while for outside walls the dense materials should be used. With DENSE TILING it is necessary to insert either wooden nailing-strips, which are very objectionable, or blocks of porous tile to take their place.

Mortar. Tile partition-blocks should be set in mortar made of one part lime-putty, two parts cement and from two to three parts sand. The blocks should be well wet before setting and the partition wet down before the plastering is applied.

Heights and Lengths of Terra-Cotta Partitions. "The safe HEIGHT of terra-cotta partitions in inches may be approximated by multiplying the thickness in inches by 40. Common practice allows a safe height of 12 ft for 3-in, 16 ft for 4-in and 20 ft for 6-in partitions. For partitions without side-supports the LENGTH should not materially exceed the safe height. Doors and high windows may be considered as side supports, provided the studs run from floor to ceiling." *

Weight. The WEIGHTS of either POROUS or DENSE terra-cotta partitions vary as follows:

2-in partition, from 10 to 14 lb per sq ft;
3-in partition, from 12 to 16 lb per sq ft;
4-in partition, from 13 to 19 lb per sq ft;
5-in partition, from 20 to 22 lb per sq ft;
6-in partition, from 22 to 23 lb per sq ft;
8-in partition, from 28 to 33 lb per sq ft;

not including plastering, which adds about 10 lb per sq ft for both sides.

Concrete Partitions. Partitions of stone concrete are seldom used because of the forms necessary for their erection, which make them comparatively expensive. Unless reinforced they take up too much room. Furthermore they are the heaviest of all partitions. Even in buildings that are entirely of reinforced concrete they are not always used. Cinder-concrete partitions are somewhat lighter and considerably cheaper than those of stone concrete. Yet even these are too heavy and too troublesome to construct to be satisfactory. Among the partitions tested and approved by the New York City Building Bureau is one that consists of cinder-concrete blocks, 2½ and 3 in thick, the thicker ones being hollow, 12 in high and 18 in long. They have their edges cast with tongues and grooves that furnish more or less of a bond between the blocks when they are set. Hollow, concrete building-blocks make fairly good partitions, but are objectionable on account of their thickness.

Plaster-Block Partitions. Blocks made of plaster of Paris combined with various substances, such as cinders, wood chips, cocoanut fiber, asbestos, etc., have been largely used for partitions in fire-proof buildings; but while they are to be preferred to partitions built with wooden studding, and resist fire for a considerable period of time, they cannot be considered as absolutely fire-proof, or suitable for first-class fire-proof buildings. The principal advantage claimed for these partitions is their great lightness and reduced cost when compared with terra-cotta tiles. Plaster-blocks can be readily cut with a saw, and have a considerable holding-power for nails. In the thirty-odd fire-tests, made for the Bureau of Buildings, New York City, they have generally shown considerable resistance to the flame and have transmitted less heat than partitions of any other form. They did not, however, always stand the hose-stream, some of them being easily pierced, and all of them being more or less washed away by the water. An objectionable characteristic of these blocks is their tendency to absorb moisture while being stored and to draw water from the plastering when it is applied. This moisture works down to the bottom of the partition where it is likely to injure the wooden base.

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* Freitag.

These partitions are made in THICKNESSES varying from 2 to 4 in, those less than 3 in in thickness generally being solid. Hollow blocks should always be set with the cells horizontal. The edges of the blocks are generally grooved or otherwise arranged so that the mortar joint forms a key between them. In some forms of plaster-block partitions the blocks are BONDED together by means of metal dowels,* running across the horizontal and vertical joints from one block into the adjoining one, as shown in Fig. 73. The cut illustrates the use of the block in the construction of dumb-waiter shafts and shows how the blocks are anchored at the corners by iron dowel-angles. A lime-and-cement mortar is generally used in laying plaster-blocks, or a mortar of the retardant, GYPSUM-TYPE; and occasionally fibered gypsum plaster, tempered with sand, may be employed. All of the partitions in the newer portions of the Monadnock Block, Chicago, and in many other prominent buildings of Chicago and New York City are of plaster-blocks.

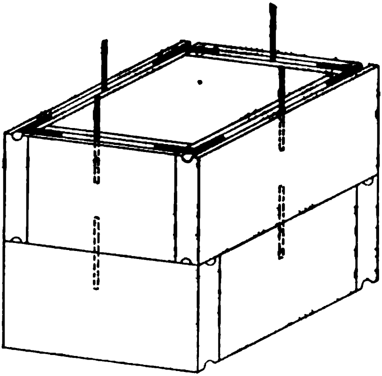

Fig. 73. Plaster-blocks. Doweled Construction

Plaster-blocks make the lightest practical partition known. The weight of the blocks per square foot may be taken as follows:

Thickness of block, inches...	2	2½	3	3½	4	5	6	8	12
Weight in lb per sq ft.......	7	8½	9½	10½	12	15	18	22	36

The plaster-boards, 1 in thick, weigh 4 lb per sq ft. About 8 lb per sq ft should be added to the weight of the partition-tile to obtain the weight of the partition when plastered on both sides.

Mackolite. A plaster block extensively used is the Mackolite Hollow Block, made by the Mackolite Fireproofing Company of Chicago, Ill. Mackolite partition tiles are generally made in the form shown in Fig. 74, and in 3, 3½ 4, 6, 8 and 12-in thicknesses. The 3, 3½ and 4-in tiles are made 48 and the others 50 in long, all the tiles being 12 in high. The blocks are laid in regular courses, breaking joint as in cut-stone work. Lime mortar is used for setting. In fitting around openings or at angles the blocks are cut with a saw: and this effects a material saving in time and material. It is claimed that the blocks make very strong partitions. The composition of the blocks is plaster of Paris mixed with certain chemicals, reeds and fiber. Reeds of the same length as the blocks are placed in the molds and the plaster of Paris and fiber is then mixed with water, to which the chemical has been added, and poured around the reeds so that they are nowhere exposed. The reeds give longitudinal strength to the blocks while the fiber makes them tough and elastic. The material sets in about half an hour, after which the blocks are kiln-dried for four days.

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* Patented by the Sanitary Fireproofing and Contracting Co., New York City.

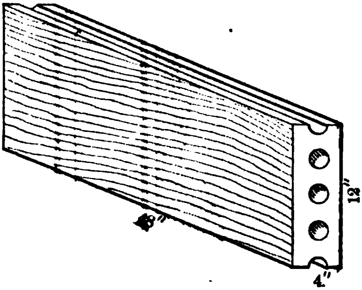


Fig. 74. Mackolite Partition-blocks

Gypsinite Partitions. What promises to be an economical fire-proof material for partitions has recently been put on the market by the Gypsinite Company, of New York City. The main feature of these partitions is the stud which is handled and erected in the same manner as a wooden stud in the ordinary non-fire-proof partitions. The stud is composed of wooden nailing-strips completely protected and embedded in a material known as Gypsinite concrete, a plaster-composition and not a true concrete. The studs are carefully made and are plumb and true. Metal lath or plaster-boards are secured to the studs and plastered, completing the partition, which is about 4½ in thick. (Fig. 75.) This partition is slightly heavier than the ordinary partition of wooden construction. It is quite as stiff and as strong as a good tile or other partition, and the nailing-strip feature of the studding facilitates the application of a wooden trim. It is said to be particularly sound-proof, and the spaces between the studs afford an opportunity to conceal pipes, wires, etc. Gypsinite studs in stock size are 3 by 3 by 12 in, and weigh ⅔ lb to the foot. They can be made any size required. In the partitions the studs are usually placed 16 in on centers and bridged as may be required. They are fastened to the floor or ceiling by the use of sills and plates of the same material, or by light channel-irons, which are spiked to the fireproofing. The manufacturers believe that in large quantities these studs can be furnished as cheaply as wooden studs and that the partitions can be erected as cheaply as ordinary lath-and-plaster partitions.

Solid, Plaster-and-Metal Partitions. Thin partitions of plaster applied to metal lath and metal studs, made solid and finished about 2 in thick, have been extensively used in fire-proof buildings. They are remarkably stiff, owing to the adhesion of the plaster to the steel, and they are lighter and occupy less space than any other practical fire-proof partition of equal strength. In the fire-tests these partitions act very much like the plaster-block partitions, resisting thoroughly the passage of the flames. But the plaster always washes off when the hose is applied and the lath becomes exposed. The rigidity of the metal fabric on the metal studding has been considered by firemen a disadvantage, as it is very difficult to cut through it when necessary to get at a fire. The construction of these partitions is practically the same for the different fabrics used, which are described on pages 848 to 852. This lath or fabric appears to be subject to the CORROSIVE EFFECTS of the plaster. In the demolition of the Pabst Building, New York City, the metal lath used throughout in the partitions was found to be considerably corroded, after about four years, even though the lath had been painted. The subject is now being investigated by the United States Bureau of Standards. The lath should in all cases be protected against initial or incipient corrosion by painting or galvanizing before being embedded in the cementitious material.

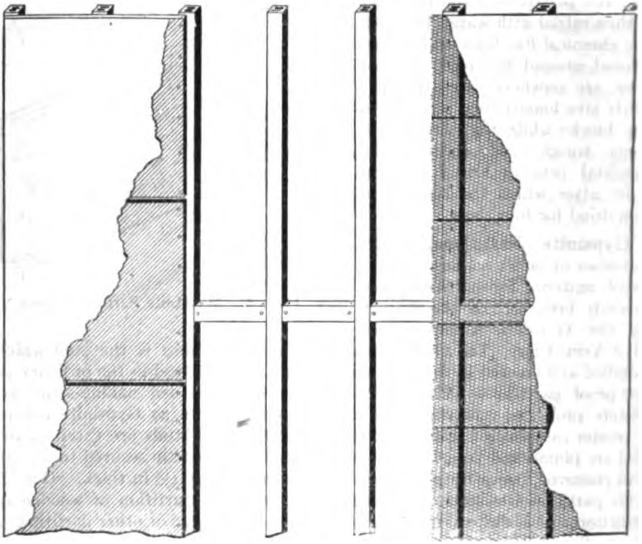


Fig. 75. Gypsinite Studs and Metal Lath and Plaster

Weight of Plaster-and-Metal Partitions. The WEIGHT of a 2-in solid partition, when dry, is about 20 lb per sq ft. The weight of partitions of greater thickness may be estimated on a basis of 120 lb per cu ft for plaster and 96 lb for cinder concrete, slightly tamped.

Construction of Solid Two-Inch Partitions. Figs. 76 and 77 show the usual method of constructing 2-in partitions. The studs, usually ¾ or 1-in channels, are bent and punched at the ends, and at the bottom are nailed to wooden strips, which are first secured to the floor-panels, or to the top of the steel beams where the partitions come over them. These wooden strips have been found necessary as a sort of cushion to allow the studding to expand in case of fire. At the top, the studs are nailed to the underside of the floor-panels, or, if there is a suspended ceiling, they are wired to the bars supporting the ceiling. At the openings, 1 by 1 by 3/16-in angles are used, and these are bored every 16 in for No. 12 screws, used in attaching the rough wooden frames to the angles. After the studding is in position, the metal lathing is laced to one side of it with No. 18 galvanized wire. After the lathing is in place the carpenter should attach wooden grounds to secure the base, chair-rail, picture-molding, etc. These grounds are secured by staples, and when the partition is plastered, become very rigid. In plastering these partitions, five coats of plaster are required to make a good job; a scratch-coat on one side, a brown coat on each side, and the usual white coat on each side for finishing. It is essential for all thin partitions that a HARD-SETTING mortar be used, such as Acme Cement, King's Windsor Cement, Adamant, Rock Wall Plaster and many others. The partitions acquire their STIFFNESS largely from the solidity of the plastering, hence the firmer and harder the plastering the more substantial the walls.

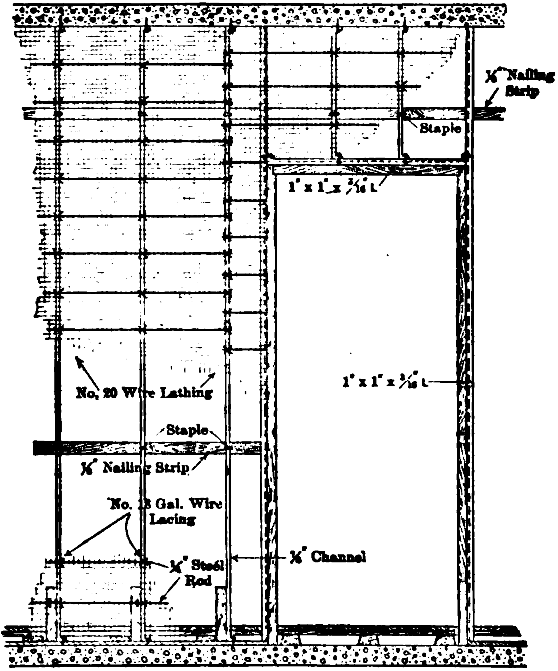


Fig. 76. Two-inch Solid Plaster Partition. Elevation

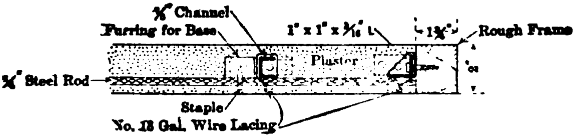


Fig. 77. Two-inch Solid Plaster Partition. Horizontal Section

Double Partitions. Electric wires and ½-in gas-pipes can be run in the 2-in SOLID PARTITIONS; but if it is desired to run larger pipes, DOUBLE PARTITIONS, that is, partitions with lathing on each side of the studding must be used. For these partitions, 2, 3 or 4-in channels or flat bars set edgewise may be used, sheet-steel channels being probably the most economical. When the space between the studs is not filled with mortar or concrete, the DOUBLE PARTITION will not stand fire and water as well as the SOLID PARTITION, while it is much more expensive.

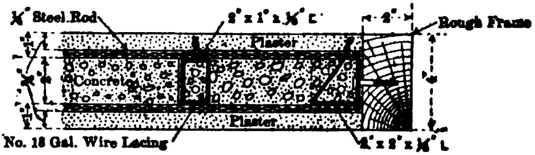


Fig. 78. Four-inch Solid Plaster and Concrete Partition. Horizontal Section

Construction of Solid Four-Inch Partitions. Fig. 78 shows a partial section through a SOLID PARTITION finishing 4 in thick when plastered. It has great strength and resistance to fire and water, and affords convenient spaces for pipes and thicker jambs for door-frames. These partitions have cores of cinder concrete, with metal lath on both sides, and are plastered in the usual way. As the concrete will receive nails, no wooden furring is required to fasten the base-boards, chair-rails and picture-molding in place.

Berger's Economy Studding and Furring. Fig. 79 illustrates a patent stud manufactured by the Berger Manufacturing Company, Canton, Ohio. It is made of No. 18 or No. 20 sheet steel, and in five sizes, varying from ¾ to 1¼ in. The peculiar advantage of this stud is the provision for attaching the lath. For this purpose prongs are punched from both sides of the flange, which are left standing at right-angles to the face of the flange. The lath is placed against the stud, the prongs pressed through the meshes and then turned up over the lath with a hammer. This fastens the lath more firmly and securely than by any other method. The ends of the studs are secured by sockets which are fastened to the floor and ceiling, a clear space being left above the top of the studs for expansion. Where partitions intersect or where there are angles, angle-irons with prongs are used in place of the T irons. By using these studs and expanded-metal lathing, a saving in cost can be effected over the construction shown in Fig. 77. These T's are used, also, for supporting suspended ceilings under I beams, the T's being secured to the flanges of the beams by specially designed clips. Furring-strips and channels, also, are made on the same principle.

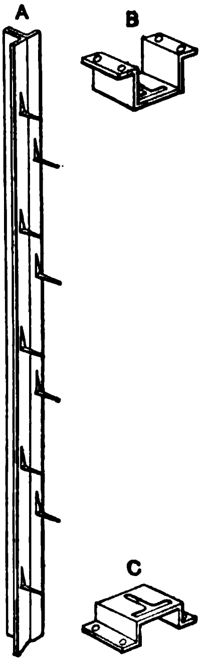
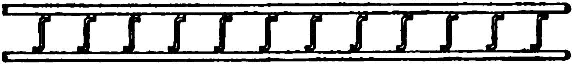


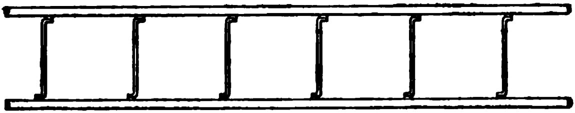
Fig. 79. Berger Studding or Furring and Stud-sockets

Spacing of Studs in Two-Inch Solid Partitions. For 2-in solid partitions with ¾-in rolled channels or 1-in Economy Studs, the studs should be placed 12 in on centers when the height of the story exceeds 10 ft. When the height of the story is less than 10 ft, a spacing of 16 in will answer. For hollow partitions with 2-in studs, the studs can be spaced 16 in on centers for story-heights of 16 ft and less. For greater heights they should be placed 12 in on centers.

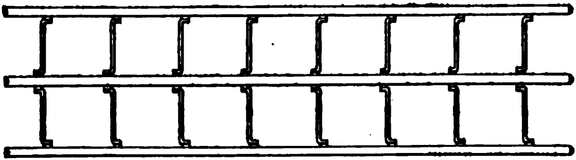
Rib Stud. In Fig. 80 is shown the Rib Stud made by the Trussed Concrete Steel Company, Detroit, Mich. It is made in widths of 2¼, 3¼, 4¼, 6¼ and 8¼ in; and in lengths up to 18 ft. The studs are made of OPEN-HEARTH STEEL, the two-rib studs weighing 0.55 lb per ft and the three-rib studs, 0.85 lb per ft. For 2-in SOLID PARTITIONS with ¾ or 1-in channels or studs, the studs should be spaced from 12 to 16 in on centers, depending upon the stiffness and rigidity of the lath. A 12-in spacing should never be exceeded when the height of story is more than 12 ft. For HOLLOW PARTITIONS with 2-in studs, the studs can be spaced 16 in on centers for story-heights of 16 ft or less, when No. 24 (United States gauge) expanded metal or No. 18 (United States gauge) wire lath, 2½ by 2½ mesh, are employed. For greater heights the spacing should never exceed 12 in. No. 22 (United States gauge) expanded metal, weighing at least 4½ lb per yard, and No. 20 gauge V-stiffened wire lath or wire lath with rods or stiffeners spaced 7½ to 8 in on centers, gives satisfactory rigidity for both partitions and ceilings when the studs or furring-strips are set 16 in on centers. Lath should be wired to the metal studding with No. 18 gauge annealed galvanized wire.



2¼ Inches and 3¼ Inches Wide.



4¼ Inches Wide.



6¼ Inches and 8¼ Inches Wide.

Fig. 80. Rib-stud for Plaster Partitions

Metal Lath. Numerous styles of METAL LATH have been put on the market in recent years to provide for a cheap, light and thin partition-construction. For fire-proof buildings METAL STUDDING should always be used. Metal lath is supplied either plain, painted or galvanized. It is recommended that metal lath be always at least painted to prevent initial corrosion until the lath can be covered by the mortar. Galvanizing is necessary where there is danger of moisture reaching the lath while it is without a protective coat of lime or cement. Where a particular type of lath is not mentioned in a specification, it should be generally described as follows: "painted or galvanized No. 24-gauge expanded-metal lath, weighing not less than 3⅓ lb per sq yd, or painted or galvanized woven-wire cloth, No. 19 gauge, 2½ meshes to the inch, with stiffeners placed 8 in on centers and weighing not less than 3⅓ lb per sq yd." Metal lath should be so made that it will take plaster freely, key it thoroughly and wholly embed itself in it. These are characteristics of expanded-metal and woven-wire laths which make them superior to sheet lath. Sheet laths are economical in the use of mortar, which merely covers one side of the lath and latches through the perforations without thoroughly embedding the metal.

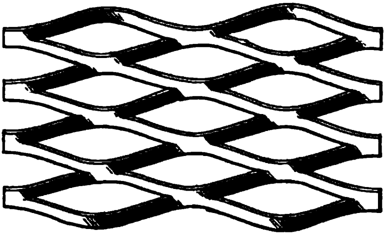


Fig. 81. Expanded-metal Lath with Diamond-shaped Mesh

The difficulty of stretching plain wire lath tight enough to make a firm foundation for plaster and the resulting necessity for a close spacing of the studs to secure the required bearing, has led to the introduction of stiffened wire cloth and ribbed or corrugated expanded metal in order to obtain the necessary rigidity. To overcome the necessity for separate bearing-studs, expanded-metal and sheet-metal laths are manufactured also in a one-piece steel-lath-and-stud.

EXPANDED METALS differ in the process of manufacture. One type is made by simply slitting the sheet and deploying it into the diamond shape; the other type is made from thin strips of soft, tough steel by a mechanical process which pushes out and expands the metal into the mesh and at the same time reverses the direction of the edge, so that the flat surface of the cut strand is nearly at right-angles to the general surface of the sheet. It is claimed that the COLD WORKING of this low-carbon steel increases the ELASTIC LIMIT and ULTIMATE STRENGTH. In specifying expanded metal, it is necessary to give the weight of the finished product per square yard as well as the gauge of metal, as the strands may be of various widths. EXPANDED METAL is made either with diamond-shaped (Fig. 81) or rectangular meshes (Fig. 82). When laid with the long strands perpendicular to the studs, the lath with the rectangular mesh is the stronger of the two. Rigidity is also obtained by corrugating and expanding the metal in various forms, which make the so-called

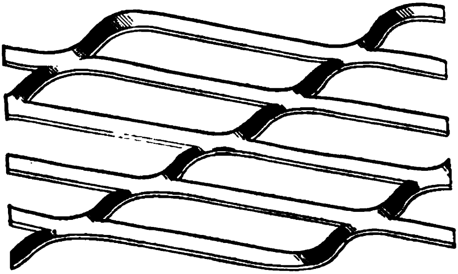


Fig. 82. Expanded-metal Lath with Rectangular Mesh

ribbed, corrugated and integral laths. WIRE CLOTH is stiffened by clipping corrugated-steel furring-strips to the lath or by weaving or welding rods or V-shaped stiffeners at regular intervals.

Types of Metal Lath. Metal lath may be classified as follows:

(1) Expanded-metal lath;
    (*a*) Diamond and rectangular mesh,
    (*b*) Ribbed or corrugated,
    (*c*) Integral, combining functions of both lath and studding,
(2) Sheet lath;
    (*a*) Flat perforated,
    (*b*) Integral, combining functions of both lath and studding,
(3) Woven-wire lath;
    (*a*) Plain,
    (*b*) Stiffened.

Some of the laths and their characteristics are given in the following paragraphs.

(1) Expanded-Metal Lath

Imperial Spiral Expanded Lath, made by the American Rolling Mill Company, Middletown, Ohio, comes in sheets 16¼ by 96 in, of Nos. 24 and 26 gauge, weighing respectively 4 and 3 lb per sq yd. This special-twist lath has been used extensively in United States Government work.

Rotary Diamond-Mesh Lath. This lath is made by the Berger Manufacturing Company, Canton, Ohio. It is furnished in sheets 18 by 96 in, of Nos. 27, 26, 25 and 24 gauge, weighing respectively 2⅛ lb, 2½ lb, 3 lb and 3.4 lb per sq yd. It is made of Toncan Metal for which greater HOMOGENEITY is claimed than for charcoal-iron and steel, and less liability to CORROSION or PITTING.

Bostwick Lath. Bostwick lath is made by the Bostwick Steel Lath Company, Niles, Ohio. It is furnished in sheets 14 by 96 in, approximately 1 sq yd, and is made in Nos. 24 and 27 gauge.

Steelcrete Lath. This material is manufactured by the Consolidated Expanded Metal Company, Pittsburgh, Pa., and is furnished in two styles, known as Steelcrete A and Steelcrete B lath, for exterior stucco-work, and in the style known as Steelcrete Diamond lath, for interior work. The Steelcrete A lath is made in Nos. 22 and 24 United States gauge, in sheets 18 by 96 in, and weighs 4.37 and 3.56 lb per sq yd. Steelcrete B lath is made in No. 27 gauge, and weighs 2.41 lb per sq yd. The Steelcrete Diamond lath is made in sheets 24 and 27 in wide and 96 in long, in Nos. 24 and 27 United States gauge, weighing respectively 3.57 and 2.48 lb per sq yd.

A Diamond-Mesh Lath is made by the Eastern Expanded Metal Company, Boston, Mass., in the following sizes: No. 22 gauge, in sheets 20¼ by 96 in, weighing 4 lb per sq yd; No. 24 gauge, in sheets 22½ by 96 in and 30 by 96 in, weighing 3 lb per sq yd; and No. 26 gauge, in sheets 24 by 96 in, weighing 2½ lb per sq yd. This company makes also two types of lath of rectangular mesh. The A Lath is No. 24 gauge, in sheets 18 by 96 in, and the B Lath is No. 27 gauge, in sheets 20¾ by 96 in. The EMCO lath is lower in price than the diamond-mesh lath and is made in Nos. 24 and 27 gauge, the sheets being 27 by 96 in.

Economy Expanded-Metal Lath, made by the Garry Iron and Steel Company, Niles, Ohio, is furnished in sheets 18 by 96 in, in Nos. 27, 26, 25 and 24 gauge, weighing respectively 2⅛, 2½, 3 and 3⅜ lb per sq yd.

Key Expanded-Metal Lath, made by the General Fireproofing Company, Youngstown, Ohio, is furnished in sheets 24 by 96 in, in Nos. 27, 26, 25 and 24 gauge, weighing respectively 2.34, 2.50, 3.00 and 3.40 lb per sq yd.

Kno-Burn Lath, made by the North Western Expanded Metal Company, Chicago, Ill., is furnished in sheets 18 by 96 in, in Nos. 27, 26, 25 and 24 gauge, weighing respectively 2⅛, 2½, 3 and 3.4 lb per sq yd. When made from a special ACID-RESISTING sheet steel, this lath is sold under the name XX Century Expanded Metal Lath.

An Expanded-Metal Lath is manufactured by the Roebling Construction Company, of New York City, in rolls which are to be applied parallel to the furring, thus eliminating all transverse laps between the studs. It is made in rolls of 150 lin ft and in widths of 25 and 33 in, for furring set 12 and 16 in on centers. The material is furnished in Nos. 24 and 26 United States gauge, either galvanized or painted.

Ribbed or Corrugated Lath. Cleveland lath, made by the Garry Iron and Steel Company, Niles, Ohio, is a corrugated diamond-mesh lath, furnished in two grades, A and B, the former being the more suitable for stucco. The A lath is made in sheets 16½ by 96 in, of No. 27 and 24-gauge metal, weighing respectively 3⅛ and 4 lb per sq yd; and the B lath, in sheets 18 by 96 in, of Nos. 27 and 24-gauge metal weighing respectively 2⅝ and 3⅜ lb per sq yd. One-eighth pound per square yard should be added to the weights if the lath is galvanized. This lath is reversible, the two sides being identical.

Herringbone Expanded-Metal Lath (Fig. 83), made by The General Fireproofing Company, Youngstown, Ohio, is furnished in two styles, A and BB. Style A is made in sheets 13½ by 96 in (1 sq yd), of No. 28-gauge metal, weighing 3 lb per sq yd. Style BB is made in sheets 20¼ by 96 in (1¼ sq yd), of Nos. 27, 26 and 24-gauge metal, weighing respectively 2¼, 2½ and 3⅜ lb per sq yd. It is made of American INGOT-IRON with RUST-RESISTING properties. Ribs are set across studs and slope down towards them.

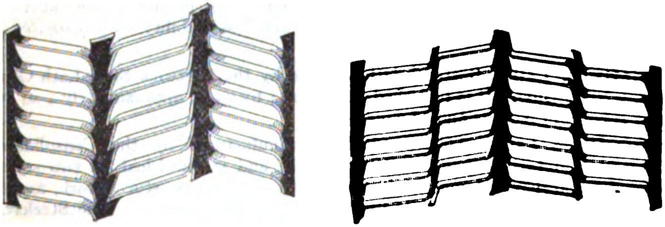


Fig. 83. Expanded-metal Lath, Herringbone Mesh

Sykes Expanded Cup-Lath, made by the Sykes Metal Lath and Roofing Company, Niles, Ohio, is furnished in sheets 18 by 96 in, with an antirust coating, or painted black, or galvanized. It is made of Nos. 27, 26 and 24-gauge metal, weighing respectively 2.8, 3 and 3.7 lb per sq yd.

Standard Rib-Lath, made by the Trussed Concrete Steel Company, Detroit, Mich., is furnished in sheets 20¼ by 96 in, in grades 1, 2 and 3, weighing respectively 2.74, 3.42 and 4.10 lb per sq yd. This company makes also the Beaded Plate Rib-Lath, which is about 35% heavier and more rigid, permitting wider spacing of the studs.

Kno-Fur Lath, made by the North Western Expanded Metal Company, Chicago, Ill., is furnished in sheets 22 by 96 in, of Nos. 24, 25, 26 and 27-gauge metal, weighing respectively 3.80, 3.36, 2.82 and 2.62 lb per sq yd. This lath has ribs running obliquely across the sheets at the same angle as the strands of the mesh. This corrugation is said to give the lath greater RIGIDITY so that it can be used on 32-in centers for walls and on 24-in centers for ceilings. The corrugations act as furring-strips. It is made from a special ACID-RESISTING STEEL and is always supplied painted.

Integral Expanded-Metal Lath. Truss-metal lath, Fig. 84, made by the American Rolling Mill Company, Middletown, Ohio, is furnished in sheets 28 by 90 in, of Nos. 26 and 28-gauge metal, weighing respectively 80 and 66.7 lb per 100 sq ft. A partition constructed of this lath in one of the test-structures at Columbia University, New York City, passed through and withstood, without any sign of distress, the fire and hose-streams of five successive tests.

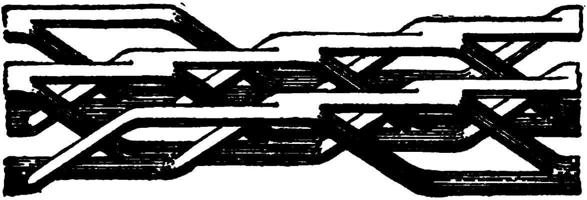


Fig. 84. Truss Metal Lath

Self-Sentering, made by the General Fireproofing Company, Youngstown, Ohio, is furnished in sheets 28 in wide and of any desired length up to 14 ft, of Nos. 28, 26 and 24-gauge metal, weighing respectively 0.60, 0.72 and 0.96 lb per sq ft. The lath may also be obtained in special gauges from Nos. 24 to 30 inclusive. The width of 28 in means the covering capacity, as laps are provided for by outside ribs. This company makes, also, a lath known as Trussit, in sheets 15½ in wide and in lengths up to 12 ft, of Nos. 27, 26 and 24-gauge metal, weighing respectively 0.71, 0.77 and 1.02 lb per sq ft. (See, also, page 859.)

Hy-Rib, made by the Trussed Concrete Steel Company, Detroit, Mich., is furnished in three types known as 4-Rib, 3-Rib and Deep Rib. The first is in sheets 10¼ in wide and the others in sheets 14 in wide. (See, also, page 859.) All styles are furnished in Nos. 24, 26 and 28-gauge metal. The standard lengths are 6, 8, 10 and 12 ft. Other lengths below 12 ft are cut, but the waste is at the cost of the purchaser. Hy-Rib sheets interlock at the sides and ends. In ordering, no allowance need be made for side laps, but for end-laps 2 in should be allowed for laps over supports, or 8 in between supports.

(2) Sheet Lath

Clinched Lath, made by the American Rolling Mill Company, Middletown, Ohio, is furnished in sheets 13½ by 96 in (1 sq yd), of No. 30-gauge metal, weighing 4½ lb per sq yd.

Truss-Loop Lath, Fig. 85, made by the Bostwick Steel Lath Company, Niles, Ohio, is furnished in sheets 13½ by 96, 16¼ by 80 and 24 by 96 in, weighing 4¾ lb per sq yd. This lath is furnished painted unless otherwise specified.

Genfire Sheet-Steel Lath, made by the General Fireproofing Company, Youngstown, Ohio, is furnished in sheets 13½ by 96 in (1 sq yd), and 24 by 96 in, weighing 4¾ lb per sq yd, painted unless otherwise specified.

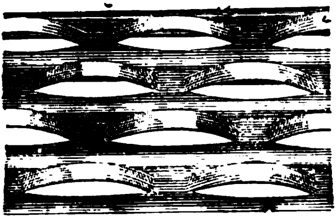


Fig. 85. Bostwick Truss-loop Lath

Sykes Trough Sheet Lath, made by the Sykes Metal Lath and Roofing Company, Niles, Ohio, is furnished in sheets 13½ by 96 in (1 sq yd), 15½ by 96, 18½ by 96 and 23½ by 96 in, weighing 5 lb per sq yd, and made with an antirust coating, or painted or galvanized.

Integral Sheet Lath. Rib-Truss, made by the Berger Manufacturing Company, Canton, Ohio, is furnished in widths of 24 in and in stock lengths of 4, 5, 6, 8, 10 and 12 ft, as follows:

Gauge	Weight per square yard in pounds		
	1½-in rib	¾-in rib	1-in rib
27	73	78	83
28	81	86	92
26	88	94	100
24	117	125	133

(3) Woven-Wire Lath

Woven-Wire Lath is furnished with or without stiffeners, which are either rods or V-shaped ribs running through the wire mesh to reinforce and stiffen it. It is supplied painted or unpainted, or it is galvanized after weaving. It can be furnished to order in any required width up to 10 ft. In widths less than 18 in, there is a small charge for stripping. Before ordering, it is very important to ascertain the proper width, especially in stiffened lath, as it is desirable to have the edges of the lath lap at the supports where it is laced to iron furring. When the lath is not of the proper width the results are not so good and there is liable to be a waste of material. The standard width of plain and of V-rib stiffened lath is 36 in. When beams or studs are spaced 16 in from center to center, the lath should be 32 or 48 in wide.

The Clinton Stiffened Lath has corrugated-steel furring-strips attached every 8 in, crosswise of the fabric, by means of metal clips. These strips constitute the furring and the lath is applied directly to the underside of the floor-joists, or to planking, furring, brick walls, etc. This lath is made in 36-in widths, with 2½ meshes to the inch, and comes in 100-ft rolls. The manufacturers of this lath make, also, a lath stiffened with round rods, ⅛ to 1 in in diameter, spaced from 8 to 12 in apart. It can be had either galvanized or japanned, and in thicknesses from 18 to 21 gauge. Clinton plain wire lath is furnished in rolls 200 ft long.

The Roebling Standard Wire Lath is made of plain wire cloth, in which, at intervals of 7½ in, stiffening ribs are woven. These ribs have a V-shaped section and are made of No. 24 sheet steel, ½ and 1 in in depth. The ½-in rib is the standard size for lathing on woodwork. This lathing requires no furring, and is applied directly to woodwork or to walls with steel nails driven through the bottom of the V, as shown in Fig. 86. The No. 20 V-rib stiffened lathing affords a satisfactory surface for plastering, when attached to studs or beams spaced 16 in apart. The 1-in V-rib lathing is used for furring exterior walls. It provides an air-space between the wall and plaster. Where this lath is to be applied to light iron furring a 3/16 or ¼-in solid steel rod is substituted for the V-rib, and the lathing is attached to light iron furring with lacing wire. This lath is distinguished from the others by the term Solid-Rib Stiffened Wire Lath. The Roebling lath, whether plain or stiffened, is made with 2 by 2, 2½ by 2½ and 2½ by 4-in mesh, the last named being known as CLOSE WARP. The 2½ by 2½ mesh is adapted to all plasters containing the usual proportion of hair or fiber. The 2½ by 4-in mesh should be used for hard plasters and thin partitions. The lath can be furnished in widths up to 10 ft, the rolls averaging 50 yd in length.

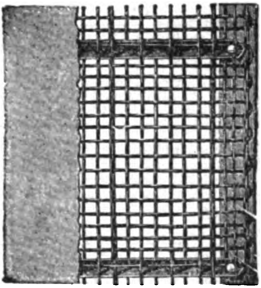


Fig. 86. Roebling V-rib Stiffened Wire Lath

Sackett's Wall-Board. This is a composite board of three layers of pure gypsum and four thin layers of wool-felt, the whole being ¼, ⅜ or ½ in thick. The boards are 32 by 36 in in size, can be nailed to wooden studding or set flat against solid beams or planks, and can be cut with a saw. They have the advantage of being very light and of requiring but little plastering material, and a consequent reduction in the amount of water used in plastering. When the saving in the amount of plastering is taken into account, this plaster-board costs less than metal lath and but a trifle more than wooden lath with three coats of plaster. For plastering, the best results are obtained by applying first a brown coat of hard wall-plaster, ¼ to ⅜ in thick, and when this is thoroughly set, finishing it with a thin coat of regular hard finish of lime-putty and plaster. Tests and investigations at the Underwriters' Laboratories "have shown Sacket Board, Perfection Brand, to be suitable as a base for fibered gypsum plasters, and when attached to walls, ceilings and partitions and coated with ½ in of plaster possess fire-retarding properties considerably higher than those of wooden lath with gypsum or lime-and-cement plaster." The Perfection Brand, Sackett's Wall-Board, is ⅜ in thick, and is attached with No. 10½, ½-in, flat-headed, ¾-barbed wire nails, 1¼ in long, and spaced not more than 6 in at each support.

Metal-Rib Plaster-Board is composed of alternate layers of strong absorbent paper reinforced with fine annealed wire about 2 in on centers, and stiffened transversely with ½-in iron bands, No. 32 gauge, placed 8 in on centers. The material is made up to a total thickness of about 1/16 in, impregnated with a coal-tar product, and provided every 2 in with 3/16-in circular holes to key the plaster. This is added to the adhesive effect of the absorbent paper. It is furnished in rolls 85 ft long and 34 in wide, nailed directly to the studs or beams set 12 or 16 in on centers, and lapped 2 in at all joints. This board is recommended for use with hard-plaster mortars only, and forms a satisfactory basis for three-coat work, in which the lap-joint obviates the cracking frequently associated with ordinary plaster-board construction.

Shaft-Construction. The most important partitions in a building are those inclosing interior shafts. Vertical openings through buildings form flues and cause up-drafts. In all buildings, fire-proof as well as non-fire-proof, therefore,

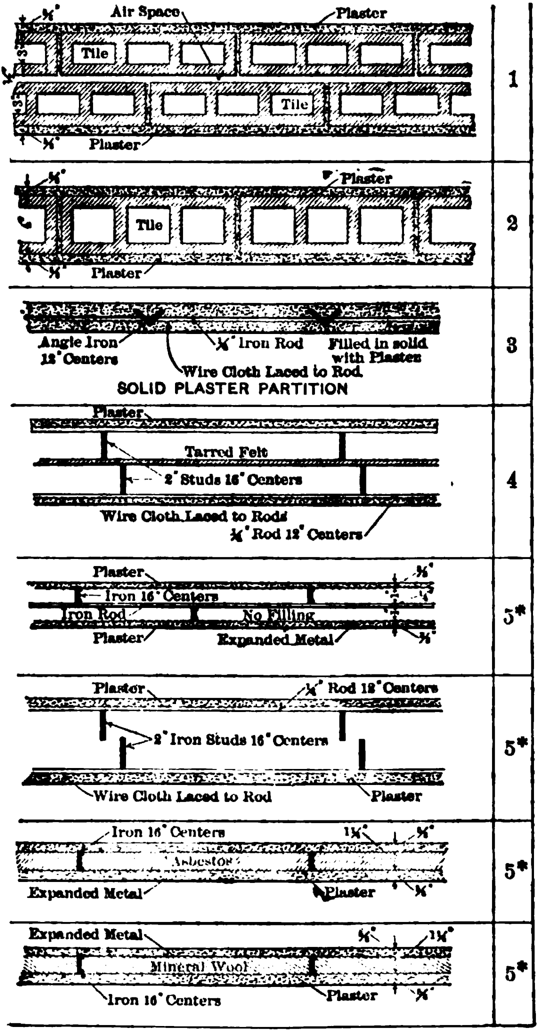


Fig. 87. Relative Deadening Properties of Partitions

they should be inclosed for two reasons: first, to prevent a fire that would find a natural outlet in such openings from spreading to other floors; and secondly, to prevent, as far as possible, a fire from getting into these openings where the draft would greatly increase its fury. To be thoroughly effective, the inclosed walls should be constructed of the same materials as the outside walls of the buildings, namely, brick, stone or concrete. While they need not be of the same thickness as the outside walls, 12 in is recommended as a minimum thickness. In less important structures terra-cotta partitions are sometimes used for such inclosing walls. In the walls inclosing elevator-shafts no openings except those necessary for entrance-doors should be permitted. The doors should be of fire-proof construction, pages 906–7, and made solid. Glass lights are sometimes provided in such doors, although this is not good practice; if they are used, wire-glass, only, should be used, in accordance with the limitations noted on page 908. Open grille-work for passenger-elevator enclosures is being rapidly superseded by construction which is more fire-resisting. The architectural features of open grilles may still be retained for the fronts and doors of such elevators by using them in conjunction with approved wire-glass construction. In interior light-shafts and vent-shafts, openings must necessarily be provided, but here again the construction of the window-frames, sashes and glazing should be as far as possible as described on pages 906 to 908. Whenever the occupancy of a building admits, the stairs, also, should be inclosed in masonry walls, with fire-proof doors at the openings. Unless so inclosed the stairways form flues for the flames, and the stairs themselves, consequently, are exposed to intense heat. In such situations, even absolutely fire-proof stairs could not be used during a fire, and possibly it is for this reason that greater pains have not been taken to make them fire-proof. Shaft-walls should in all cases be carried 3 ft or more above the roof.

Deadening Properties of Partitions. The resistance to the passage of sound through fire-proof partitions is an important consideration in buildings used for living-apartments; and where the rooms are to be used as music-studios, it becomes a matter of still greater importance. In January, 1895, some tests were made to determine the RELATIVE DEADENING PROPERTIES of the different partitions shown in Fig. 87, the object being to decide upon the construction that should be used in Steinway Hall, Chicago, Ill. The rank of the different partitions tested, IN SOUND-PROOF EFFICIENCY, is shown by the numbers at the right of the partition-diagrams. The 4-in porous partition was used, but was not a success. In the Fine Arts building, in the same city, double partitions, similar to No. 1, were used, and it is said that they were a great success. It is surprising to note that in the tests above mentioned, the 2-in solid-plaster partition, No. 3, plastered with common mortar, ranked higher in SOUND-DEADENING PROPERTIES than those with double studs. The relative cost of partitions 1, 2 and 3, including the plastering, was stated by the Illinois Terra-cotta Lumber Company to be $1.86, $1.16 and $1.14, respectively. In 1892, C. L. Norton tested the SOUND-DEADENING PROPERTIES of partitions of several forms, for the purpose of selecting a construction which was the most FIRE-RESISTING and SOUND-PROOF for the dormitories of the New England Conservatory of Music, in which practically every room is a music-studio.* The various partitions were rated by Professor Norton as shown in the following table:

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* The results of these tests, with a description of the partitions, was published in Insurance Engineering for August, 1902.

Table XVII. Sound-Deadening Properties of Partitions

No.	Room	Side	Scale	Composition
1	E	Left	100	Cabot's quilt, 3 thick and metal lath
2	E	Right	95	Cabot's quilt, 2 thick and metal lath
3	E	Rear	95	Cabot's quilt, 2 thick and metal lath
4	C	Rear	85	Sackett board, 2 felt on channels
5	C	Left	85	Sackett board, 2 felt on channels
6	C	Right	80	Sackett board, 2 felt
7	D	Rear	75	Metal lath and paper
8	D	Right	75	Metal lath, paper and felt
9	B	Right	60	Two 2-in Keystone blocks with 2-in air-space
10	A	Rear	50	4-in National terra-cotta blocks
11	B	Rear	50	3-in Keystone blocks
12	A	Right	45	3-in National terra-cotta blocks
13	B	Left	40	2-in Keystone blocks
14	A	Left	40	2-in National terra-cotta blocks
15	D	Left	30	2-in metal lath, solid plaster

"Nothing more is to be inferred from the numerical efficiencies, under 'scale,' than that the first partition is about three times as good as the last, and that the numerical interval between any two partitions on the list merely indicates the order of the magnitude of the difference between the partitions." Professor Norton recommended a partition of Sackett Board and plaster with two thicknesses of Cabot's quilt between the plaster-boards, and this construction was adopted. The studding was put up the same as for the 2-in solid partition, the quilt secured to each side of the studs, and the plaster-board wired on to the studs through the quilt. This makes as light a partition, also, as it is possible to construct.

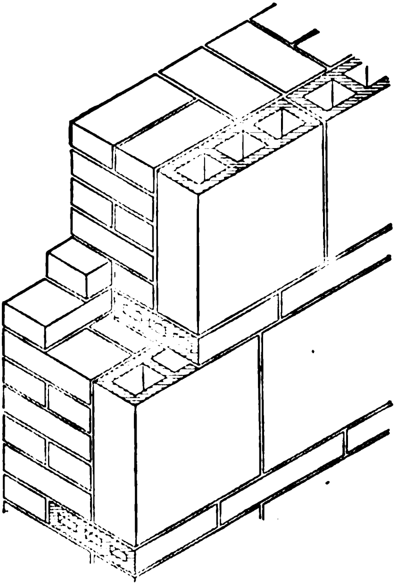

Fig. 88. Hollow-tile Furring-blocks

Furring for Outside Walls. The outside walls of fire-proof buildings are generally finished on the inside by plastering applied directly to the masonry. When the walls are of brick, it is often desirable to fur them so that there will be an air-space between the plaster and the masonry to prevent the passage of moisture. This furring should be either of terra-cotta or metal, and never of wood. For this purpose furring-bricks are generally used. They are made of brick-clay and of the same size as common bricks; but they are hollow. They are built up with the rest of the wall, on the inside face, and bonded into the wall by the usual header-courses. Partition-tiles, also, are often used for the inner 4 in of brick walls, the tile taking the place of one row of bricks, as shown in Fig. 88. By this means dampness is excluded without adding to the thickness of the walls; and the only additional expense is the difference between the cost of the hollow tiles and that of the one inner row of common bricks. When using either furring-blocks or hollow tiles, the mason should be careful not to drop mortar into the hollow spaces. When walls are furred or lined with tile, solid porous terra-cotta blocks should be built in wherever nailings are required for bases, picture-moldings, etc. In some cities, as in New York, the laws require that when furring-bricks or tiles are used they shall not be counted as part of the thickness of the wall. Wire lathing, also, with 1-in V ribs woven in every 7½ in, makes a good furring for brick walls, as it is easily applied and leaves air-spaces between the wall and plaster. All of these devices also protect the walls from being warped by heat during a fire, and prevent the passage of heat through the walls in summer and winter.

Metal Furring. To produce architectural forms in the interior decoration of fire-proof buildings, METAL FURRING and METAL LATH are now almost universally used. The furring is always of a sham nature, and never employed to carry loads of any magnitude; so that the only requirement is that it shall be incombustible and furnish a satisfactory ground for attaching the metal lath. For coves, cornices, false beams, etc., the furring-members are made of light bars, angles, tees or channels, attached to the walls by means of nails, staples, or toggle-bolts, and to the steel beams by means of bolts, hangers, clips, etc. The furring-pieces are bent or shaped to the approximate outlines of the finished plaster-work, so that when the lathing is applied it will require not more than 1½ or 2 in of plaster to give the desired outline. For plane surfaces, the furring should be brought to within ¾ in of the plaster-line. Deep beams, etc., should be braced by diagonal rods, to prevent distortion. All structural-steel members should always be fire-proofed back of the furring. The lathing is secured to the furring by means of No. 18 galvanized lacing wire. The spacing of the furring should be either 12 or 16 in, according to the kind of lath that is to be used. When chases in walls are covered over, the covering should be done with metal furring and lath. The casings for vertical pipe-lines, also, should be of this construction and the space about the pipes at the floor-level should be filled solidly with fire-proof material, to cut off all connection between stories.

7. Fire-proof Flooring

Fire-proof Flooring. The floor-surfaces of most fire-proof buildings consist of hard-wood flooring secured in the usual manner to nailing-strips embedded in the concrete or in the filling above it. It is sometimes advisable to use incombustible flooring. The New York City building code requires that in all buildings over 150 ft in height, the floor-surfaces shall be of stone, cement, tiling or similar incombustible material, or of wood treated by some process which renders it fire-proof. For warehouses and factories, floors finished with Portland-cement mortar are about as satisfactory as floors with any other overfloor finish; and cement floors have been much used for the guest-rooms of hotels. In the latter rooms, the floors are covered with carpets, which are secured to wooden strips embedded in the cement around the borders of the room. This makes a very sanitary floor, and one as easy for the feet as a carpeted wooden floor. For public corridors, banks, lobbies, toilet-rooms, etc., the encaustic, vitreous, ceramic or marble tilings are generally used. In France and

Germany large quantities of cement tiles are used. Cement tiles have been introduced into this country, also, but have not yet been able to compete with the encaustic tiles. In most buildings, however, the use of stone, cement or tile flooring is inadvisable. These materials are cold and trying to the feet. As a rule, cement floor-surfaces do not wear well. Asphaltic flooring is sometimes used, but it is not pleasing in appearance. This material and different floor-tiles are discussed on pages 1518 to 1523. The characteristics of fire-proofed wood and its availability for this purpose are quite fully covered in the discussion of that material on page 820.

Composition Flooring. Several attempts have been made to obtain a flooring-material which could be spread, without joints, over an entire floor, and at the same time be elastic, wear well, withstand water, acids, etc., and not be too expensive. Various mixtures of magnesite, asbestos, fine sand, sawdust mixed with linseed-oil, and some binder like chloride of magnesium, have been put on the market under different names, all more or less meeting the requirements above stated and being, also, fire-proof. These materials are shipped in the form of a dry powder to the place where they are to be used, and are there mixed with a specially prepared liquid. The resultant is a plastic material which is laid upon the surface to be covered in much the same way that ordinary cement or plaster is put on. The materials harden in from 12 to 24 hours in moderately dry weather, when the floor is ready for use. When properly laid the floor presents a smooth, fine-grained and continuous surface, resembling linoleum. These materials are made in various colors, such as red, white, yellow, brown, gray, black, blue and green, and can be laid on wood, stone, concrete, asphalt, cement, or metals. Another advantage is that they can be carried up on the walls so as to form a coved base, without cracks or joints. Among the manufacturers furnishing such floorings may be mentioned: American Monolith Company, Milwaukee, Wis.; Asbestolith Manufacturing Company, New York City; Robert A. Keasbey Company (Crown Sanitary Flooring), New York City; Hydrolith Company, Brooklyn, N. Y.; General Kompolite Company, New York City; Marbleoid Company, New York City; Minnesota Faience Stonewood Company, St. Paul, Minn.; Franklin R. Muller Company, Chicago, Ill.; Keasbey & Mattison Company (Magnesia Building Lumber), New York City; Ronald Taylor Company, New York City; and Warren Bros. Company, Boston, Mass.

8. Interior Finish and Fittings

Interior Finish. In buildings in New York City in which the flooring must be of incombustible material, the interior finish, also, including the doors, door-jambs, window-frames, sashes, bases and trims, must be made of incombustible materials. The same materials that are accepted for flooring can be used for this interior finish also. Several of the largest buildings in New York City, including the Fuller Building, have all the trim constructed of FIRE-PROOF WOOD. In the Hotel Gotham, all the doors and interior finish are made of Alignum.

Metal Doors, Sashes, Frames and Trim.[*] The effort to make the interior of buildings fire-proof has resulted in METAL-COVERED wood, and in doors, sashes, frames, trim and moldings of HOLLOW steel or other metal. Many very large buildings have in recent years been equipped wholly or in part with these products, and the products themselves have reached a stage of great perfection of workmanship and efficiency. There are now (1915) several cities in the United States that compel the use of these products for certain parts of buildings which are over a certain height; and it is probably only a question of time when other cities will pass ordinances compelling their use. At the present time cost enters largely into the question of substituting them for wood. The clause in the Building Code of the City of New York, in the section on Fire-proof Buildings which relates to this subject, is as follows: "when the height of a fire-proof building exceeds twelve stories, or more than one hundred and fifty feet, all outside window-frames and sashes shall be of metal, or of wood covered with metal, the inside window-frames and sashes, doors, trim and other interior finish may be of wood covered with metal or of wood treated by some process approved by the Board of Buildings to render the same fire-proof."

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[*] For a brief outline of this subject, illustrated with numerous detail drawings, see article on Metal Doors, Sashes, Frames and Trim, by Professor Thomas Nolan, in Kidder's "Building Construction and Superintendence, Part II, Carpenters' Work."

Among the first attempts in the United States to fire-proof the interior trim of buildings were those made in New York City, about the year 1880, in the form of metal-covered woodwork, by the firm of Campbell & Bantossell of that city. About this time, also, there were introduced along with various processes of fire-proofing woodwork, FIRE-PROOF PAINTS. Later FIRE-PROOF WOOD was introduced, that is, wood which has the resin and other inflammable components extracted from it, and the fiber left. In the course of a few years the METAL-COVERED-WOOD industry developed to such a stage that it was possible to trim with its products the interior of a building and keep a good appearance. Notable examples are the Manhattan Life Insurance Company's Building and the Barclay Building and, of more recent date, the Metropolitan Tower,[*] the Fifth Avenue Office-Building, the Germania Life Insurance Company's Building and the Vanderbilt Hotel, all in New York City; the Hoge Building, Seattle, Wash.; the Hall of Records, Los Angeles, Cal.; the Rockefeller Annex, Cleveland, Ohio, etc.

The rough, unfinished appearance of the STANDARD TIN-CLAD DOOR set men to seeking a product for use in interior finish which would lend itself to more decorative effects. The KALAMEIN IRON and other METAL-COVERED work resulted. In the meantime improvements were constantly being made in HOLLOW SHEET-METAL doors and trim, and from about the year 1903 HOLLOW STEEL construction for this work came into use. Owing to its generally superior workmanship and to the splendid enamel surfaces which can be given it by various baking-processes, this type of interior finish has found favor in the eyes of the architects and owners of modern offices, mercantile and public buildings.

Kalamein Iron.[†] KALAMEIN IRON is the trade name given to one of the open-hearth sheet-steel products which is covered with a thin alloy of tin and lead in much the same way that galvanized iron by galvanic immersion is coated with zinc. "The name CALAMINE (with Galmei of the Germans) is commonly supposed to be a corruption of Cadmia. Agricola says it is from Calamus, a reed, in allusion to the slender forms (stalactic) common in the Cadmia formation."[‡] The term KALAMEIN is often used incorrectly, by architects and others, for any form of METAL-COVERED woodwork, whether the metal is steel, copper or bronze, to distinguish metal-covered from HOLLOW METAL construction; but the term is obviously misleading and causes much confusion. In several instances architects have specified KALAMEIN material expecting BRONZE METAL to be used in the covering, whereas the manufacturer's interpretation of the specification was that KALAMEIN IRON was intended.

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[*] The Metropolitan Tower has a metal-covered trim which is a special bronze-plate construction over a wooden core. This was developed by The John W. Rapp Company, afterwards consolidated with The J. F. Blanchard Company into the United States Metal Products Company, New York City.

[†] Among the better known manufacturers of metal-covered work, whose doors are inspected and labeled by the Underwriters' Laboratories, Inc., are the United States Metal Products Company, New York City and the Thorp Fireproof Door Company, Minneapolis, Minn.

[‡] Dana's Dictionary of Mineralogy.

Metal-Covered Doors, Frames and Trim. The cores of METAL-COVERED doors and frames are built up of oak or white-pine strips dovetailed together lengthwise to the grain. In gluing up the strips into stiles and rails the grain of each strip is reversed in order to resist the tendency of the core to twist. The stiles and rails are mortised, tenoned and box-wedged and the cores are covered with asbestos paper or board and enclosed with sheet metal, either steel (which may be painted to match a wooden trim, or electroplated with copper, brass or bronze), or solid, sheet copper, brass or bronze. For doors up to 3 ft 4 in in width and 8 ft in height, both sides are often made of continuous sheets of metal, which have the panels pressed into them by hydraulic pressure and are without seam or joint. The metal sheets of the two sides, in one make of door,* are made to overlap in a depression on the edges of the door and are secured in place by screws which pass through both face-sheets. The standard thickness of this door is 2⅞ in. When these doors are more than 3 ft 4 in in width, each face is generally made of two sheets which meet over a middle stile and lock together with a flush double-lock joint. This makes a double row of vertical panels.

Metal-Covered Window-Frames and Sashes. Window-frames and sashes, as well as door-frames and doors, are made of METAL-COVERED WOOD. Bronze is the metal usually recommended and preferred although Kalamein iron may be substituted when a much cheaper construction is necessary. This cheaper metal may be painted and will give fair service but it is not recommended. Galvanized iron and copper, also, are used.

"Window-frames and sashes of KALAMINE or of sheet-metal over wooden cores are principally used for windows or skylights where the only danger of fire-contact is through flying sparks. They are NON-COMBUSTIBLE rather than FIRE-RESISTING. The lights are usually of plate glass, expecially if KALAMINE trim is used simply to comply with the law in those cities where non-combustible windows and doors, etc., are required in buildings of a certain class or of a height above fixed limits. Previous mention has been made of their efficiency as demonstrated in the burning of the Kohl building in San Francisco, and their value, even as a substandard protection, has been pointed out; but for efficient fire-resistance, KALAMINE windows, especially, are an unknown quantity, as the resistance offered by the lighter members, such as sash-rails, is questionable. The better examples of the work present pleasing workmanship and finish. If some composition could be used for the body instead of wood, without producing chemical action harmful to the metal, a superior type of KALAMINE work would result which would be of great value." †

Hollow Metal Finish in General.‡ The transition from METAL-COVERED WOOD to HOLLOW SHEET-METAL for doors, sashes, frames, trim, moldings, etc., was naturally and easily made and to-day the latter type of construction when expertly carried out results in details for interior work which are very efficient to resist fire and handsome in appearance. It would be difficult to devise constructional details which would be more satisfactory and at the same time present greater possibilities in the way of elaborate design and high finish; and it is on account of all these advantages that this type of construction is used in the interior equipment of many of the best examples of fire-resisting buildings, especially for the doors, frames, sashes and trim of corridors, hallways and stair and elevator-enclosures and even for entire office-partitions. Because of the non-absorbent character of the baked-enamel finish this material is particularly sanitary; and hollow metal doors are more easily cleaned than any others, especially if all moldings are omitted and panels made simply as smooth depressions. The thickness of standard hollow metal doors approved by underwriters, varies from 1½ to 2⅛ in.

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* The Richardson seamless door, made by the Thorp Fireproof Door Company, Minneapolis, Minn.

† "Fire Prevention and Fire Protection," by J. K. Freitag.

‡ Among the better known manufacturers of hollow, sheet-metal doors, trim, etc., are the Dahlstrom Metallic Door Company, Jamestown, N. Y., and the United States Metal Products Company, New York City.

Hollow Metal Doors. The Dahlstrom patent SHEET-METAL DOOR* is made from two No. 20-gauge, steel-plates, one stile and one panel-face being formed from each of the sheets, which are connected by interlocking seams on opposite sides of the panels and make practically a double door. In constructing the panels they are first lined with a sheet of asbestos next to the steel on each side, and the space between is filled with a layer of hair-felt paper, which makes a resilient filling that is a non-conductor of heat. The stiles are left hollow but strips of cork are laid perpendicularly across the center of each to deaden the metallic ring. The panels are then attached to each other to form the door by planting on and welding in place properly formed cross-rails,, at the top and bottom, and wherever else they may be desired; the moldings are coped over the molded stiles at the sides. The top and bottom edges of the door are then reinforced with channels and bars, and the doors made perfectly straight and rigid. The fire-resistance of this construction is increased by letting no rivets or screws pass through from one side of the door to the other in the exposed parts. The transmission of heat is thus avoided. While the door is being put together, provision is made for attaching the hardware. After the doors have been put together, they are sent to the finishing department where the steel is thoroughly cleaned from all rust, grease or other impurities. They are then given six or eight coatings of enamel, being baked after the application of each coat in large ovens which are heated to 300° F. After the final coat of varnish is put on, they are usually rubbed to an egg-shell, gloss-finish, equal in quality to any hardwood-finish, and more durable because baked on. The surfaces can be grained to imitate with wonderful exactness any wood, such as quartered oak, mahogany, Circassian walnut, etc. If the doors are to receive glass panels they are provided with detachable moldings to hold the glass in place.

Doors of the Dahlstrom, HOLLOW METAL type are installed in the corridors and partitions of the Singer Building and tower† and the United States Express Building, New York City; the Bell Telephone Exchange Building, Philadelphia, Pa.; the Seventh Regiment Armory, Chicago, Ill.; the Pontchartrain Hotel, Detroit, Mich.; the Bank of Commerce Building, St. Louis, Mo.; the First National Bank Building, Denver, Col.; the Royal Insurance Building, San Francisco, Cal.; and many others.

The United States Metal Products Company makes two kinds of HOLLOW STEEL doors, known as TYPE A and TYPE B. Both kinds are the same in general appearance and differ only in construction. TYPE A has a complete inside lining of asbestos; TYPE B has single-thickness sheet-steel panels, with a partial asbestos lining in the stiles and rails to prevent reverberation. Among the many buildings that have been equipped with hollow steel doors made by this company may be mentioned, in New York City, the Woolworth Building, the Germania Life Insurance Building and the Ritz-Carlton, McAlpin and Vanderbilt Hotels; in Cleveland, Ohio, the Rockefeller Building; in Boston, Mass., the Jordan-Marsh Building; in Duluth, Minn., the Soo Building; in Worcester, Mass., the Worcester County Court-House; and in San Francisco, Cal., the First National Bank Building. In some of the buildings mentioned in the preceding articles, HOLLOW METAL doors, trim and moldings are accompanied by bronze or other METAL-COVERED-WOOD window-frames, sashes, etc.

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* Made by the Dahlstrom Metallic Door Company, Jamestown, N. Y.

† A severe fire in the twenty-sixth story of this tower was effectually confined to the room in which it originated by the doors of this type of construction.

Hollow Metal Door-Frames, Trim and Moldings. After the HOLLOW METAL door reached an advanced stage of construction the manufacturers turned their attention to the problems involved in making metal frames and moldings. It was found that moldings made by the ordinary HOT-ROLLED PROCESS were too rough and heavy and required too much labor to smooth and finish their surfaces; and that those pressed from light-gauge steel by the common methods were not clear-cut and definite in their outlines and were limited in length and in variety of shapes. Accordingly, what is known as the COLD-DRAWN METHOD of making frames, trim and moldings, was developed and perfected, and moldings made by this process are now used for many kinds of interior work. The cold metal is drawn through special dies to give it the required shape and the bright finish is retained. The corners and angles come out sharp and true and the pieces possess much greater strength and rigidity than those HOT-ROLLED and several times thicker. There are dies for over a thousand shapes. Moldings can now be made in lengths up to 40 or even 50 ft, but extra-freight rates and other draw-backs make it inadvisable to ship it in lengths of over 20 ft. Besides the COLD-ROLLED special high-grade steel, brass, bronze and copper are used in their manufacture. The rolled shapes include angles, channels and Z bars; moldings for bases, cornices, wire-conduits, door-jambs, sash-bars, panels and glass; picture-frames, door and window-casings and trims of all kinds; wainscoting and chair-rails; and numerous miscellaneous sorts. WROUGHT-IRON welded one-piece door-frames are made for use in fire-proof partitions. These frames* are constructed scientifically of specially rolled WROUGHT IRON in several different shapes. The mitered corners are welded together making the frame one solid piece. They are made for any thickness or type of door or partition, require no bracing and can be fitted with invisible hinges if required.

Hollow Metal Window-Frames and Sashes.† HOLLOW METAL window-frames and sashes, as well as those which are made of METAL-COVERED WOOD and of cast iron, wrought iron, drawn bronze, cast bronze, etc., and glazed with wire-glass, prism glass, electroplated glass, etc., are used in those parts of buildings in which the exposure to fire is not great enough to require the use of hinged or rolling shutters, or where a more pleasing appearance is demanded than that resulting from the use of hinged or rolling fire-shutters. Owing to many improvements made in recent years, both in design and details of manufacture, HOLLOW, SHEET-METAL window-frames and sashes are now ranked among the best types of those of moderate cost for general use. The National Fire Protective Association, by their recommendations and standardization, and the tests and labeling systems of the underwriters' laboratories, have been largely instrumental in bringing about these improvements and results. It is stated that these laboratories have (up to the year 1912) approved from one to eighteen types of these windows for each of sixty-seven manufacturers. This puts twenty-two distinct types in use. About the only disadvantage connected with the use of SHEET-METAL windows is a relatively rapid deterioration when neglected. The materials used for making HOLLOW METAL window-frames and sashes are galvanized iron or steel; copper; sheet metal, copper-plated; and sheet metal, bronze-plated. The sashes are glazed with PLATE or MAZE wire-glass where good appearance is an essential requirement or with RIBBED or ROUGH wire-glass where a translucent material only is desired. Of course, clear glass, unwired, may be used when additional fire-resistance is not the object. The National Board of Fire Underwriters fix, within certain limits, the various constructional details, the maximum permissible sizes of openings for glass, etc. The principal regulations have been very conveniently condensed by Mr. J. K. Freitag.*

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* Manufactured by J. G. Braun, New York City.

† See, also, Sheet-Metal for Fire-Resisting Window-Frames and Sashes, page 907.

Electroplated Trim. A process recently introduced consists in electrically depositing a layer of copper on the outer surface of wooden moldings or doors. The metallic deposit preserves the markings of the grain of the wood and makes a very presentable door. A good sample of this work has been installed in the United Engineering Building, New York City, by the New York Central Metal Company of the same city. Some very fine work of this kind has been done by the Hecla Iron Works of New York City by electroplating on a fire-proof material known as Lignolith.

Cement Trim. Keene's cement has been used for many years for running base-moldings, door and window-trim, etc., and in many European buildings practically all of the interior finish is of this material. Any molding can be RUN in it with good sharp angles, and it is sufficiently hard to stand ordinary usage. Fig. 89 shows a door-opening with a trim of Keene's cement. This detail can be further improved by covering the wooden frame and door with thin metal. The metal and cement can be painted as desired.

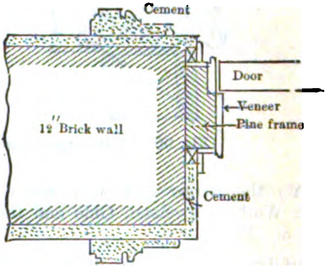

Fig. 89. Door-jamb with Cement Trim

Molded Hollow Tiles for Inside Finish. These are also being substituted for the ordinary wooden finish. The Amelia Apartments, erected by H. B. Camp at Akron, Ohio, in 1901,† is built almost entirely of hollow tile. "The bases, the picture-moldings, and the architraves around the doors were made of specially formed tiles, as shown in Fig. 90. These tiles were afterward painted to harmonize with the scheme of color-decoration. All of the floors throughout the building are covered with a cement composition composed of Sandusky cement and ground wood, troweled down smooth and level."

Metallic Furniture and Fittings. In offices, banks, libraries and public buildings, the furniture and fixtures are about the only articles on which a fire can feed, if the building itself is fire-proof, and if these are made of incombustible materials there is no chance for a fire to gain headway or to do much damage. Almost anything in the way of furniture and fittings, including even roll-top desks and highly ornamental cabinets, may now be obtained in metal; and many libraries, banks, and court-houses have been fitted up and furnished entirely with incombustible cabinet-work. Catalogues can be obtained from the leading companies engaged in the manufacture of METAL FURNITURE, such for example as the Cut Metal Construction Company, Jamestown, N. Y., the Berger Manufacturing Company, Canton, Ohio, the Van Dorn Iron Works, Cleveland, Ohio and the Library Bureau, New York City and Boston, Mass.

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* For the principal regulations, conveniently condensed, see "Fire Prevention and Fire Protection," by J. K. Freitag.

† Described in "Fireproof," July, 1903.

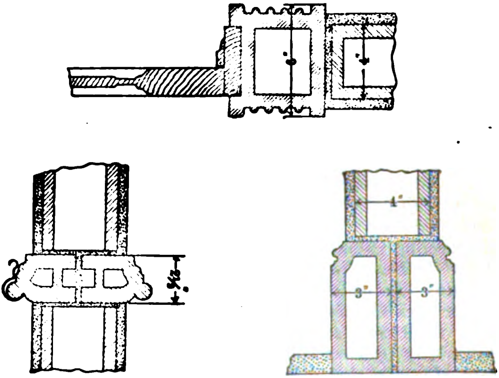

Fig. 90. Hollow-tile Door-trim, Picture-molding and Base

Stairs. In a majority of fire-proof buildings the architects have contented themselves with putting in INCOMBUSTIBLE STAIRS of iron, with perhaps slate or marble treads. As pointed out in the first pages of this chapter, unprotected iron cannot be considered fire-proof, but it is difficult to protect the ironwork of a stairway, as it is usually built, and at the same time preserve an ornamental effect. If exposed metal construction is to be used, cast iron is much to be preferred to steel, as the cast metal will retain its shape under severe heat far better than thin facings or frameworks of steel. Slate and marble treads and platforms, unless supported underneath, should never be used in staircase-construction. When subjected to heat, marble and slate crack and fall away, leaving the stairs impassable. A fire-department captain in New York City lost his life through the collapse of a marble platform. If these materials are to be used, therefore, there should be a subtread of iron or concrete beneath them. A really FIRE-PROOF STAIRCASE should be constructed with as little ironwork as possible, and what ironwork there is, incased in FIRE-RESISTING materials. It is possible and practicable to build stairs of clay tiles, bricks, or reinforced

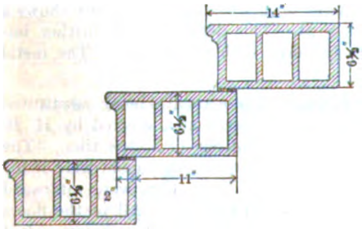

Fig. 91. Hollow-tile Steps for Staircase

concrete, that are absolutely fire-proof. The stairs in the Pension Building at Washington, D. C., are built of brick, with the exception of the treads, which are slate, and in many of the earlier government buildings the stairs are of stone. Stones suitable for stairs, however, will not stand heat as well as cast iron will. Part I of "Building Construction and Superintendence" * contains descriptions and illustrations of brick stairs. The Guastavino Company has built several staircases according to its system of construction, using flat clay tile embedded in cement. No iron-work whatever is used in this construction; hence it is eminently fire-proof. Fig. 91 shows a partial section of a tile staircase such as was used in the Amelia Apartment Building, Akron, Ohio. The blocks were of hard-burned material, glazed, and 4 ft long. They were supported upon the partition-walls and were used by the mechanics for carrying up material during the erection of the building. Reinforced concrete, with slate or marble treads, is a good material for the construction of stairs and permits of very elaborate and complicated construction. Fig. 92 † shows the construction of the stairs in the Government Printing Office at Washington, D. C. These stairs have steel girders and strings enclosed in the solid con-

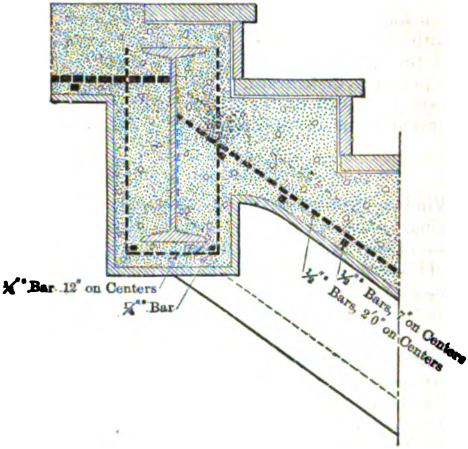

Fig. 92. Reinforced-concrete Stairs, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

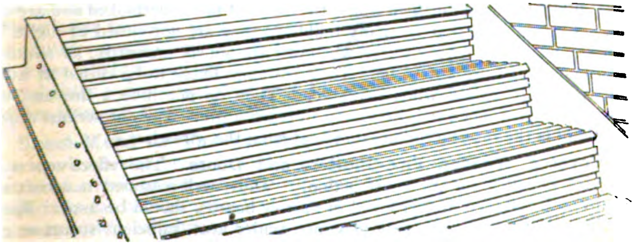

Fig. 93. Ferroinclave Foundation for Stair-treads and Risers

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* By Frank E. Kidder.

† From the Engineering Record of Dec. 6, 1902.

crete, which is molded to form the steps and risers, as shown in the detail. The steel strings, however, are hardly necessary, as the reinforcing-bars give sufficient strength. Some excellent details for ornamental iron stairs were published in Fireproof, March, 1903, in an article by J. K. Freitag. The corrugated sheet metal, known as Ferroinclave (page 856) offers a very convenient foundation for cement stairs. When built between walls or partitions or with an open string, Fig. 93 shows one way in which the material has been used, the stairs being finished with about 2 in of cement over the metal and plastered underneath. The Ferroinclave is bolted to lugs or brackets screwed to or cast on the strings. Slate or marble treads and risers may be bedded in the mortar if desired. (See, also, pages 951 and 983.)

9. Protection from Outside Hazard

Window-Protection. To be thoroughly protected against the outside hazard, buildings must have the openings in the outside walls provided with some means of effectively closing those openings against flame. The same provision should be made for openings in the partition-walls of large buildings. FOUR GENERAL TYPES of devices are in use for this purpose: (1) tin-covered wooden shutters; (2) steel shutters or doors; (3) metal frames and sash, glazed with wire-glass; and (4) water-curtains.

Types of Window-Protection Compared. When properly constructed, the TIN-COVERED WOODEN SHUTTER is still the most effective window-protection. "In a very severe fire in Lynn, Mass., in which the heat was intense enough to melt most of the tin from the outside of the tinned plates covering the shutters, it was found afterward that the wood was charred to a depth of only about ⅛ in. The shutters were warped slightly, but afforded sufficient protection against the heat to allow men to remain behind them to put out such fire as occasionally crept through. This would not have been possible behind iron shutters under similar conditions."* STEEL SHUTTERS, under the action of heat, warp very readily and transmit considerable heat. They belong to the cheapest type of window-protection. "There is one objection to the use of shutters on window-openings and that is, that they depend on fallible human agency to be effective. They must necessarily be open while the building is in use. When the need for them comes they are apt to be overlooked and are not closed. Certain it is that on many buildings they are not closed at night."* The METAL-FRAME-AND-WIRE-GLASS WINDOWS are not as unsightly, as shutters of almost any kind are apt to be. They are more likely to be closed at night and more readily closed when necessary. They do not hide a fire and are more easily opened when it is necessary to reach a fire. The one serious objection to them is the intense radiation of heat from the wire-glass.†

Tin-Covered Wooden Fire-Shutters and Doors. The effectiveness of this device depends on its construction. "Only well-seasoned non-resinous wood, dressed, tongued and grooved in narrow boards, should be used. Wood containing moisture or resin may generate, under heat, sufficient steam or gas to force off the tin covering and expose the wood to the flame. The body of the door should consist of two or three layers of such boards laid at right-angles with each other and fastened together by clinch-nails. The best grade of tin should be used. No solder must be used, and the tin plates should be lock-jointed, with the nails in the seams. The nails must be long enough, at least 1½ in, to secure a good hold beyond the depth to which the wood is likely to char, which is about ¾ in. Under intense heat the wood is certain to char, but if the nails are long enough to hold the tin up against the wood, and the tin is properly put on so as to keep the air out to prevent burning, the shutter will stand under severe strains." * The hinges, fastenings, or hangers must be bolted to the door, not nailed or screwed, as nails or screws would pull out during a fire. If hung on hinges, the hinge-hook should be built into the wall. This door was designed for use in mills, but it has worked so satisfactorily that it is generally adopted wherever a fire-proof door is wanted and its appearance is not objectionable. Fire-proof shutters, also, are made in this way. The National Board of Fire Underwriters issues complete specifications † for this type of door and shutter, and these specifications should be closely followed for satisfactory results. Doors of this type, provided for the openings in interior partition-walls, are often, and wherever possible should be, hung on inclined tracks so that they will close automatically. Where it is desirable to keep them open most of the time, an automatic release operated by a fusible link is provided. (See, also, page 778.)

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* Insurance Engineering, Dec., 1902.

† For a consideration of water-curtains, see page 908.

Metal-Covered Wooden Doors as Fire-Doors. Wooden doors covered by the KALAMEIN or other process (page 899) are sometimes used as fire-doors where appearance is a consideration. They are not considered equal, however, to the STANDARD TIN-COVERED WOODEN DOORS.

Steel Fire-Doors and Shutters. For a satisfactory STEEL FIRE-DOOR a ⅛-in sheet of steel should be used, and it should be reinforced on the back with a frame of angle-irons, not less than 1½ by 1½ by ¼ in, and increasing in size with the door or shutter. These doors or shutters may operate in one of three ways: (1) swing on hinges, (2) slide on tracks, or (3) roll vertically. The SWINGING DOORS or shutters are the most reliable as there are no complicated parts to get out of order. They should be hung on eyes built into the masonry walls. SLIDING DOORS OR SHUTTERS must have the rails on which they operate protected by metal shields to prevent obstruction. For larger openings the ROLLING SHUTTERS are generally preferred. They are made in horizontal jointed sectional strips, which wind up on a roller placed in a pocket above the opening, the ends moving in metal grooves to hold them in place. They generally operate VERTICALLY, although some are made to operate HORIZONTALLY, the rollers being set vertically in pockets at the sides of the openings. These latter are more apt to get out of order. The VERTICALLY operated doors or shutters are balanced by springs or weights to make them move easily up or down. Where they are intended to be closed in case of necessity only, they are slightly weighed and held open by means of fusible links, so that in case of fire they will close automatically.

Sheet-Metal for Fire-Resisting Window-Frames and Sashes.‡ These are now made weather-tight and perfectly practicable in all respects, and should be used wherever fire-resisting windows are desired. The sashes are made especially for holding wire-glass. These SHEET-METAL WINDOWS are made in a great variety of forms to meet all purposes and the sashes may be stationary, pivoted either horizontally or vertically, hinged, or double-hung with weights, like ordinary windows. For factories, warehouses, stairways and elevator-shafts a stationary lower and a pivoted upper sash are commonly used, as this is the cheapest type of window. The double-hung windows are now made to work as smoothly as wooden sashes in ordinary box frames. For offices, hotels, etc., a window having two sashes, glazed with wire-glass, and closing and locking automatically in case of fire, and a third inner sash glazed with clear glass, has all of the advantages of an ordinary window with the additional advantages of fire-protection and better diffusion of light. Metal fly-screens, also, can be used with these windows. All movable sashes, glazed with wire-glass, should be provided with a device by which the sashes will close and lock automatically in case of fire. When the contents of a building are inflammable and the exposure severe, two thicknesses of wire-glass should be used with a ventilated air-space of at least 1 in between the lights.

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* Insurance Engineering, Dec., 1902.

† To be had for the asking.

‡ See, also, Hollow Metal Window-Frames and Sashes, page 902.

10. Extinguishing Devices and Precautionary Measures

Water-Curtains. "The vulnerable portion of buildings generally is the front, where great window-openings are desired for purposes of light, and where it is considered objectionable on account of appearance to have shutters or even wire-glass windows. These large window-openings afford great opportunities for the spread of fire across streets. The danger of damage is much increased where the fronts, as is very common, are made of unprotected metal-work. A notable example, illustrating such danger, was the building of the Manhattan Savings Institution, New York City, which was severely damaged and almost destroyed by a fire in a six-story non-fire-proof building across the street. Such conditions might be overcome to some extent perhaps, by the introduction of some system such as the WATER-CURTAINS that were placed on the Chicago Public Library. This is practically a SPRINKLER-SYSTEM set along the edge of the cornice of the building, and so arranged as to furnish a thin sheet of water in front of the building. Such a sheet will, however, not extend far before it is turned into spray and thus becomes practically useless. A similar arrangement placed at each window-opening might be more useful, though it is doubtful whether it would be of much value in any severe conflagration."* The rules of the National Board of Fire Underwriters for OPEN SPRINKLERS or water-curtains determine the size of piping, feed-mains and the general arrangement of the system.

Precautionary Measures in General.† No matter how thoroughly a building is fireproofed, if it is filled with combustible goods, as a warehouse, store or factory, there is always the possibility of a fire, which, if unchecked when first started, must necessarily entail a great loss and more or less damage to the building. If a fire is discovered and checked in its incipient stage this loss is avoided. There are now many valuable devices for DETECTING and CHECKING fires, which should be installed in every warehouse, and which often may be placed with advantage in buildings used for other purposes. The more important of these are: automatic alarms, automatic sprinklers and standpipes, hose-reels, etc.

Automatic Alarms. By means of very sensitive thermostats, a rise in temperature of 35° F. above the normal maximum temperature to be expected in a building will cause an alarm to be sounded. The Montauk Fire Detecting Wire Company, New York City, makes a FIRE-DETECTING WIRE or CABLE which can be used in dwellings and other buildings in place of the ordinary bell-wire, and which, by judicious distribution and arrangement in elevator-shafts, dumb-waiter shafts, coal and wood-cellars, closets, storerooms and other unoccupied rooms, may be used to give timely warning of fire originating in any of these places. This FIRE-DETECTING WIRE consists of two conductors. The central wire or core which forms one side of the circuit has a thick coating or wall of fusible metal; over this is an insulating coating. A number of fine wires are wound over this coating to form a second conductor. The whole is then covered with suitable insulation. When flame or a dangerous degree of heat comes into contact with this wire it establishes electrical connection between the two conductors and gives a signal on the premises equipped.

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* Insurance Engineering, Dec., 1902.

† See, also, Chapter XXII, page 768.

The Consolidated Fire Alarm Company, of New York City, controls a device for giving AUTOMATIC FIRE-ALARMS, which consists essentially of an air-tight brass tube, of about ⅛ in internal diameter, inserted every 10 ft along a main supply-pipe. At the end of each tube is attached a metal cylinder with a diaphragm held by a soldered coiled spring. Under the unusual heat of a fire, the fusible plug melts, releases the spring which actuates the diaphragm and sends an impulse of air through the tube. This air-hammer operates a regular transmission-device for sending an electric alarm to a central station where the cause of the alarm can be determined by the nature of the signal. If caused by a fire the signal is relayed to the fire headquarters. At the same time, an annunciator, usually located in the first story of the building, indicates the story from which the original impulse was given. The soldered-spring thermostats are located in accordance with the requirements of the National Board of Fire Underwriters.*

The American District Telegraph Company and the International Electric Protection Company of New York City control systems which utilize the principle of the EXPANSION OF AIR UNDER HEAT. A small copper tube which is seamless and air-tight is installed in one continuous length along the ceilings or pipings. At the end of its tour of a room this tube terminates in a box containing a sensitive diaphragm. When the temperature of a room reaches a temperature of from 150° to 155° F., at an undue speed, 4° or 5° per minute, the air in the tube expands and sets up a pressure on the diaphragm, which closes an electric circuit. False-alarm vents are provided in the diaphragm so that a slight rise in temperature brought about by natural causes is taken care of and the air allowed to escape without sending in an alarm.

The Electric Fire Alarm System, as installed and controlled by the Consolidated Fire Alarm Company of New York City, consists of two continuous and distinct electric circuits with soldered coiled-spring thermostats distributed in accordance with the Underwriters' requirements. Should contact be broken by accident, in either one of the two circuits, the transmitter is tripped and sends in a false alarm to the central station, thus serving as a TROUBLE-SIGNAL to the operating company and indicating that the system is out of order. In the case of fire, both fuses go, breaking both circuits, and thus transmitting the signal for a REAL FIRE through the central station to the fire department. At the same time, an annunciator in the station picks out the particular story of the building from which the signal was sent.

Automatic Sprinklers. "An AUTOMATIC SPRINKLER is a device for distributing water by means of a valve which is arranged to open under the action of heat, as from a fire which it is intended to extinguish. The distribution of water which results from properly located sprinklers occurs in the form of a rain of jets or drops, and is sufficient to drench almost any inflammable stock beyond the point of ignition. The distribution is also economical, as the water is more evenly applied than from a nozzle attached to a fire-hose, and the source is directly above the fire. Whenever combustible merchandise constitutes the contents of a building, AUTOMATIC SPRINKLERS are of great value, and in buildings of a height so great as to make the upper stories difficult of access, especially if containing large areas and very combustible contents, sprinklers constitute the best protection obtainable."* SPRINKLER-SYSTEMS may be divided into two general types: (1) The WET-PIPE SYSTEM, or automatic sprinklers, just described; (2) the DRY-PIPE SYSTEM. Where the water cannot be kept from freezing in the ordinary wet-pipe system, recourse is had to the dry-pipe system. The sprinkler-pipes are filled with air under pressure, which is automatically released by the opening of a HEAD-VALVE under heat. This release of pressure opens the DRY VALVE in the main supply-pipe, allowing water to flow through the sprinkler-pipes and the open heads. The WET-PIPE SPRINKLER-HEADS are of two types, the LOW TEST or SOFT-HEAD SPRINKLERS which fuse at from 155° to 165° F., and the HARD-HEAD SPRINKLERS which fuse at from 212° to 300° F. for engine-rooms and boiler-rooms. Sprinkler-heads which use solder of even higher melting-points are sometimes used. The following types have been approved by the National Board of Fire Underwriters and have various ratings: the Evans Variable Pressure Model, International Sprinkler Company of New York City; the Grinnell Type, General Fire Extinguisher Company of Providence, R. I.; and the Manufacturer's Type, Automatic Sprinkler Company of America, New York City. "No appliances meeting all the requirements desirable for this service have as yet been shown." †

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* Signaling Systems Recommended by the National Fire Protection Association, 1911.

Sprinkler Supervisory Devices. These devices consist of apparatus for "TRANSMITTING SIGNALS when gate-valves are closed or open; when water in tanks falls below or is restored to a predetermined level; when pressure in air-tanks falls below or is restored to a predetermined amount; when water in tanks falls below or rises above predetermined temperatures; also to transmit water-flow signals and to withhold signals from water-surges or variable pressures." They are used in connection with CENTRAL-STATION SIGNALLING-SYSTEMS for supervising the operation and maintenance of sprinkler-equipments. The A. D. T. devices, manufactured by the Automatic Fire Protection Company of New York City and Chicago, Ill., are approved by the National Board of Fire Underwriters.†

Stand-Pipes and Hose-Reels. In office-buildings, hotels, and apartment-houses, where sprinkler-systems are hardly suitable, STAND-PIPES with HOSE-REELS in each story and on the roof, ready for instant use, constitute the best means of quickly controlling a fire. The stand-pipe should be from 2½ to 6 in in diameter, according to the size and height of the building, and should be connected with the water-supply of the building and provided with Siamese connections at the street-level for the fire department. Check-valves should be provided, so that when the fire-department engines are attached, their force will be added to the force due to the head of water from the fire-tanks, or to the fire-pumps or to the force of the city water-system.

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* J. K. Freitag.

† List of Fire Appliances, National Board of Fire Underwriters.

CHAPTER XXIV

REINFORCED-CONCRETE CONSTRUCTION *

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1. Introductory Notes

Definition. The term REINFORCED CONCRETE is defined in the regulations of the New York City Bureau of Buildings as "an approved concrete mixture reinforced by steel of any shape." The Philadelphia law has the same definition, with the addition, "so that the steel or iron will take up all the tensional stresses and assist in the resistance to compression and shear."

Historical Notes. The great value of concrete as a structural material when subjected to compression only has been recognized for centuries. The use of reinforced concrete, however, as a practicable and commercial form of construction is comparatively recent. It is true that as far back as 1869, Francois Coignet of Paris took out letters patent on a combination of iron and concrete and that even before this, in 1867, the principle of reinforcing concrete with iron had been applied by P. A. J. Monier, a gardener of Paris, to the making of large flower-pots; still, the general application to building-construction did not occur till about the middle of the last decade of the nineteenth century. In its development it was first applied to bridge-construction. The discussion of the subject in this chapter is confined to its use in the construction of buildings. The earliest example of a building of reinforced concrete in this country, and probably in the world, is that erected in 1875 by W. E. Ward, near Port Chester, N. Y., in which "not only all the external and internal walls, cornices and towers were constructed of concrete, but all of the beams and roofs were exclusively made of concrete reinforced by light iron beams and rods." †

The Erection of Reinforced-Concrete Work. In general outline, a building operation in reinforced concrete consists in the usual preparations of the site by excavation or otherwise, the provision of suitable foundations for walls, columns or other supports, the erection of a series of wooden molds or forms, the placing of the necessary steel reinforcement, the pouring of the concrete and the removal of the forms after the concrete has set sufficiently to sustain itself and the load that may come on it during construction. From the beginning of the erection of the forms the successive steps are progressive, that is, the placing of the steel and pouring of the concrete are going on in the lower sections or stories while the forms are being erected for the upper sections or stories. So that in a large operation the carpenters, the steel-setters and the concreters may all be working at the same time, one set slightly in advance of the others without interference one with the others. These several steps in the operation are considered in greater detail in Chapter-Subdivision 7, page 962, Erection of Reinforced-Concrete Construction.

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* For Concrete in general and Mass-Concrete, see Chapter III, pages 240 to 251; for Strength of Concrete without Reinforcement, Chapter V, pages 283 to 287; and for Reinforced-Concrete Factory-Construction, Chapter XXV. See, also, Chapter XXIII, pages 817 and 844.

† For a further and more extended history the reader is referred to the larger treatises on this subject and to Edwin Thacher's article in Engineering News, March 26, 1903.

2. Materials Used in Reinforced-Concrete Construction

The Materials used in reinforced concrete are CONCRETE and STEEL. The concrete forms the mass of the construction. Its proper use is to resist compression. While it has some tensile strength the amount is so small and so variable that it should always be neglected. STEEL is used for the reinforcing material as it furnishes the greatest amount of strength at the least expense. WROUGHT IRON could be used, but it is practically unobtainable under present conditions, and, as already intimated, its use is not economical.

Concrete. The CONCRETE consists of a mixture of cement and some aggregate, in definite proportions, with the necessary water to cause the setting of the cement.

Cement. PORTLAND CEMENT should always be used in reinforced concrete, and it should always be tested before being used. Even in small jobs it is important to know that the cement is strong and sound. In purchasing the cement, the certificate of some reliable testing-laboratory should be made one of the conditions of acceptance. Under all circumstances, it is always best to have the testing done at some well-established and properly equipped cement-testing laboratory. The results of tests in temporary laboratories are often abnormal and may lead to unnecessary controversies with the manufacturers. To be acceptable, a cement should meet the following requirements as called for in the standard specifications of the American Society for Testing Materials.*

SPECIFIC GRAVITY. The specific gravity of the cement, thoroughly dried at 100° C., shall be not less than 3.10.

FINENESS. It shall leave by weight a residue of not more than 8% on a No. 100, and not more than 25% on a No. 200 sieve.†

TIME OF SETTING. It shall develop initial set in not less than 30 minutes, but must develop hard set in not less than 1 hour, nor more than 10 hours.

TENSILE STRENGTH. The minimum requirements for tensile strength for briquettes 1 in square section shall be as follows, and shall show no retrogression in strength within the periods specified:

NEAT CEMENT

24 hours in moist air	175 lb per sq in
7 days (1 day in moist air, 6 days in water)	500 lb per sq in
28 days (1 day in moist air, 27 days in water)	600 lb per sq in

ONE PART CEMENT, THREE PARTS STANDARD OTTAWA SAND

7 days (1 day in moist air, 6 days in water)	200 lb per sq in
28 days (1 day in moist air, 27 days in water)	275 lb per sq in

* For the complete standard specification, recommended August 16, 1909, see the Year Books of the Am. Soc. for Test. Mats. Copies may be had on request from the Asso. of Am. Portland Cement Manfrs., Philadelphia, Pa.

See, also, the Report of the Joint Conference on Uniform Methods of Tests and Standard Specifications for Cement, April 28, 1915, by committees of the Am. Soc. C. E., Am. Soc. for Test. Mat., and the U. S. Government, in which report changes are recommended in Standard Specifications.

See, also, Chapter III, page 237. The principal clauses of the original specifications are repeated here, with additional notes of the associated editor, for the convenience of the reader.

† The Lackawanna Railroad Company is now demanding that Portland cement used in its structures shall pass 78% instead of 75% through a 200-mesh sieve, and, furthermore, that the cement shall remain sound after being subjected to boiling under a 20-atmosphere pressure. This is called the AUTOCLAVE TEST.

CONSTANCY OF VOLUME. Pats of neat cement about 3 in in diameter, ½ in thick at the center, and tapering to a thin edge, shall be kept in moist air for a period of 24 hours.

(1) A pat is then kept in air at normal temperature and observed at intervals for at least 28 days.

(2) Another pat is kept in water maintained as near 70° F. as practicable, and observed at intervals for at least 28 days.

(3) A third pat is exposed in any convenient way in an atmosphere of steam, above boiling water, in a loosely closed vessel for 5 hours.

These pats, to satisfactorily pass the requirements, shall remain firm and hard and show no signs of distortion, checking, cracking or disintegrating.*

SULPHURIC ACID AND MAGNESIA. The cement shall not contain more than 1.75% of anhydrous sulphuric acid (SO_3) nor more than 4% of magnesia (MgO). The test for CONSTANCY OF VOLUME or SOUNDNESS is of particular importance for reinforced-concrete work. When used in large masses an occasional batch of concrete made with unsound cement may not seriously affect the final result, but in reinforced-concrete building operations, where the different members of the structures are comparatively small, the safety of the entire building may be jeopardized by the use of a small amount of unsound cement in some important part, such as a column.

Aggregate.† By the term AGGREGATE is understood the materials, including the sand, mixed with the cement to make the concrete. In practically all cases, the sand is a necessary element.

Sand. "The SAND should be clean. One may obtain some idea of its cleanliness by placing it in the palm of one hand and rubbing it with the fingers of the other. If the sand is dirty, it will discolor the palm. If the use of dirty sand is unavoidable, its effect upon the strength of the mortar should be investigated. Preference should be given to sand containing a mixture of coarse and fine grains. Extremely fine sand can be used alone, but it makes a weaker mortar than either coarse sand alone or a mixture of coarse and fine sand."‡ Mortars composed of one part Portland cement and three parts fine aggregate or sand, by weight, should show a tensile strength of at least 70% of the strength of 1 : 3 mortar of the same consistency and of the same cement mixed with standard Ottawa sand. The New York Regulations specify that fine aggregate shall consist of sand, crushed stone or gravel screenings, passing when dry, a screen having ¼-in-diameter holes, and passing not more than 6% through a sieve having 100 meshes per linear inch. The Chicago regulations specify that not less than 45% shall be retained on a screen of 400 meshes to the square inch. (See, also, page 241.)

Coarse Aggregate. For the COARSER MATERIAL OF THE AGGREGATE many materials are used and many others have been suggested. Its selection is generally dependent upon local conditions. If possible, gravel or crushed stone should be used. Whatever is used should be a clean, hard substance that will secure to the concrete the necessary strength; that is, the crushing strength of this material should be equal to or greater than that of the mortar used, at least at the age of 28 days. In any case, where no reliable information is to be had on the strength of a concrete made from a given aggregate, careful investigation should be made before such material is used. (See, also, page 241.)

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* See preceding foot-note relating to Fineness, page 912.

† See, also, Chapter III, pages 240 to 251. The data there on Aggregates, Proportioning Materials, etc., relate more particularly to mass-concrete, while the data of Chapter XXIV is intended to cover, more in detail, reinforced concrete.

‡ Treatise on Concrete, Plain and Reinforced, Taylor and Thompson.

Gravel. GRAVEL, like sand, should be clean. If dirty it should be washed before being used. To get the most satisfactory or uniform results, gravel should be screened and graded and then mixed in definite proportions, as the RUN OF THE BANK will generally not give uniform results. (See, also, page 241.)

Stone. The most satisfactory stone that can be used is TRAP-ROCK (under which term are included most of the rocks of igneous origin), because of its toughness and great compressive strength. The GRANITES, as they are commercially known, are considered by some equal in quality to trap-rock for the making of concrete. The presence of mica in considerable proportion in some of the so-called granites would seem to make them unsuitable. LIMESTONES, if the soft varieties are excepted, make excellent concrete as far as strength is concerned. They would, however, seem to affect the fire-proof character of the concrete. (See Tables on page 957.) The harder and more compact SANDSTONES, also, may be used successfully, but great care must be exercised in their selection. CONGLOMERATE, which is in reality a hard, coarse sandstone, should give very satisfactory results. On account of their low crushing strength, SLATE or SHALE should not be used in concrete. Besides the stones thus far mentioned, broken BRICK, TERRA-COTTA, FURNACE-CLINKER and FURNACE-SLAG have been suggested. In the selection of broken brick or terra-cotta, care must be taken to get hard-burned material. The crushing strength of such material, when well selected, is a little more than that of acceptable concrete, 28 days old. But ordinarily, commercial brick or terra-cotta will not meet the requirements for a good aggregate, and these materials should be used only as a last resort and then only after careful investigation. (See, also, page 241.)

Cinders. FURNACE-CLINKERS should be clean and entirely free from combustible matter. CINDERS are often used where fireproofing is the primary consideration, and no doubt good constructions may be obtained, with extreme care, by the use of clinker or cinder concrete, especially if the material is ground, screened and graded as suggested for gravel. But in general practice the concrete is not uniform in quality and is unreliable in strength. It is therefore not considered in this chapter. In Chapter XXIII, Fireproofing of Buildings, its use is discussed on page 818. (See, also, page 242.)

Size of Aggregate. The SIZE OF THE AGGREGATE may vary from ¼ to 2½ in in largest diametrical dimension, depending on the particular purpose for which it is to be used. Where the mass of concrete is comparatively large the aggregate may run as high as 2½ in in size. This may sometimes be the case in foundations and in large piers and thick walls. In columns, girders, beams and slabs, very unsatisfactory results would be obtained if so large a stone were used. For such work no stone or other aggregate should be used larger than would pass a 1-in screen. In important girders and columns, especially when the reinforcing-bars are closely spaced, the size should be made even smaller so that a concrete of viscous consistency is produced "which will pass readily between and easily surround the reinforcement and fill all parts of the forms."*

The MAXIMUM SIZES allowed for the aggregate in reinforced concrete in the different cities are as follows: St. Louis and Buffalo, stone that will pass a ¾-in ring, that is, "three-quarter-inch stone"; New York, Cleveland and Philadelphia, stone that will pass a 1-in ring; Chicago, stone passing 1-in-square mesh; San Francisco, for floors and fireproofing, 1-in stone, for foundations, 2-in stone. (See, also, page 241.)

Water. "The WATER used in mixing concrete should be free from oil, acid, alkalies, or organic matter."*

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* Progress Report, Proc. Am. Soc. C. E., Feb., 1913, pages 137 and 138.

Proportions of the Materials. The proper PROPORTION OF THE MATERIALS entering into the concrete is dependent upon the size and character of the materials. In cities in which there are regulations governing reinforced-concrete construction, the mixture to be used is generally specified. In the absence of other considerations the most satisfactory and reliable mixture is, one part of Portland cement, two parts of sand and four parts of stone or gravel. It is the mixture that has been used in most of the experimental work on reinforced concrete, and there is therefore much trustworthy information to be had concerning it. In the case of large or important operations, however, great economy can often be effected by a preliminary study of the materials to be used and of their proper proportions. In general, for given materials, the most economical mixture is also the strongest. The old method of determining the proportions of concrete by measuring the voids in the coarser particles by means of water poured into a box containing 1 cu ft of the material and then providing that quantity of finer material, assuming the cement the same as sand, is not to be recommended. It does not give accurate or satisfactory results. A better method is to take the materials to be used and make trial-mixtures by varying the proportions, always using, however, the same amount of cement and water. These trial-mixtures are placed successively in a measuring vessel of fixed size and tamped, and the height to which the vessel is filled for each mixture is noted. The proportions that give the lowest height, or result in the smallest volume, will give the most satisfactory concrete. (See, also, page 242 and following pages.)

The best and most scientific method, however, is that known as the MECHANICAL ANALYSIS, devised by W. B. Fuller. In this method the available materials, including the cement, are separated into the various sizes by means of a series of sieves; curves are plotted which indicate the percentages of the whole mass, which pass the several sieves; and from a study of these curves the proportions of the different aggregates are determined. For a detailed description of this method the reader is referred to the chapter on Proportioning Concrete in the 1911 edition of the Treatise on Concrete, Plain and Reinforced, by Taylor and Thompson. As an example of the saving possible, the following case, given in the work just referred to, will be of interest:

"The ordinary mixture for water-tight concrete is about 1 : 2½ : 4½, which requires 1.57 barrels of cement per cubic yard of concrete. By carefully grading the materials by methods of mechanical analysis the writer has obtained water-tight work with a mixture of about 1 : 3 : 7, thus using only 1.01 barrels of cement per cubic yard of concrete. This saving of 0.56 barrel is equivalent, with Portland cement at $1.60 per barrel, to $0.89 per cu yd of concrete. The added cost of labor for proportioning and mixing the concrete, because of the use of five grades of aggregate instead of two, was about $0.15 per cu yd, thus effecting a net saving of $0.74 per cu yd. On a piece of work involving, say, 20 000 cu yd of concrete, such a saving would amount to $14 800, an amount well worth considerable study and effort on the part of those in responsible charge."

In the ordinances or regulations governing reinforced concrete of various cities the proportions to be used are generally prescribed. In New York, "the concrete for reinforced-concrete structures shall consist of a wet mixture of one part of cement to not more than six parts of aggregate, fine and coarse, either in the proportions of one part of cement, two parts of sand and four parts of stone or gravel, or in such proportion that the resistance of the concrete to crushing shall not be less than 2 400 lb per sq in after hardening for 28 days." In Chicago, various grades of concrete are specified with the ultimate compressive resistance, to be developed, from a mixture of 1 : 1 : 2 and an ultimate strength of 2 900 lb per sq in, to a 1 : 3 : 7 mixture with a strength of 1 500 lb per sq in. In Boston and San Francisco the proportion is given as one of cement to six of aggregate. In Buffalo a 1 : 2 : 5 mixture is required.

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* Progress Report, Proc. Am. Soc. C. E., Feb., 1913, pages 137 and 138.

Compressive Strength of Reinforced Concrete. For reinforced-concrete work no mixture should be used that does not develop a compressive strength of at least 2 000 lb per sq in at the age of 28 days. The crushing strength of various concretes is shown in the following table:

Table I. Compressive Strength of Portland-Cement Concrete of Different Proportions

Proportions			Age, months	Compressive strength per sq in	Authority
Cement	Sand	Stone			
1	1	0	4	4 370	James E. Howard, Tests, Watertown Arsenal
1	2	0	4	2 506	
1	3	0	4	1 812	
1	4	0	4	830	
1	5	0	4	532	
1	6	0	4	169	
1	7	0	4	118	
1	2	4	4	2 178	
1	3	6	4	1 815	
1	4	8	4	1 135	
1	5	10	4	707	
1	6	12	4	738	
1	2	2	4	1 768	
1	2	3	4	1 911	
1	2	4	4	2 147	
1	2	5	4	2 452	
1	2	6	4	2 124	
1	2	7	4	1 650	
1	2	8	4	1 295	
1	2	4	1	2 399	G. A. Kimball, Tests of Metals, U. S. A.
1	2½	5	1	3 255	Taylor and Thompson, Tests, Watertown Arsenal
1	3	5	1	2 042	Watertown Arsenal, Tests of Metals, U. S. A.

Working Stresses for Reinforced Concrete. Some formulas for the strength of reinforced-concrete construction provide for the use of the ultimate strength of the concrete and the application of a factor of safety. This practice is not to be recommended as it necessitates either the test of the concrete or the assumption of an ultimate strength. While it is undoubtedly desirable that the concrete should be tested, this is generally impracticable when the building is being designed. It should be done during construction and is done on the best work, to make sure that the concrete is up to the requirements. Various factors of safety from two and one-half to ten have been proposed. Different factors of safety are used for different members of a structure or for different conditions. This is another reason why it would be better to use working stresses than ultimate stresses. The following working stresses are recommended for reinforced concrete that will develop a crushing strength of 2 000 lb per sq in in 28 days:

Extreme fiber-stress in compression	650 lb per sq in
Shearing-stress	40 lb per sq in
Shearing-stress when all tension at right-angles to the shearing-plane is taken up by the steel	120 lb per sq in
Direct compression	450 lb per sq in

Table II gives the stresses allowed by various building ordinances.

Steel Reinforcement. The function of the steel reinforcement is to take up the longitudinal and diagonal tensile stresses and in some cases, as in columns and in beams reinforced at the top, to give additional compressive strength.

Mild or High Steel. Two grades of steel are used for the reinforcement, MILD STEEL and HIGH-CARBON STEEL. MILD or MEDIUM STEEL is used for all structural shapes and is the ordinary MERCHANT-STEEL. It has an ultimate tensile strength of from 60 000 to 70 000 lb per sq in, and its elastic limit is about one-half the ultimate strength. HIGH-CARBON STEEL has a greater percentage of carbon and is therefore more brittle. Its ultimate strength is about 105 000 and its elastic limit about 55 000 lb per sq in. The use of HIGH-CARBON STEEL would permit greater stresses in the reinforcement, and consequently a less amount of steel and a greater economy in construction. On account of its greater brittleness, however, it is liable to sudden failures under stress. It is also often found to be cracked or broken when sent to the work, and unless it is very carefully inspected there is great liability of defective material getting into the structure. Furthermore, much of the so-called HIGH-CARBON STEEL has been found in practice, after testing, to fall far short of the specifications. Its use is therefore to be avoided, unless special care is taken to secure an absolutely reliable article and to have it inspected and tested. For large, important work this would be desirable. Ordinarily, however, mild steel should be used, as commercially it is manufactured and sold under such standard conditions that it is reliable. As the modulus of elasticity of high-carbon steel is practically the same as that of medium steel, the deformation under any given loading is the same and there is no special advantage in the use of one over the other. Steel filling the requirements of the specifications adopted by the American Railway Engineering and Maintenance of Way Association is recommended by the Committee of the American Society of Civil Engineers. This specification calls for a desired ULTIMATE TENSILE STRENGTH of 60 000 lb per sq in and should not vary more than 5 000 lb per sq in from the desired ultimate strength. For slab and small beam-reinforcement where wire or small rods are suitable, steel manufactured from Bessemer billets may be used with a TENSILE STRENGTH of 105 000, and a YIELD-POINT of not less than 52 500 lb per sq in.

Working Stresses for Steel. The generally accepted WORKING STRESS for medium steel is 16 000 lb per sq in in tension. Tests have shown that in cases where the failure of reinforced-concrete beams is due to the failure of the reinforcement, the stress in the metal had not more than reached the YIELD-POINT. This point is somewhat lower than the ELASTIC LIMIT. The working stress in the steel, therefore, should be a fixed proportion of the yield-point or the elastic limit. It is held by some that this ratio should not be as high as one to two, but more nearly one to three, reducing the working stress in mild steel as given above to 10 000 or 12 000 lb per sq in. In using high-carbon steel they would advocate a similar ratio of the elastic limit, whatever that may be, according to test. Ordinarily 20 000 lb per sq in is taken as the working stress for high-carbon steel. Allowable WORKING STRESSES in steel reinforcement in various cities are given in Table II, page 918.

Table II. Working Stresses for Reinforced-Concrete Construction

Authority	Extreme fiber-stress, concrete in compression, lb per sq in	Direct compression in concrete, lb per sq in	Shearing-stress in concrete, lb per sq in	Shearing-stress in concrete when all diagonal tension is resisted by steel, lb per sq in	Adhesion of steel to concrete, lb per sq in	Tensile stress in steel, lb per sq in	Tensile stress in steel to resist diagonal tension, lb per sq in	Ratio of modulus of elasticity of steel to that of concrete
New York	650	500	40	150	80	16 000	16 000	15 (girders) 12 (columns)
Chicago	35% ult.*	1/6 ult.*	1/50 ult.*	1/15 ult.*	70	1/3 E. L.† ≯18 000	shearing-stress 12 000	15
Philadelphia	600	500	75	....	50	16 000	....	12
Boston	500	416 max. 347 min.	60	....	60	16 000	....	15 (girders) 10 (columns)
Cleveland	700	500	40	125	50 to 100	16 000	10 000	15
Baltimore	500	400	50	....	....	15 000	10 000	15
Detroit	650	450	40	....	40	45% E. L.† ≯16 000	....	15
Buffalo	500	350	50	....	50	16 000	10 000	12
San Francisco	500	500	75	....	60	20 000	10 000	15

* Ultimate strength. † Elastic limit. The symbol ≯ indicates "equal to or greater than."

Table III. Specifications for Reinforcing Steel

The steel shall be rolled from new billets to meet the following Manufacturers' Standard Specifications:

Properties considered	All steel except alternate for deformed bars	Alternative specifications for deformed bars only	
		Structural grade	Hard grade
Manufacture............	Open hearth	Open hearth or Bessemer	Open hearth or Bessemer
Phosphorus, maximum..	0.06	0.10	0.10
Ultimate tensile strength, pounds per square inch	60 000 to 70 000	55 000 to 65 000	80 000 (minimum)
Yield-point, minimum pounds per square inch	60% T. S.	33 000	50 000
Elongation, minimum per cent in 8 in........	$\frac{1\,400\,000}{\text{tensile strength}}$	$\frac{1\,250\,000}{\text{tensile strength}}$	$\frac{1\,000\,000}{\text{tensile strength}}$
Cold bending-tests, without fracture...........	180°, to a diam equal to the thickness of piece tested	Bars under ¾ in, 180°, $d = 1\,t$; ¾ in and over, 180°, $d = 2\,t$	Bars under ¾ in, 180°, $d = 4\,t$; ¾ in and over, 90°, $d = 4\,t$

Tension-Members. Reinforcement is used in a variety of shapes and combinations, nearly all of them patented and some of them forming the basis for so-called SYSTEMS. Where the reinforcement is employed to take up tension, as in a beam or girder, the BOND between the concrete and the steel is relied upon to develop the TENSIONAL STRESSES in the steel. The plain bars depend entirely upon the ADHESION of the steel and the concrete for the action of the two materials in combination, or the full tensile strength of the rod is developed by anchoring the rods into the concrete at the ends, in which case the beam becomes more analogous to a trussed beam with the rod as the tension-member. In cross-section, plain bars are usually round or square, though sometimes flat bars, angles, tees, or other shapes are used. In regard to the use of square bars and some other shapes, it is contended that the edges start initial cracks in the concrete as it shrinks in setting. Twisted flat bars, when placed too near the surface of the concrete, cause a spalling or breaking out of the concrete from between the convolutions, when the steel is under stress.

Deformed Bars. With the DEFORMED BARS the adhesion of the concrete to the steel is supplemented by a MECHANICAL BOND due to the shape of the bar. The following deformed bars have been and are at present widely used.

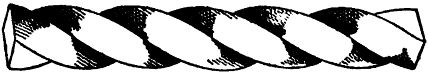

Fig. 1. The Ransom Twisted Bar

The Ransome Bar. The Ransome Twisted Bars (Fig. 1) are made of square bars, twisted cold. The work on the bars in the twisting process increases the elastic limit and the tensile strength; but the amount of the increase is not fixed, as variations in the grade of rolled steel may result, after twisting, in still wider variations. The users of this bar generally assume a working stress of 20 000 lb per sq in. The patent on this bar has expired and it may now be used by anyone. Strictly speaking, this is not a deformed bar. These bars can be obtained in all sizes, varying by ⅛ in from ¼ to 1¼ in. Larger sizes, also, can be obtained on special order.

The Spiral Steel Bar. The Buffalo Steel Company of Tonawanda, N. Y., makes a round bar with longitudinal spiral projections, thus eliminating the sharp corners (Fig. 2). It is made in sizes of from ⅜ to 1¼-in diameter and the cross-sectional areas are equal to the areas of equivalent squares. The bars are rolled from old railroad rails and twisted hot. They are made of high-carbon steel with an elastic limit of from 65 000 to 80 000 lb per sq in.

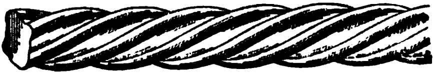

Fig. 2. The Spiral Steel Bar

Corrugated Bars. Corrugated bars (Fig. 3), both square and round in cross-section, are made by the Corrugated Bar Company of New York City and Buffalo, N. Y., of both medium and high-elastic-limit steel with a yield-point of about 50 000 lb per sq in. Corr-Bars are furnished either straight and cut to length, or bent ready for the forms. The standard sizes are as follows:

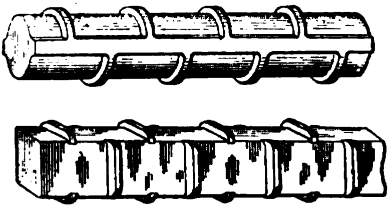

Fig. 3. Corrugated Bars. Round and Square

CORRUGATED ROUNDS

Size in inches	⅜	½	9/16	⅝	¾	⅞	1	1⅛	1¼
Net area in square inches	0.11	0.19	0.25	0.30	0.44	0.60	0.78	0.99	1.22
Weight per foot in pounds	0.38	0.66	0.86	1.05	1.52	2.06	2.69	3.41	4.21

CORRUGATED SQUARES

Size in inches	¼	⅜	½	⅝	¾	⅞	1	1⅛	1¼
Net area in square inches	0.06	0.14	0.25	0.39	0.56	0.76	1.00	1.26	1.55
Weight per foot in pounds	0.22	0.49	0.86	1.35	1.94	2.64	3.43	4.34	5.35

The Havermeyer Bar. The Havermeyer Bar (Fig. 4), controlled by the Concrete Steel Company, Youngstown, Ohio, consists of square and round bars rolled with a series of gradual projections on all sides, the deformations being so designed that there is a constant cross-sectional area. They are furnished in the following sizes and weights:

Size in inches	Square bars		Round bars	
	Area in square inches	Weight per foot in pounds	Area in square inches	Weight per foot in pounds
¼	0.0625	0.212	0.0491	0.167
⅜	0.1406	0.478	0.1104	0.375
½	0.2500	0.850	0.1963	0.667
⅝	0.3906	1.328	0.3068	1.043
¾	0.5625	1.913	0.4418	1.502
⅞	0.7656	2.603	0.6013	2.044
1	1.0000	3.400	0.7854	2.670
1⅛	1.2656	4.303	0.9940	3.379
1¼	1 5625	5.312	1.2272	4.173
1⅜	1.8906	6.428	....	....
1½	2.2500	7.650	....	....

A variation of 5% under and 2½% over the above weights is required for rolling.

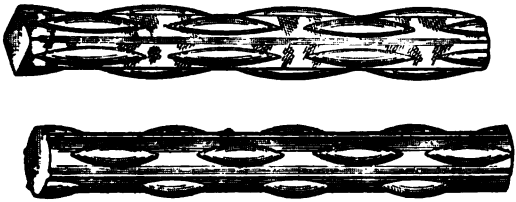

Fig. 4. The Havermeyer Bar, Square and Round

The Diamond Bar. The Diamond Bar (Fig. 5), put on the market by the Concrete Steel Engineering Company, New York City, is claimed as the only deformed bar of absolutely uniform section. There is consequently no waste of metal due to the deformations, as there is in other bars. This bar is practically a round bar, and as sudden transitions from one section to another are avoided, all tendency to cause initial cracks in the concrete is overcome. The weights and areas of Diamond bars are equal to those of plain square bars of like denominations. Bars from ¼ to 1¼ in in diameter may be obtained from the Concrete Steel Engineering Company, of New York City.

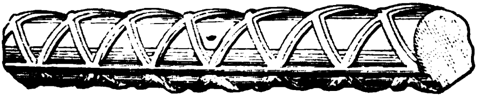

Fig. 5. The Diamond Bar

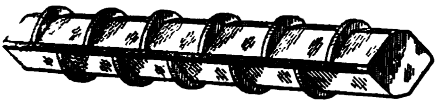

Fig. 6. The Rib-bar

The Rib-Bar. The Rib-Bar (Fig. 6) manufactured by the Trussed Concrete Steel Company of Detroit, Mich., is a rolled section with a series of cross-ribs.

It is of rectangular section and furnished in sizes of from 1/4 to 1 1/4 in, the areas of the cross-sections being equivalent to squares of equal denominations; but the weights are slightly greater, and are as follows:

Size in inches	Area in square inches	Weight per linear foot in pounds
1/4	0.0625	0.213
3/8	0.1406	0.48
1/2	0.2500	0.86
5/8	0.3906	1.35
3/4	0.5625	1.95
7/8	0.7656	2.65
1	1.0000	3.46
1 1/8	1.2656	4.38
1 1/4	1.5625	5.41

The Ovoid Bar. The Gabriel Concrete Reinforcement Company of Detroit, Mich., furnishes the Ovoid Bar (Fig. 7), in sizes and areas as follows:

Size in inches	3/8	1/2	5/8	3/4	13/16	7/8	15/16	1	1 1/8	1 1/4
Area in square inches.......	0.1406	0.25	0.3906	0.5625	0.6602	0.7656	0.8789	1.00	1.2656	1.5625
Weight in pounds......	0.494	0.873	1.356	1.947	2.282	2.643	3.031	3.446	4.354	5.37

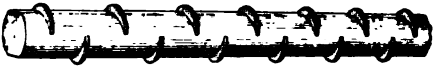

Fig. 7. The Ovoid Bar

Wire Mesh and Expanded Metal. Other types of tension-reinforcement, such as WIRE-MESH FABRIC and EXPANDED METAL in various forms have been discussed in Chapter XXIII, Fireproofing of Buildings. Wire fabric has come into very general use as a slab-reinforcement, as it resists temperature-cracks and the cracking of the concrete from impact or shock. It is made in various gauges with heavy longitudinal or carrying wires and lighter transverse, distributing or tie-wires. Expanded metal is similar to wire mesh in providing reinforcement in both directions, rigidly spaced and attached or fastened together. This additional advantage is claimed for it; it provides reinforcement in all directions, thus taking care of concentrated loads.

Anchoring. Different methods have been used for ANCHORING the tension-bars in reinforced concrete. In the Hennebique system of construction (Fig. 8) where plain bars are used, the ends of the rods are split and flared out. In other constructions the ends of the bars are simply turned at right-angles in such direction as is most suitable. In some instances nuts and washers have been placed at the ends of reinforcing-rods. Where reinforced-concrete floors are used in connection with steel columns the rods are run through the web-plates or through angle-brackets and secured with nuts.

Adhesion. The strengths of the BOND between concrete and steel for various forms of bars and differing conditions are shown in Table IV. After the bond has failed, the reinforcement still acts in conjunction with the concrete, due to a MOVING OR FRICTIONAL RESISTANCE. Numerous tests have shown this frictional resistance to be about two-thirds of the initial bond-strength. The BOND-STRENGTH for ordinary round or square-section bars may be taken at 200 to 300 lb per sq in, depending upon the character of the concrete and the degree of roughness of the steel. MECHANICAL BOND depends upon the shape of the bar and the compressive and shearing strength of the concrete.

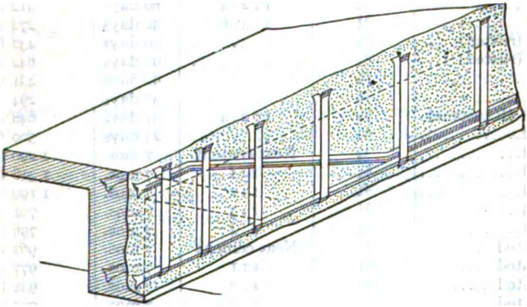

Fig. 8. The Hennebique System

Shear-Members. In many of the tests on full-sized concrete beams, failure occurs by the development of diagonal breaks near the supports. The first diagonal crack in a beam, with nothing but horizontal tension-steel at the bottom, is apt to occur when the maximum VERTICAL SHEAR is from 100 to 200 lb per sq in. Since the vertical shear is accompanied by a HORIZONTAL SHEAR of equal intensity in all parts of the beam, it was formerly thought that this diagonal failure was due to these shearing-forces at the end of the beam and vertical stirrups or bent-up rods were provided to resist the horizontal shear. More recent tests have shown that the SHEARING STRENGTH of concrete is from 60 to 80% of the compressive strength, and that these cracks are diagonal and in the direction which could be expected from the THEORY OF DIAGONAL TENSION, which attributes them to a combination of the shearing-stress with the horizontal tensile stress. The inclined cracks which first appear are due to a rupture of the concrete in tension. The most effective way to prevent this rupture is to provide reinforcement in the direction of the stress that is inclined upwards toward the supports, as nearly as possible normal to the line of the diagonal crack. Vertical reinforcement could be used, but it would not act until deformation or downward displacement of the concrete occurred on the side of the crack away from the support. If vertical stirrups are used for this reinforcement, they must be spaced a less distance apart than the effective depth of the beam, and they must be looped around, though not necessarily attached to, the horizontal bars. When inclined reinforcement is used, it must be rigidly attached to the longitudinal members and spaced a less distance apart than the effective depth of the beam. The reason for this is that the magnitude and inclination of the diagonal tension increases from the middle toward the end of the beam, being inclined 45° where the horizontal tension becomes zero.

Table IV. Results of Tests on Adhesion Between Concrete and Steel

Kind of bar	Size tested in fraction of inch	Concrete	Age	Ultimate strength developed in lb per sq in of surface in contact
Round	½	1:2:4	60 days	412 (*a*)
Square	¾	1:3:6	30 days	274 (*b*)
Square (rusted)	¾	....	30 days	437 (*c*)
Square (rusted)	¾	....	90 days	642 (*c*)
Square	⅞	....	90 days	431 (*c*)
Square	⅞	....	30 days	294 (*c*)
Twisted (Ransome)	⅝	1:2:4	31 days	648 (*d*)
Twisted	¾	....	25 days	500 (*c*)
Twisted	¾	Neat cement	7 mos.	1 290 (*e*)
Twisted	¾	1:1	7 mos.	1 318 (*e*)
Twisted	¾	1:2	7 mos.	1 199 (*e*)
Twisted	¾	1:3	7 mos.	701 (*e*)
Twisted	¾	1:4	7 mos.	796 (*e*)
Corrugated	¾	Neat cement	7 mos.	962 (*e*)
Corrugated	¾	1:1	7 mos.	977 (*e*)
Corrugated	¾	1:2	7 mos.	934 (*e*)
Corrugated	¾	1:3	7 mos.	735 (*e*)
Corrugated	¾	1:4	7 mos.	564 (*e*)
Corrugated	¾	1:2:4	31 days	640 (*d*)
Thatcher	⅞	....	30 days	646 (*c*)

The following are the authorities for the above tests:

(*a*) A. N. Talbot.
(*b*) C. M. Spofford.
(*c*) New York City Rapid Transit Company.
(*d*) T. L. Condron.
(*e*) Tests of Metals, Watertown Arsenal, 1904.

The Kahn Bar. In the Kahn Trussed Bar (Fig. 9) the attachment of the stirrups to the tension-member is positively secured. The bars are square in cross-section with webs rolled on them at two diagonally opposite edges. The stirrups are formed by shearing these webs through a part of their length and turning up parts, as shown in the cut. These stirrups may be placed so as to turn up in pairs or so as to alternate on opposite sides of the bar, making the spacing of the stirrups closer than when turned up in pairs. Another advantage incidental to the use of this bar is that the greater effective cross-section in the steel is at the middle, the point of greatest bending moment with the usual loading. Two disadvantages, however, are the separation of the concrete by the wings above and below the bar, and the limitation as to the effective stirrup-length in deep beams. This bar is controlled by the Trussed Concrete Steel Company of Detroit, Mich.

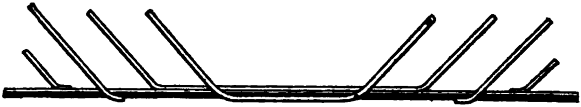

Fig. 9. The Kahn Bar

The Kahn Trussed Bar can be obtained in the following sizes:

Size, inches	Weight per lineal foot, pounds	Area, square inches	Length of diagonals, inches
½×1½	1.4	0.41	6- 8-12
¾×2 3/16	2.7	0.79	12- 8-18
1½×2¼	4.8	1.41	24-18-30-36
1¾×2¾	6.8	2.00	24-18-30-36
2 ×3½	10.2	3.00	30-24-36-48

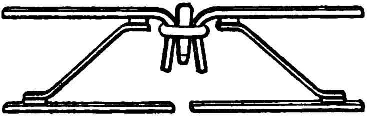

Fig. 10. The Xpantrus Bar

The Xpantrus Bar. This bar (Fig. 10) possesses the advantages of rigidly-attached shear-members, both at the top and at the bottom of beam, providing for continuous reinforcement with negative moments over the supports. The main tension-member, the shear-member and the top reinforcing-steel form one integral bar, without welds or mechanical attachments holding them together, the connecting ties being formed from the web of the rolled shape. The original section is retained in full at the middle of the beam. By slotting the thin webs and afterwards expanding the section, the middle web is transformed into a shear-member, and the top flange-bar becomes the top reinforcement. In order to provide for the negative bending moment the end of the top bar is bent into a hook, and a link-and-wedge connection is made with the corresponding bar in the adjoining beam. This bar has been developed into a complete reinforcing-system, covering all conditions encountered in beam and girder-work. The reinforcement is fabricated complete in the shop and is shipped to the job properly tagged, assembled and ready to drop into place. Seven sections of bar are offered by the manufacturer. Any cross-section can be obtained by merely combining several sizes. Complete tables in hand-book form are offered by the manufacturer for use with this system.

Steel in Compression. The steel reinforcement in reinforced concrete is used in certain cases to assist in developing COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH when the concrete is not sufficient for the purpose, as in the case of beams and girders with rods placed above the neutral axis, and columns with rods placed vertically. The use of the steel reinforcement in resisting COMPRESSION will be treated more at length in Subdivision 3 of this chapter in the paragraph Compression Rods in Beams and Girders, page 944. On account of the uncertainty, however, of the steel and concrete each receiving its proportionate share of the load, the use of steel in compression should be avoided as much as possible.

The Position of the Reinforcement. The importance of the EXACT POSITION OF THE REINFORCEMENT in the concrete will become more apparent in the discussion of the design of beams. A slight displacement of the steel will materially affect the strength. If the steel shifts upward the beam is weakened, if it shifts downward the protection of the steel against rust or fire is reduced. In the so-called UNIT SYSTEMS the reinforcements, including the tension-rods and stirrups, are so tied and framed together that after being placed in the forms the possibility of shifting their positions with respect to the other surfaces of the beam or to one another is practically entirely removed.

The Unit System. The particular advantages in the use of a UNIT SYSTEM of reinforcement is, as already indicated, the assurance that each and every part of the reinforcement is in its exact relative position, and maintains that position during the placing of the concrete. The reinforcement for each beam or girder is as carefully laid out as the location of cover-plates, stiffeners, connection-angles and rivets in a built-up steel girder. It can consequently be thoroughly inspected and checked before being placed in position. Being marked, its exact location is easily determined by the foreman on the job, from the erection-plan. After it is put in place a quick inspection will show at once whether it is correctly placed or not, as it must fit and extend the full length of the mold. Being fabricated OFF THE JOB there is less interference between workmen. The fabrication can proceed while the molds are being made, and consequently greater speed in erection is possible. The frames are readily transported and less liable to get mixed than loose rods sent to the job.

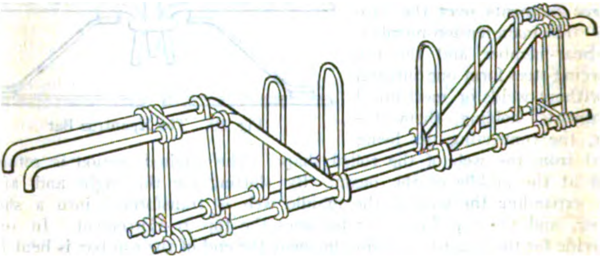

Fig. 11. The Unit System

The Unit System (Fig. 11) is the pioneer of this type of construction and at present is manufactured by the American System of Reinforcing, Chicago, Ill. Its particular features are the bending up of some of the longitudinal reinforcements near the supports and the use of round U-shaped stirrups, wound around the bars while hot and allowed to shrink into place.

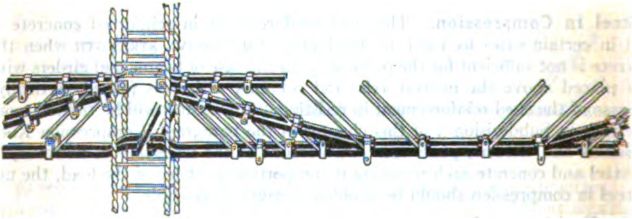

Fig. 12. The Pin-connected Girder-frame

The Pin-Connected Girder-Frame (Fig. 12) is manufactured by the General Fireproofing Company, Youngstown, Ohio. In this frame some of the reinforcements are bent up near the supports, and these reinforcements in adjoining girders are fastened together by means of links and pins forming ties over the supports and making the whole reinforcement practically continuous.

The Cummings System (Fig. 13) is manufactured by the Electric Welding Company, Pittsburgh, Pa. The particular feature of this system is the inverted

U-shaped stirrups which are shipped flat with the longitudinal reinforcement, but are bent up to an inclined position on the work. The rods are held together by means of a patented chair.

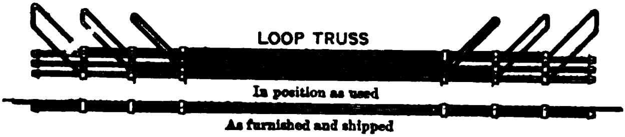

Fig. 13. The Cummings System

The Luten Truss. The Luten Truss (Fig. 14) consists of longitudinal rods with alternate members bent diagonally upwards across the beam and continuing along the upper surface to the end of the frame. Diagonal members are provided through all the region of diagonal shear in both ends of the beam.

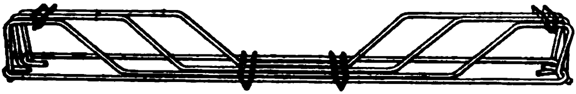

Fig. 14. The Lutin Truss

This frame is provided with a clamp and wedge that locks the members together. It is controlled by the National Concrete Company, Indianapolis, Ind.

The Corr-Bar Units. The Corr-Bar Unit, Fig. 15, made by the Corrugated Bar Company, St. Louis, Mo., is provided with a continuous stirrup of both vertical and inclined web-members with a rigid anchorage at both top and bottom. In tests by Professor Talbot on this type of reinforced beam, considerably higher values were obtained in vertical shear.

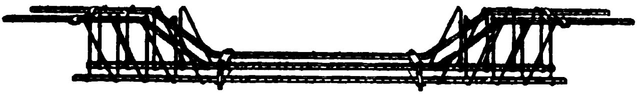

Fig. 15. The Corr-bar Unit

3. Design of Reinforced-Concrete Construction

Girders, Beams and Slabs. Different formulas for the design of reinforced concrete girders, beams, slabs, etc., based on various theoretical considerations, have been devised by different investigators. The formulas here given have been widely accepted and are offered because they are simple in form and give satisfactory results. If anything, they err on the side of safety; and furthermore, they have been found to give results closely in accord with actual tests. They have been adopted by the Prussian Minister of Public Works,* are used by the New York City Building Bureau, and are accepted by other authorities.

Assumptions in the Formulas. The formulas are based on the following assumptions:

* See Regulations of 1907.

(1) The BOND between the concrete and steel is sufficient to make the two materials act together.

(2) A PLANE CROSS-SECTION of a beam before bending remains a plane section after bending, and the stress and strain* in any fiber of either material are directly proportional to the distance of that fiber from the neutral axis of the cross-section.

(3) The MODULUS OF ELASTICITY of the concrete in compression remains constant within the assumed working stresses.

(4) The TENSIONAL STRESS is taken entirely by the steel; that is, the tensile strength of the concrete is not considered.

Fig. 16 represents a longitudinal section and a cross-section of a reinforced-concrete beam in a state of flexure or bending under a load. The fibers above the NEUTRAL SURFACE of the beam or above the NEUTRAL AXIS of the cross-section are in compression and according to the assumptions the stresses vary in direct proportion to their distances from the neutral surface or axis, so that the total area of compression in the concrete, representing the TOTAL COMPRESSIVE STRESS, may be graphically indicated by the shaded triangle. The TOTAL TENSIONAL STRESS may be assumed to be concentrated at the center of gravity of the cross-section of the steel reinforcement. One of the conditions of STATIC EQUILIBRIUM for the beam is that the algebraic sum of all the horizontal stresses in the cross-section shall be zero; that is, that the sum of all the compressive stresses, or the resultant compressive stress in the concrete, must equal the total or resultant tensional stress in the steel.

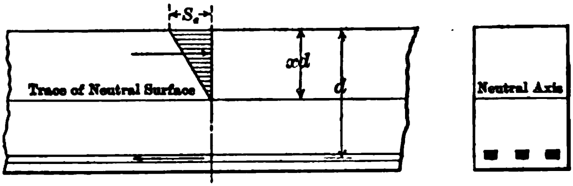

Fig. 16. Sections of Reinforced-concrete Beam

Formulas for Reinforced-Concrete Beams. From these assumptions, based upon THEORETIC and EXPERIMENTAL LAWS, the following formulas are derived, in which

S_i = the allowable unit tension or working stress in the steel in pounds per square inch;

S_c = the allowable unit compression or working-stress in the extreme fibers of the concrete;

r = the ratio of the modulus of elasticity of the steel to the modulus of elasticity of the concrete;

d = the effective depth of the beam, in inches, that is the distance from the center of gravity of the steel reinforcement to the extreme fibers in compression;

x = the ratio of the depth of the neutral axis from the extreme fibers in compression, to the effective depth of the beam, so that

xd = the distance of the neutral axis, in inches, from the extreme fibers in compression;

---

* Deformation.

b = the width of the beam;

p = the ratio of the cross-section of the steel to the cross-section of the beam, considering the beam all of that part of the concrete above the center of gravity of the steel;

M = the maximum bending moment at the dangerous section of the beam;

M_r = the moment of resistance at the dangerous section of the beam, and must of course be equal to or potentially greater than the maximum bending moment;*

K = a factor used for simplification of the formulas. This factor is constant for any given steel and concrete;

A_s = sectional area of the steel:

For beams of rectangular cross-section

$$M = M_r = Kbd^2 \tag{1}$$

the value of K being determined by the formula

$$K = S_t \left(\frac{1}{2\left(\frac{S_t}{S_c}\right)\left(1 + \frac{S_t}{S_c r}\right)} \right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{3\left(1 + \frac{S_t}{S_c r}\right)} \right) \tag{2}$$

which formula can be deduced from the LAWS OF FLEXURE of beams and the assumptions noted above.

In the use of this formula for the value of K it must be remembered that the ratio of S_t to S_c for any given ratio of steel to concrete, p, is a constant, so that corresponding values of S_t and S_c must be used. This ratio, p, often spoken of as the PERCENTAGE OF REINFORCEMENT, is the expression in the first parenthesis of the second member of Formula (2)

$$p = \frac{1}{2\left(\frac{S_t}{S_c}\right)\left(1 + \frac{S_t}{S_c r}\right)} \tag{3}$$

The value of x is derived from the expression

$$x = rp\left(\sqrt{1 + \frac{2}{rp}} - 1\right) \tag{4}$$

Values for K and x for corresponding values of p, for different conditions fixed by the building authorities of different cities, are given in Tables V, VI, VII and VIII.

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* The "moment of resistance" or the "resisting moment" referred to any cross-section of a beam in a horizontal position and in a state of flexure under a load or loads is the algebraic sum of the moments of the internal horizontal stresses with reference to a point in that section; and the "bending moment" for that section is the algebraic sum of the moments of all the external vertical forces on either side of the section (the forces on the left side being usually taken). The resisting moments increase with the bending moments and in the flexure formula, $M = SI/c$ (see Chapters IX and X), they are made equal to each other, M being the bending moment and SI/c the resisting moment. In the following formulas M and the expression "bending moment" generally denote the maximum bending moment. M_{max} is often used to denote the latter.

Table V. Values for Formulas for Reinforced Concrete

$r = 12$

p	x	K	S_c	S_t	K	S_c	S_t	K	S_c	S_t
0.0045	0.279	.....	...	......	....	...	......	65.4	516	16 000
0.0050	0.291	.....	...	......	....	...	......	72.2	550	"
0.0055	0.303	.....	...	......	69.3	507	14 000	79.2	580	"
0.0058	0.310	.....	...	......	73.0	525	"	83.4	609	"
0.0060	0.314	.....	...	......	75.2	535	"	86.0	612	"
0.0065	0.325	.....	...	......	81.2	560	"	92.8	640	"
0.0070	0.334	74.7	503	12 000	87.2	587	"	96.5	650	15 510
0.0075	0.344	79.5	523	"	93.0	610	"	99.0	"	14 900
0.0080	0.353	84.7	544	"	98.8	635	"	101.2	"	14 350
0.0085	0.361	89.9	565	"	103.3	650	13 800	103.3	"	13 800
0.0090	0.369	94.7	584	"	105.1	"	13 350	105.1	"	13 350
0.0095	0.377	99.6	605	"	107.0	"	12 900	107.0	"	12 900
0.0100	0.384	104.5	625	"	108.8	"	12 500	108.8	"	12 500
0.0105	0.392	109.5	643	"	110.9	"	12 130	110.9	"	12 130
0.0110	0.399	112.4	650	11 790	112.4	"	11 790	112.4	"	11 790
0.0115	0.405	114.0	"	11 450	114.0	"	11 450	114.0	"	11 450
0.0120	0.412	115.7	"	11 160	115.7	"	11 160	115.7	"	11 160
0.0125	0.418	117.2	"	10 900	117.2	"	10 900	117.2	"	10 860
0.0130	0.424	118.2	"	10 600	118.2	"	10 600	118.2	"	10 600
0.0135	0.430	119.8	"	10 350	119.8	"	10 350	119.8	"	10 350
0.0140	0.436	121.2	"	10 120	121.2	"	10 100	121.2	"	10 100
0.0145	0.441	122.2	"	9 890	122.2	"	9 870	122.2	"	9 870
0.0150	0.446	123.2	"	9 660	123.2	"	9 660	123.2	"	9 660
0.0155	0.452	124.8	"	9 460	124.8	"	9 460	124.8	"	9 460
0.0160	0.457	126.0	"	9 270	126.0	"	9 270	126.0	"	9 270
0.0165	0.462	127.0	"	9 100	127.0	"	9 100	127.0	"	9 100
0.0170	0.467	128.0	"	8 930	128.0	"	8 930	128.0	"	8 930
0.0175	0.471	129.1	"	8 740	129.1	"	8 740	129.1	"	8 740
0.0180	0.475	130.1	"	8 580	130.1	"	8 580	130.1	"	8 580
0.0185	0.480	131.0	"	8 440	131.0	"	8 440	131.0	"	8 440
0.0190	0.485	132.1	"	8 300	132.1	"	8 300	132.1	"	8 300
0.0195	0.489	133.0	"	8 150	133.0	"	8 150	133.0	"	8 150
0.0200	0.493	134.0	"	8 010	134.0	"	8 010	134.0	"	8 010

Table VI. Values for Formulas for Reinforced Concrete

$r = 12$

p	z	K	S_c	S_s	K	S_c	S_s	K	S_c	S_s
0.0025	0.217	.....	...	......	....	...	......	51.0	506	22 000
0.0030	0.235	.....	...	......	55.3	511	20 000	60.8	562	"
0.0035	0.251	57.7	503	18 000	64.2	558	"	70.6	614	"
0.0040	0.260	65.7	542	"	72.9	602	"	78.7	650	21 610
0.0045	0.279	73.5	581	"	81.6	645	"	82.3	"	20 150
0.0050	0.291	81.3	618	"	85.4	650	18 910	85.4	"	18 910
0.0055	0.303	88.5	650	17 900	88.5	"	17 900	88.5	"	17 900
0.0060	0.314	91.5	"	17 000	91.5	"	17 000	91.5	"	17 000
0.0065	0.325	94.2	"	16 250	94.2	"	16 250	94.2	"	16 250
0.0070	0.334	96.5	"	15 510	96.5	"	15 510	96.5	"	15 510
0.0075	0.344	99.0	"	14 900	99.0	"	14 900	99.0	"	14 900
0.0080	0.353	101.2	"	14 350	101.2	"	14 350	101.2	"	14 350
0.0085	0.361	103.3	"	13 800	103.3	"	13 800	103.3	"	13 800
0.0090	0.369	105.1	"	13 325	105.1	"	13 325	105.1	"	13 325
0.0095	0.377	107.0	"	12 900	107.0	"	12 900	107.0	"	12 900
0.0100	0.384	108.8	"	12 480	108.8	"	12 480	108.8	"	12 480
0.0105	0.392	110.9	"	12 130	110.9	"	12 130	110.9	"	12 130
0.0110	0.399	112.4	"	11 790	112.4	"	11 790	112.4	"	11 790
0.0115	0.405	113.9	"	11 450	113.9	"	11 450	113.9	"	11 450
0.0120	0.412	115.6	"	11 160	115.6	"	11 160	115.6	"	11 160
0.0125	0.418	117.2	"	10 900	117.2	"	10 900	117.2	"	10 900
0.0130	0.424	118.4	"	10 600	118.4	"	10 600	118.4	"	10 600
0.0135	0.430	120.0	"	10 350	120.0	"	10 350	120.0	"	10 350
0.0140	0.436	121.2	"	10 100	121.2	"	10 100	121.2	"	10 100
0.0145	0.441	122.2	"	9 870	122.2	"	9 870	122.2	"	9 870
0.0150	0.446	123.2	"	9 660	123.2	"	9 660	123.2	"	9 660
0.0155	0.452	124.8	"	9 460	124.8	"	9 460	124.8	"	9 460
0.0160	0.457	126.0	"	9 270	126.0	"	9 270	126.0	"	9 270
0.0165	0.462	127.0	"	9 100	127.0	"	9 100	127.0	"	9 100
0.0170	0.467	128.0	"	8 930	128.0	"	8 930	128.0	"	8 930
0.0175	0.471	129.1	"	8 740	129.1	"	8 740	129.1	"	8 740
0.0180	0.475	130.1	"	8 580	130.1	"	8 580	130.1	"	8 580
0.0185	0.480	131.0	"	8 440	131.0	"	8 440	131.0	"	8 440
0.0190	0.485	132.1	"	8 300	132.1	"	8 300	132.1	"	8 300
0.0195	0.489	133.0	"	8 150	133.0	"	8 150	133.0	"	8 150
0.0200	0.493	134.0	"	8 010	134.0	"	8 010	134.0	"	8 010

Table VII. Values for Formulas for Reinforced Concrete

$r = 15$

p	x	K	S_c	S_t	K	S_c	S_t	K	S_c	S_t
0.0050	0.320	.....	...	......	....	...	......	71.6	500	16 000
0.0055	0.332	.....	...	......	....	...	......	78.3	530	"
0.0060	0.344	.....	...	......	....	...	......	85.1	558	"
0.0065	0.355	.....	...	......	80.2	513	14 000	91.6	586	"
0.0070	0.365	.....	...	......	86.1	537	"	98.3	614	"
0.0075	0.375	.....	...	......	92.0	560	"	105.1	640	"
0.0080	0.384	83.6	500	12 000	97.6	583	"	108.9	650	15 600
0.0085	0.393	88.6	519	"	103.3	606	"	111.0	"	15 040
0.0090	0.402	93.5	537	"	109.0	627	"	113.2	"	14 520
0.0095	0.410	98.4	556	"	114.8	648	"	115.1	"	14 020
0.0100	0.418	103.3	573	"	117.1	650	13 600	117.1	"	13 600
0.0105	0.425	108.2	593	"	118.6	"	13 150	118.6	"	13 150
0.0110	0.433	113.1	611	"	120.5	"	12 760	120.5	"	12 760
0.0115	0.440	117.9	627	"	122.0	"	12 420	122.0	"	12 420
0.0120	0.446	122.7	647	"	123.4	"	12 080	123.4	"	12 080
0.0125	0.453	125.0	650	11 780	125.0	"	11 780	125.0	"	11 780
0.0130	0.459	126.8	"	11 480	126.8	"	11 480	126.8	"	11 480
0.0135	0.465	127.7	"	11 200	127.7	"	11 200	127.7	"	11 200
0.0140	0.471	128.9	"	10 920	128.9	"	10 920	128.9	"	10 920
0.0145	0.477	130.4	"	10 690	130.4	"	10 690	130.4	"	10 690
0.0150	0.483	131.7	"	10 465	131.7	"	10 465	131.7	"	10 465
0.0155	0.488	133.0	"	10 240	133.0	"	10 240	133.0	"	10 240
0.0160	0.493	133.9	"	10 010	133.9	"	10 010	133.9	"	10 010
0.0165	0.498	135.2	"	9 810	135.2	"	9 810	135.2	"	9 810
0.0170	0.503	136.0	"	9 620	136.0	"	9 620	136.0	"	9 620
0.0175	0.508	137.2	"	9 435	137.2	"	9 435	137.2	"	9 435
0.0180	0.513	138.2	"	9 260	138.2	"	9 260	138.2	"	9 260
0.0185	0.518	139.4	"	9 100	139.4	"	9 100	139.4	"	9 100
0.0190	0.522	140.3	"	8 940	140.3	"	8 940	140.3	"	8 940
0.0195	0.527	141.1	"	8 790	141.1	"	8 790	141.1	"	8 790
0.0200	0.531	142.0	"	8 630	142.0	"	8 630	142.0	"	8 630

Table VIII. Values for Formulas for Reinforced Concrete

$r = 15$

p	z	K	S_c	S_s	K	S_c	S_s	K	S_c	S_s
0.0030	0.258	.....	...	......	....	...	......	60.3	512	22 000
0.0035	0.276	.....	...	......	63.5	507	20 000	69.9	557	"
0.0040	0.292	.....	...	......	72.3	548	"	79.5	604	".
0.0045	0.306	72.7	528	18 000	80.7	587	"	88.8	646	"
0.0050	0.320	80.5	563	"	89.4	626	"	92.9	650	20 800
0.0055	0.332	88.1	596	"	96.0	650	19 610	96.0	"	19 610
0.0060	0.344	95.6	628	"	99.1	"	18 620	99.1	"	18 620
0.0065	0.355	101.8	650	17 760	101.8	"	17 760	101.8	"	17 760
0.0070	0.365	104.1	"	16 950	104.1	"	16 950	104.1	"	16 950
0.0075	0.375	106.7	"	16 250	106.7	"	16 250	106.7	"	16 250
0.0080	0.384	108.9	"	15 600	108.9	"	15 600	108.9	"	15 600
0.0085	0.393	111.0	"	15 040	111.0	"	15 040	111.0	"	15 040
0.0090	0.402	113.2	"	14 520	113.2	"	14 520	113.2	"	14 520
0.0095	0.410	115.1	"	14 020	115.1	"	14 020	115.1	"	14 020
0.0100	0.418	117.1	"	13 600	117.1	"	13 600	117.1	"	13 600
0.0105	0.425	118.6	"	13 150	118.6	"	13 150	118.6	"	13 150
0.0110	0.433	120.5	"	12 760	120.5	"	12 760	120.5	"	12 760
0.0115	0.440	122.0	"	12 420	122.0	"	12 420	122.0	"	12 420
0.0120	0.446	123.4	"	12 080	123.4	"	12 080	123.4	"	12 080
0.0125	0.453	125.0	"	11 780	125.0	"	11 780	125.0	"	11 780
0.0130	0.459	126.4	"	11 480	126.4	"	11 480	126.4	"	11 480
0.0135	0.465	127.7	"	11 200	127.7	"	11 200	127.7	"	11 200
0.0140	0.471	128.9	"	10 920	128.9	"	10 920	128.9	"	10 920
0.0145	0.477	130.4	"	10 690	130.4	"	10 690	130.4	"	10 690
0.0150	0.483	131.7	"	10 465	131.7	"	10 465	131.7	"	10 465
0.0155	0.488	133.0	"	10 240	133.0	"	10 240	133.0	"	10 240
0.0160	0.493	133.9	"	10 010	133.9	"	10 010	133.9	"	10 010
0.0165	0.498	135.0	"	9 810	135.0	"	9 810	135.0	"	9 810
0.0170	0.503	136.0	"	9 620	136.0	"	9 620	136.0	"	9 620
0.0175	0.508	137.2	"	9 435	137.2	"	9 435	137.2	"	9 435
0.0180	0.513	138.2	"	9 260	138.2	"	9 260	138.2	"	9 260
0.0185	0.518	139.4	"	9 100	139.4	"	9 100	139.4	"	9 100
0.0190	0.522	140.1	"	8 940	140.1	"	8 940	140.1	"	8 940
0.0195	0.527	141.1	"	8 790	141.1	"	8 790	141.1	"	8 790
0.0200	0.531	142.0	"	8 630	142.0	"	8 630	142.0	"	8 630

Cinder Concrete. Values of K for cinder concrete are given in Tables IX and X, which are, however, recommended to be used only for slabs. Cinder concrete, though an excellent fireproofing material, lacks strength and should be used as a structural material for the slabs, only, between the beams.

Table IX. Values for Formulas for Reinforced Cinder Concrete

$r = 35$

p	x	K	S_c	S_s	K	S_c	S_s
0.0005	0.170	7.5	94	16 000	7.5	94	16 000
0.0010	0.232	14.8	138	"	14.8	138	16 000
0.0015	0.276	21.8	174	"	18.8	150	13 800
0.0020	0.311	28.7	206	"	20.9	"	11 633
0.0025	0.340	33.9	225	15 300	22.6	"	10 200
0.0030	0.365	36.1	"	13 688	24.0	"	9 125
0.0035	0.387	37.9	"	12 439	25.3	"	8 293
0.0040	0.407	39.6	"	11 447	26.4	"	7 631
0.0045	0.425	41.0	"	10 625	27.4	"	7 083
0.0050	0.442	42.4	"	9 945	28.3	"	6 630
0.0055	0.457	43.6	"	9 348	29.1	"	6 232
0.0060	0.471	44.7	"	8 831	29.8	"	5 888
0.0065	0.484	45.7	"	8 377	30.4	"	5 585
0.0070	0.497	46.7	"	7 988	31.1	"	5 325
0.0075	0.508	47.5	"	7 620	31.6	"	5 080
0.0080	0.519	48.3	"	7 298	32.2	"	4 866
0.0085	0.529	49.0	"	7 001	32.7	"	4 668
0.0090	0.539	49.7	"	6 738	33.2	"	4 492
0.0095	0.548	50.4	"	6 489	33.6	"	4 326
0.0100	0.557	51.0	"	6 266	34.0	"	4 178
0.0105	0.565	51.6	"	6 054	34.4	"	4 036
0.0110	0.573	52.1	"	5 860	34.8	"	3 907
0.0115	0.581	52.7	"	5 684	35.1	"	3 789
0.0120	0.588	53.2	"	5 513	35.5	"	3 675
0.0125	0.595	53.7	"	5 355	35.8	"	3 570
0.0130	0.602	54.1	"	5 210	36.1	"	3 473
0.0135	0.608	54.5	"	5 067	36.4	"	3 378
0.0140	0.615	55.0	"	4 942	36.7	"	3 295
0.0145	0.621	55.4	"	4 818	36.9	"	3 212
0.0150	0.626	55.7	"	4 695	37.1	"	3 130
0.0155	0.632	56.1	"	4 587	37.4	"	3 058
0.0160	0.637	56.4	"	4 479	37.6	"	2 986
0.0165	0.643	56.8	"	4 384	37.9	"	2 923
0.0170	0.648	57.2	"	4 288	38.1	"	2 859
0.0175	0.652	57.4	"	4 191	38.3	"	2 794
0.0180	0.657	57.7	"	4 106	38.5	"	2 738
0.0185	0.662	58.1	"	4 026	38.7	"	2 684
0.0190	0.666	58.3	"	3 943	38.9	"	2 629
0.0195	0.671	58.6	"	3 871	39.1	"	2 581
0.0200	0.675	58.9	"	3 797	39.2	"	2 531

Table X. Values for Formulas for Reinforced Cinder Concrete

$r = 30$

p	k	K	S_c	S	K	S_c	S	K	S_c	S_t
0.0005	0.159	7.6	100.6	16 000	7.6	100.6	16 000	6.62	88	14 000
0.0010	0.216	14.9	148	"	14.9	148	"	13.0	129.5	"
0.0015	0.259	22.0	185	"	22.0	185	"	19.2	162	"
0.0020	0.292	28.8	219	"	28.8	219	"	25.2	192	"
0.0025	0.319	35.8	251	"	35.6	250	15 950	28.5	200	12 750
0.0030	0.344	42.6	279	"	38.1	"	14 300	30.4	"	11 480
0.0035	0.365	48.1	300	15 620	40.1	"	13 030	32.0	"	10 420
0.0040	0.386	50.4	"	14 480	42.1	"	12 060	33.6	"	9 650
0.0045	0.402	52.2	"	13 400	43.4	"	11 170	34.8	"	8 930
0.0050	0.418	54.0	"	12 540	45.0	"	10 450	36.0	"	8 360
0.0055	0.433	55.6	"	11 810	46.3	"	9 860	37.0	"	7 870
0.0060	0.447	57.0	"	11 180	47.5	"	9 320	38.0	"	7 450
0.0065	0.460	58.5	"	10 620	48.7	"	8 850	38.9	"	7 080
0.0070	0.472	59.7	"	10 120	49.7	"	8 440	39.8	"	6 750
0.0075	0.483	60.7	"	9 660	50.6	"	8 050	40.5	"	6 440
0.0080	0.494	61.9	"	9 270	51.6	"	7 730	41.3	"	6 170
0.0085	0.504	63.0	"	8 900	52.5	"	7 420	42.0	"	5 930
0.0090	0.514	63.9	"	8 560	53.3	"	7 130	42.6	"	5 710
0.0095	0.523	64.9	"	8 250	54.1	"	6 870	43.2	"	5 500
0.0100	0.532	65.7	"	7 980	54.7	"	6 650	43.7	"	5 320
0.0105	0.540	66.4	"	7 710	55.4	"	6 420	44.3	"	5 140
0.0110	0.547	67.2	"	7 460	55.9	"	6 220	44.7	"	4 970
0.0115	0.555	67.8	"	7 240	56.5	"	6 040	45.2	"	4 820
0.0120	0.562	68.5	"	7 020	57.1	"	5 850	45.7	"	4 680
0.0125	0.569	69.3	"	6 830	57.7	"	5 680	46.2	"	4 550
0.0130	0.576	69.8	"	6 650	58.2	"	5 540	46.5	"	4 430
0.0135	0.582	70.4	"	6 460	58.6	"	5 380	46.8	"	4 310
0.0140	0.588	71.0	"	6 310	59.2	"	5 260	47.3	"	4 210
0.0145	0.594	71.5	"	6 140	59.5	"	5 120	47.6	"	4 090
0.0150	0.600	72.0	"	6 000	60.0	"	5 000	48.0	"	4 000
0.0155	0.606	72.6	"	5 860	60.5	"	4 880	48.4	"	3 910
0.0160	0.612	73.1	"	5 730	60.9	"	4 780	48.7	"	3 820
0.0165	0.617	73.6	"	5 610	61.3	"	4 670	49.0	"	3 740
0.0170	0.622	74.0	"	5 480	61.7	"	4 570	49.4	"	3 660
0.0175	0.627	74.5	"	5 370	62.0	"	4 470	49.6	"	3 580
0.0180	0.632	74.9	"	5 270	62.4	"	4 390	49.9	"	3 510
0.0185	0.636	75.3	"	5 160	62.7	"	4 300	50.2	"	3 440
0.0190	0.641	75.7	"	5 060	63.1	"	4 220	50.4	"	3 370
0.0195	0.645	76.0	"	4 960	63.3	"	4 130	50.7	"	3 300
0.0200	0.649	76.4	"	4 870	63.6	"	4 060	50.8	"	3 240

Reinforced-Concrete Beams of Rectangular Cross-Section. In determining the size of beam required for any given case, r and the limiting values of S_c and S_t are generally given, and K can be determined for any ratio, p, of concrete to steel. The value of M, the maximum bending moment, that is, the bending moment at the dangerous section of the beam, is determined from the conditions of loading, the span and the spacing; and the width and depth of the beams are to be found. Formula (1) may then be put in the more convenient form.

$$d = \sqrt{\frac{M}{Kb}} \qquad (5)$$

A value for b is assumed and the equation solved for d. Architectural or structural reasons will often limit the width or depth and several trials may have to be made.

Reinforced-Concrete Slabs. For the STRENGTH OF SLABS the same formulas apply. A slab may be treated (1) as a rectangular beam of unusual width; (2) as a series of beams set one alongside the other, the width of each beam being equal to the spacing of the reinforcing-rods, and one rod being used for each beam; or (3) as a series of beams of unit width, the area of steel for each beam being the area of reinforcement per unit of width.

Check-Formulas. It may sometimes happen that it is advisable to check a given or existing beam-construction as to strength or compliance with specifications for working stresses. In that case the following formulas will be convenient (see, also, page 992):

$$M = pS_tbd^2\left(1 - \frac{x}{3}\right) \tag{6}$$

$$M = \frac{S_cxbd^2}{2}\left(1 - \frac{x}{3}\right) \tag{7}$$

If the strength of the beam for the assumed working stresses is to be determined, these values of S_t and S_c are inserted in Formulas (6) and (7), and the least value of M is used. If the values of M resulting from these equations are not equal, the full benefit of one of the materials is not being obtained. If the stresses in the steel or concrete due to a given loading are to be determined the formulas are put in the following forms:

$$S_t = \frac{M}{pbd^2\left(1 - \frac{x}{3}\right)} \tag{8}$$

$$S_c = \frac{2M}{xbd^2\left(1 - \frac{x}{3}\right)} \tag{9}$$

These formulas apply to rectangular beams only. M in Formulas (8) and (9) is the maximum moment due to the external forces, or the maximum bending moment. The value of x can be determined from Tables V to X. In Formula (8) it will be noted that the denominator of the fraction is an expression for the area of the steel multiplied by the lever-arm of the resisting moment, that is, the distance from the center of gravity of the steel to the center of compression in the concrete. Similarly, in Formula (9), the denominator of the fraction is an expression for the area of the concrete in compression multiplied by the lever-arm, x again being determined by Formula (4) and M being the maximum bending moment due to the external forces.

Reinforced-Concrete T Beams. Where beams or girders are used in reinforced-concrete building-construction there are usually accompanying floor-slabs. If these slabs are cast with the beams or girders they add very much to the strength of the latter. Some authors prefer not to consider this additional strength but to regard it as increasing the factor of safety. This position is tenable only when the slabs are cast or built independently. If made at the same time, economical design requires that the slab shall be considered. The width of slab that may be taken as part of the beam should not exceed one-fourth the span-length of the beam, and the overhanging part on either side of the web or stem should not exceed four times the thickness of the slab. In any case, the flange must not be considered wider than the distance between the beams. In ordinary floor-construction the spacing of beams, girders and columns is generally an architectural or commercial consideration. Generally, the simplest procedure, therefore, is to first determine the thickness of slab required for the given spacing of beams, and this determines the thickness of the flange of the T beam. In the calculation of the girder, it is not objectionable to use the same slab, or as much of it as may be permissible, that has been used in the consideration of the beam framing into that girder, as the compression-stresses, in the two cases, act at right-angles to and practically assist one another. When, however, the principal slab-reinforcement is parallel to the girder, in the case of a combined slab, beam and girder-construction, the slab-action produces compression in the same direction as the girder-compression with a resulting overstress in the concrete. In this case, transverse reinforcement should be provided at right-angles to the girder and extending well into the slab.

Formulas for Reinforced-Concrete T Beams. Fig. 17 shows a cross-section of a T beam resulting from the use of the slab as part of the beam, and shows clearly, also, the notation used in the formulas. In a construction of this kind three cases may be considered:

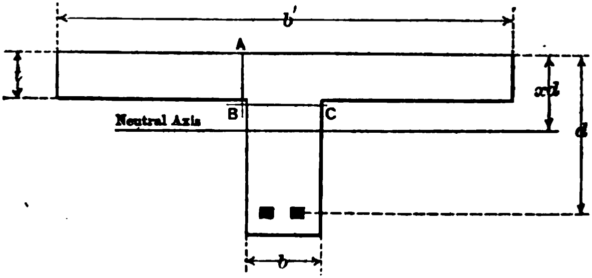

Fig. 17. Cross-section of Reinforced-concrete T Beam

Case 1. The neutral axis may fall below the flange, in which case

$$M = S_t pbd\left(d - \frac{t}{2}\right) \tag{10}$$

or

$$M = \frac{S_c}{2} b't\left(d - \frac{t}{2}\right) \tag{11}$$

In these formulas the small area of concrete in compression below the flange is neglected and the center of compression is assumed to be at the center of the flange. This is done to simplify the formulas. The result is not materially affected and errs on the side of safety. The position of the neutral axis is given by Formula (12)

$$x = \frac{2\,bd^2pr + b't}{2\,d\,(bdpr + b't)} \tag{12}$$

and the most economical percentage of steel by Formula (13)

$$p = \frac{S_c b't}{2\,S_t bd} \tag{13}$$

In determining the ratio of steel to concrete in these T beams only that part of the area of the concrete is considered that lies above the center of gravity of the steel and between the sides of the stem, that is, the area bd.

Case 2. The neutral axis may coincide with the under side of the flange, in which case

$$M = S_t p b d \left(d - \frac{t}{3} \right) \tag{14}$$

and

$$M = \frac{S_c b' t}{2} \left(d - \frac{t}{3} \right) \tag{15}$$

The economical value of p in this case is the same as in Case 1, Formula (13).

Case 3. The neutral axis may fall above the lower edge of the flange. This case is the same as Case 2, since for purposes of calculation all the concrete in the flange below the neutral axis is neglected and t becomes xd in this case as in the last. When the slab is considered an integral part of the beam, adequate bond and shearing resistance between the slab and the web of the beam must be provided. The concrete is ordinarily adequate to take the vertical shear through the flanges next to the stem and is further strengthened by placing horizontal steel reinforcements across the top of the beam or girder as described above. Whether or not the resistance to shear is adequate can be determined by the formula

$$S_s = \frac{S_h b (b' - b)}{2 t b'} \tag{16}$$

in which S_s is the unit vertical shear at AB, and S_h is the unit horizontal shear at BC (Fig. 17). This should not exceed the safe unit shear for concrete unless steel reinforcement is provided. The value of S_h in the formula is

$$S_h = \frac{V}{b(d - \frac{1}{2} t)} \tag{17}$$

which, it will be noted, is the total vertical shear divided by the effective area of the stem.

Moduli of Elasticity. In the derivation of all these formulas and in the determination of the values of K, the ratio of the MODULUS OF ELASTICITY of the steel to that of the concrete plays an important part. It is necessary then to know what values to use. The generally accepted modulus of elasticity of steel is 30 000 000 lb per sq in. The modulus of elasticity of concrete varies with many conditions. Even in the same mixture, the character of the materials, as well as the manner of mixing and placing, affect it. The modulus increases with the age of the concrete. It also increases with the richness of the mixture. It seems to decrease with an increase in the load on the concrete. The different values for the RATIO OF THE MODULUS OF ELASTICITY of the steel to the modulus of elasticity of the concrete to be used in the design of reinforced-concrete construction, as fixed by the building regulations of various cities and by other authorities, is given in Table II, page 918. Values for the modulus of elasticity of concrete under different loads and for different mixtures determined by actual tests at the Watertown Arsenal are given in Table XI.

Table XI. Elastic Properties of Broken-Stone Concrete Twelve-Inch Cubes

Composition			Age	Modulus of elasticity in pounds per square inch between loads of			Tests made by
Cement	Sand	Broken stone		100 and 600 lb per sq in	600 and 1 000 lb per sq in	1 000 and 2 000 lb per sq in	
1	2	4	7 days	2 593 000	2 054 000	1 351 000	* Geo. A. Kimball.
1	2	4	1 mo	2 662 000	2 445 000	1 462 000	" " "
1	2	4	3 mos	3 671 000	3 170 000	2 158 000	" " "
1	2	4	6 mos	3 646 000	3 567 000	2 582 000	" " "
1	3	6	7 days	1 869 000	1 530 000	....	" " "
1	3	6	1 mo	2 438 000	2 135 000	1 219 000	" " "
1	3	6	3 mos	2 976 000	2 656 000	1 805 000	" " "
1	3	6	6 mos	3 608 000	3 503 000	1 868 000	" " "
1	6	12	1 mo	1 376 000	....	....	" " "
1	6	12	3 mos	1 642 000	1 364 000	....	" " "
1	6	12	6 mos	1 820 000	1 522 000	....	" " "

* Tests of metals, U. S. A., 1899, page 741.

Working Stresses. The WORKING STRESSES for concrete and steel allowed by various cities are given in Table II on page 918. In the determination of K the values of S_c, S_t and r as taken from Table II are substituted in Formula (2), or, the value of K may be taken directly from Tables V to VIII, pages 930 to 933 and substituted in Formula (5). For M in that formula, the MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT due to the external forces is used.

Bending Moments in Beams. Beams and girders are usually considered as SIMPLE BEAMS, that is, as beams supported at both ends, but not built in, restrained, or continuous, although in many instances they are actually carried, as CONTINUOUS BEAMS, over the supports. If continued over a support, there is a NEGATIVE BENDING MOMENT at that support, and this negative bending moment should be taken care of by reinforcements in the upper part of the beam.

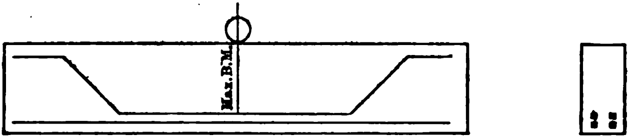

Fig. 18. Reinforcement for Uniformly Distributed or Symmetrically Placed Load

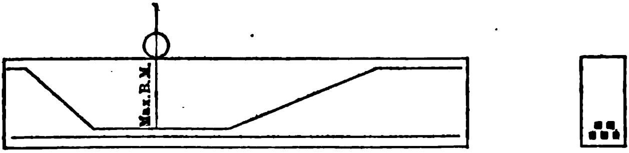

Fig. 19. Reinforcement for Unsymmetrically Placed Concentrated Load

This bending moment is one-half that at the middle of a simple supported beam loaded at the middle, and two-thirds that at the middle of a simple supported beam, uniformly loaded. In the case of simple supported beams loaded either at the middle or with a uniformly distributed load, the bending moments decrease toward the supports. For these reasons it is advisable in arranging the steel to be used for the tensional reinforcement, to select the bars or rods in pairs, so that, as the supports are approached, a part of the reinforcement may be turned up toward the top and carried across the supports near the top as indicated in Figs. 18 and 19. For continuous beams and slabs with uniformly distributed loads, the following is recommended for MAXIMUM POSITIVE and NEGATIVE BENDING-MOMENTS:

"That for beams, the bending moment at center and at support for interior spans, be taken at $wl^2/12$, and for end spans it be taken at $wl^2/10$ for center and adjoining support, for both dead and live loads.

"In the case of beams and slabs continuous for two spans only, the bending moment at the central support should be taken as $wl^2/8$ and near the middle of the span as $wl^2/10$."*

Beams simply supported at the ends must be considered as SIMPLE BEAMS with maximum positive bending moments equal to $wl^2/8$. In all the above values, w is the load per running foot and l the span in feet.

Bending Moments in Slabs. As floor-slabs are usually carried continuously across the supports, the maximum bending moment due to a uniformly distributed load is assumed to be less than in beams simply supported at the ends. The New York City Regulations provide that "the bending moments at the center and at intermediate supports of floor-slabs continuous over two or more supports shall be taken as $Wl/12$." The same regulations provide that "the bending moments of slabs that are reinforced in both directions and supported on four sides and fully reinforced over the supports (the reinforcement passing into the adjoining slabs) may be taken as Wl/F for loads in each direction, in which $F = 8$ when the slab is not continuous or when continuous over one support, and $F = 12$ at both center and supports when the slab is continuous over both supports." In these expressions W is the total distributed load and l the span in feet. In rectangular slabs with two-way reinforcement it is usually assumed that the loading is uniformly distributed and that one-half the load is carried by each system. When the spans in either direction are not equal the amount of load carried by each system of reinforcement is inversely proportional to the fourth powers of the respective spans. The distribution of the load is given by the formula

$$r = \frac{l^4}{l^4 + b^4} \qquad (18)$$

in which r is the proportion of load carried by the transverse reinforcement, l the longer span and b the shorter span of the slab. Using this proportion of load, each set of reinforcements is calculated as a slab with supports on two sides only, and the total number of rods required is determined on the assumption of equal spacing. The rods may then be spaced uniformly at the usual spacing for the central half of the slab and gradually reduced in number per foot of width to the edge of the slab, using one-half as many rods for the remaining two quarters. In this way, the amount of reinforcement is reduced 25%. When the length of the slab exceeds the breadth by 25%, the stresses in the longitudinal steel become so low that the construction is uneconomical. The slab should then be treated as one with a one-way reinforcement.

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* Proc. Am. Soc. C. E., Feb., 1913, page 149.

Shrinkage-Stresses and Temperature-Stresses. In slabs resting on or carried over two supports some reinforcement should be provided at right-angles to the tension-rods to provide against SHRINKAGE-STRESSES and TEMPERATURE-STRESSES. Incidentally, this reinforcement may also serve to keep the tension-rods properly spaced. In general it should not be less than one-third of one per cent in amount and well distributed. It is common practice to use from ¼ to ⅜-in rods, spaced about 2 ft apart. Deformed bars with irregular surfaces and reinforcements of small diameters, placed as close as practicable to the surface, are most effective.

The Disposition of the Steel. In designing the reinforcement for any form of loading, the full sectional area required must be provided at the point of MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT. As the supports are approached, part of the reinforcement, as already indicated, is turned up, but care must be taken to keep it so distributed that at any point there is still sufficient reinforcement below the neutral axis to furnish the necessary tensional resistance. The arrangement of reinforcement for a uniformly distributed or symmetrically disposed load is shown in Fig. 18, and for an unsymmetrically placed concentrated load, in Fig. 19. In the first instance the maximum bending moment is at the middle of the beam, the reinforcement is symmetrical about that point, and as much as one-half the amount of reinforcement may be turned up. In the second instance the maximum bending moment is at some other point than the middle, the reinforcement must be so disposed that the full amount required will be under the load or at the point of maximum bending moment, and the turning up must be done between that point and the support. Other conditions might require less than half the reinforcement to be turned up. There is another reason for turning up the reinforcements toward the ends. In addition to the resistance to the NEGATIVE BENDING MOMENT, there is a resistance to the SHEAR offered by the metal running through the concrete at the points where the diagonal cracks usually occur in tests on full-sized beams.

The Percentage of Reinforcement. The AMOUNT OF THE REINFORCEMENT in any case is determined by Formulas (3) and (13) for rectangular and T beams respectively. The values obtained by these formulas give the most economical amount. This may vary from one-fourth of one per cent to one and one-half per cent of the area of concrete, but will usually run about seven-tenths of one per cent. The nearest stock size of rods giving this amount or a slightly greater amount can be selected from the table given on page 1428, or from the catalogues of the manufacturers of the various deformed bars. The NUMBER OF RODS used to make up the necessary sectional area must be determined by considerations mentioned in the following paragraphs.

The Number of Reinforcing-Rods. As already suggested, an even number adapts itself better to a symmetrical or balanced arrangement both in cross-section and horizontal section. One rod does not permit of the turning up toward the support. Two rods may be made either to continue along the lower edge of the beam, or one may start at one support, run along the lower part and turn up beyond the middle as it approaches the second support; and the second rod run similarly along the bottom from the second support and turn up after passing the middle as it approaches the first support. Three rods may be arranged so that two continue along the bottom and the third, the middle one, turns up as it approaches the supports. The arrangement for 4, 5, or 6 rods will naturally suggest itself from what has been already said. Too large a number of rods is not desirable, as a large number of them together act more or less as a screen for the coarser particles of the concrete and prevent a close contact between it and the steel. This matter of complicated reinforcement is one of considerable practical importance. If, however, the steel is satisfactorily incased with concrete, a larger number of smaller rods is preferable to a smaller number of larger ones. The AREA OF CONTACT of a rod of smaller size is proportionately greater than that of a rod of larger size, as the perimeter varies directly as the diameter, and the sectional area as the square of diameter of the cross-section. In order that a larger may not slip, the ADHESION of the steel to the concrete must be equal to or greater than the tension in the steel.

The Adhesion Required. The tension in a reinforcing-rod at any point having been determined from the given formulas, it must next be determined if, in either direction from that point, the AREA OF CONTACT of the steel is large enough to make the total ADHESION equal to or greater than the TENSION. If there is a deficiency in this respect it must be made up either by a mechanical bond or by anchoring the reinforcements at the ends. Safe VALUES FOR ADHESION of concrete and steel are given in Table II, page 918. A safe rule to apply, without calculation, to the case of beams with a maximum bending moment at the middle is to make the diameter of the rods not more than one two-hundredth of the span. Under ordinary conditions, generally speaking, the length of rod on either side of the point of maximum bending moment should be at least eighty diameters for plain rods, and not less than fifty diameters for deformed bars. Under unusual conditions the adhesion should be carefully studied. The apparent discrepancy between the first and second statements of this paragraph is explained by an allowance made and based upon the fact that the tension in the steel does not decrease uniformly with the decrease in distance from the supports. The allowance is purely arbitrary but is considered safe. For cases of unsymmetrically loaded beams it is best to examine carefully into the conditions.

The Separation of the Rods. It has not been unusual in tests on beams to have the concrete split off from the under side along the line of the reinforcement. This is due in part, if not entirely, to an insufficiency of concrete between and around the reinforcement. To avoid this the SPACING or SEPARATION of the reinforcing-rods in the cross-sections of the beams must be such that the resistance of the concrete to SHEAR at the level of the rods is at least equal to the ADHESION of the concrete to the steel. As a general rule the rods should be spaced not less than two and one-half diameters on centers and about two diameters from the sides of beams. The clear distance between rods and the space between rods and edges of beams should in no case be less than 1½ in. Deformed bars, if stressed to their full tensional value, should be spaced farther apart than plain bars. At the middle of a beam, the BOND-STRESS is low, but at the top of a continuous beam, over the supports, where the negative moment decreases rapidly, the bond-stress is apt to be excessive and frequently limits the diameter of the reinforcement.

Provisions against Shear or Diagonal Tension. Numerous tests of beams reinforced with horizontal rods without stirrups or inclined reinforcement have shown that DIAGONAL CRACKS occur when the maximum shear over the cross-section is from 100 to 200 lb per sq in. Tests conducted on concrete with the purpose of eliminating all other stresses but direct shear have given a SHEARING STRENGTH of concrete of from 800 to 1 600 lb per sq in. The ordinary concrete beam has, therefore, a cross-section of sufficient area to withstand a SHEARING-STRESS of 200 lb per sq in. The cracks always occur at points where a large SHEARING-STRESS exists in combination with MOMENT-STRESSES. Under concentrated loads, DIAGONAL-TENSION failure occurs under the concentration, and in a simple beam under a uniformly distributed load, the cracks appear near the supports. The inclination of the diagonal tension in the concrete being a resultant of two forces changes, therefore, with the variations of SHEAR and TENSION.

For beams with horizontal rods only, that is, beams in which the WEB-STRESSES are resisted by the concrete, the SAFE SHEARING VALUES to be used under various building regulations are given in Table II, page 918. The SHEARING-STRESS in this case is determined by dividing the total VERTICAL SHEAR by the product of the effective depth, that is, the distance from the center of compression to the center of the steel, by the width of the beam. The MAXIMUM SHEARING-STRESS should, in this case, not exceed 2% of the COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH of the concrete. When the resistance of the concrete to shear is not sufficient, web-reinforcement must be provided by one of the following methods or by a combination of them:

(1) By attaching to or looping around the horizontal members, stirrups or vertical members;
(2) By securely attaching inclined rods to the horizontals in such manner as to prevent slipping;
(3) By bending of a part of the longitudinal reinforcement at certain points, thus providing against the diagonal tension and allowing a sufficient amount of horizontal steel to remain to resist the direct tension.

It is customary to use the calculated VERTICAL SHEARING-STRESS as a measure of the DIAGONAL TENSILE or WEB-STRESSES. In all cases, the concrete may be assumed to carry its safe load, and it is ordinarily assumed that two-thirds of the EXTERNAL VERTICAL SHEAR is resisted by the web-reinforcement. For beams reinforced with web-members, the total VERTICAL EXTERNAL SHEAR over the effective section should not exceed 6% of the COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH of the concrete. The Regulations of the Bureau of Buildings of New York City specify that the SHEARING-STRESS in concrete, when all the DIAGONAL TENSION is resisted by steel, shall not exceed 150 lb per sq in. For beams in which part of the longitudinal reinforcement is in the form of bent-up rods, the MAXIMUM VERTICAL SHEARING-STRESS should not exceed 3% of the COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH of the concrete.

The stresses in web-reinforcements may be determined by the following formulas:

for stirrups $$P = Vs/l \tag{19}$$

for members inclined 45°, not bent-up bars,

$$P = 0.7\,Vs/l \tag{20}$$

in which s is the horizontal spacing of the web-members, V the total external vertical shear, l the effective depth from center of compression to center of steel and P the stress in a single reinforcing-member. Fixing the ALLOWABLE TENSILE STRESS at 16 000 lb per sq in, the spacing of web-members is expressed by the following formulas:

$$s = 16\,000\,l/V \tag{21}$$

and

$$s = 16\,000\,l/0.7\,V \tag{22}$$

In determining the length of horizontals necessary to properly care for the bending stresses, the same method may be employed as for plate girders, the remainder of the bar being carried up as an inclined member and carried over the top of the supports in continuous beams. The rods remaining at any point at the bottom or top must be of sufficient sectional area to carry the direct tension beyond this point. There must also be a sufficient length beyond this point to prevent slipping. Web-members must be so spaced that there will be a reinforcement intersecting every 45° line of rupture below the neutral axis. The New York City regulations specify that the spacing of the web-members should not exceed three-fourths of the depth of the beam. Sufficient BOND-STRENGTH of web-reinforcement should always be provided in the COMPRESSION-SIDE of the beam. In SIMPLE BEAMS, that is, beams resting on two supports, the ends of the bars should preferably be bent into hooks. Where bent up through large angles, web-members should extend horizontally along the upper part of a beam for some distance.

Attached Shear-Members. Stirrups need not be firmly attached to the tensional reinforcement; but the allowable BOND-STRESSES and SHEARING-STRESSES in the concrete must not be exceeded in transmitting the stresses between stirrups and longitudinal rods. The stirrups and inclined members must also develop sufficient BOND-STRESSES to transmit the entire stresses for which they are designed, and they must sometimes be supplemented with anchorages in the compression-side of the beam. It is, perhaps, better to have them attached, as they will certainly assist in anchoring the tensional reinforcement. Different forms of stirrups and methods of attachment are used. In the Kahn system (Fig. 9) and the Xpantrus (Fig. 10) the stirrups form a part of the tensional reinforcement. The U form, either upright or inverted, is a very common form of stirrup, and may be a rod of either round or square cross-section or a flat strap as shown in Figs. 8 and 13. The Hennebique system employs both inclined rods and vertical stirrups. In some cases, when the slabs and beams are constructed together, the slab-reinforcement is carried through the upper ends of the stirrups.

The Bond between Steel and Concrete. The BOND between the steel in tension and the concrete must not exceed the safe working value. If the bond is not sufficient, the rod will slip. Tension-rods must, therefore, never be too large to develop sufficient BOND-STRENGTH to transmit the stresses. Where bent-up bars are employed, the BOND-STRESSES in places, in both the straight and bent bars, will be higher than if all bars were straight. In cantilever beams, the ends of the bars at the supports are fully stressed and the bars must be carried into the supports and anchored to develop this stress. In anchoring bars, an additional length must always be provided above that required on the assumption of UNIFORM BOND-STRESSES. Wherever possible, adequate bond-strength should be provided throughout the length of the bar in preference to end-anchorage. Between plain bars and concrete the BOND-STRENGTH may be assumed to be 4% of the COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH of the concrete.

The Breadth of a Reinforced-Concrete Beam of Rectangular Cross-Section. The breadth of a rectangular beam, and of the stem of a T beam, as already indicated, is generally dependent upon the amount of reinforcement necessary, and it is equal to the sum of the diameters of the tension-rods, the required spaces between them and the amount of concrete outside of the rods needed to resist the shearing-stresses and to protect the steel. When no stirrups are used in a beam it is necessary, also, to make the width of the concrete sufficient to resist the horizontal shearing-stresses. This width should be at least equal to the sum of the perimeters of the tensional reinforcing-rods. The amount of concrete to be provided below the steel is fixed by the requirements for proper protection of the steel against fire and corrosion. (See page 960.)

Compression-Rods in Beams and Girders. Steel reinforcement in the form of rods is sometimes provided ABOVE THE NEUTRAL AXIS in beams and girders for the purpose of providing additional COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH where there is not sufficient concrete above the neutral axis to resist the total compression. If steel reinforcement is to be used for this purpose, the steel should be placed as high as possible, and the allowable unit compression in the steel limited to the actual compression in the concrete at that point multiplied by the ratio of the modulus of elasticity of the steel to that of the concrete, as in the case of columns with vertical reinforcement. The use of STEEL IN COMPRESSION in beams and girders, however, is not recommended, since at best it is very uneconomical and the steel has a tendency to buckle and disrupt the concrete.

Reinforced-Concrete Columns. Reinforced-concrete columns are of three general types: (1) concrete with VERTICAL REINFORCEMENT near the outer surfaces; (2) concrete wrapped with SPIRALLY-WOUND WIRE or with metal bands; (3) concrete with a METAL CORE.

Lengths of Columns. The lengths of reinforced-concrete columns are variously limited by different authorities as follows, the figures being in each case the RATIO OF THE LENGTH to the LEAST LATERAL DIMENSION:

New York	15
Chicago	12
Philadelphia	15
St. Louis	15
Cleveland	12
Baltimore	16
San Francisco	15
Buffalo	16
Detroit	12

New York limits, also, the least side or diameter to 12 in and San Francisco to 10 in.

Vertically-Reinforced Columns. In determining the strength of columns with VERTICAL REINFORCEMENT, the steel is assumed to carry a load per square inch equal to the working load per square inch on the concrete times the ratio of the moduli of elasticity of the steel and concrete. The allowable stresses, ratio of moduli, etc., are given in Table II, page 960. For example, in New York a load of 500 lb per sq in is allowed on the concrete, and 12 times 500 equals 6 000 lb per sq in on the steel, 12 being the ratio of the moduli as fixed by the regulations. Not less than 1 nor more than 4% of vertical reinforcement should be used in reinforced-concrete columns. The reinforcing-rods should be tied together horizontally at intervals of not more than the least side or diameter of the column. This prevents, to a great extent, the buckling of the reinforcement under load and the consequent splitting of the concrete. The VERTICAL REINFORCEMENT, in order to serve its purpose of taking up the bending in the column, should be placed as near the outer surfaces of the column as possible, consistent with proper protection of the steel. (See page 959.) If tension is possible in the longitudinal steel, due to bending, the bars must be spliced to resist this stress.

In the DISPOSITION OF THE STEEL the same precautions are necessary as in the case of beams, in order to avoid a too close spacing of the reinforcing-pieces or an excess of reinforcing-material. (See page 941.) As the concrete in columns is generally poured into the mold at the extreme top, it is particularly important to keep the interior free from interlacing steel across the column. In columns in which the steel is assumed to furnish part of the COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH, it should be made continuous from the columns of one story into those of the stories below, or washers or bases should be provided at the lower ends to properly distribute the loads on the steel over the materials below. The latter method should be avoided as much as possible, as these plates or washers tend to form planes of weakness through the concrete. The rods extending from one column may be connected with those above or below by means of pipe-sleeves.

Laterally-Reinforced Columns. Tests made on HOOPED CONCRETE COLUMNS at the University of Illinois in 1907, at the Watertown Arsenal in 1906, and at the University of Wisconsin in 1906 and 1907, show that the ultimate compressive strength of such columns is increased from 500 to 1 000 lb per sq in for each percentage of hooping employed. The increase of strength is due to the LATERAL COMPRESSIVE STRESSES developed by the restraining action of the hoops or bands at right-angles to the direct compressive stresses. Below the limit of elasticity, however, very little stress is developed in the lateral steel and the tests show that at an early stage, the deformation or shortening of the column is equal to that of plain concrete. With further loading, the laterals begin to work and prevent failure, thus increasing the so-called TOUGHNESS of the column and the ultimate compressive or breaking strength. This effect has been variously allowed for by considering the hooping-metal equivalent to and replaced by imaginary longitudinals. Considère and other investigators have shown that the hooping is equivalent to 2.4 times as much longitudinal steel. It is generally conceded that hooping permits of a somewhat higher unit stress in the concrete. The regulations of New York City provide that "axial compression in columns with not less than one per cent of hoops or spirals spaced not farther apart than one-sixth of the diameter of the enclosed column, and in no case more than three inches, and with not less than one nor more than four per cent of vertical reinforcement, shall not exceed 725 pounds per square inch on the concrete within the hoops or spirals nor 8 700 pounds per square inch on the vertical reinforcement." St. Louis and Cleveland permit 2.4 times the volume of hooping to be considered as longitudinal reinforcement; Chicago 2.5 times; and Cincinnati 2.2 times.

The Considère Formula. In the following formula the attempt is made to embody the results of the investigations of Considère and others on the relation of the INCREASE IN COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH to the amount of wrapping.

$$P = 1.5\,S_c\pi r^2 + S_t\,\frac{A_h}{p}\,\pi^2 r + 1.5\,nS_cA_s \qquad (23)$$

in which

P = the safe load in pounds;
S_c = the safe unit working stress of ordinary reinforced concrete in compression;
S_t = the safe unit tensile stress in the hoops;
r = the radius of the hoops or wrapping surrounding the concrete core;
A_h = the area of the cross-section of one hoop;
p = the pitch of the hoops;
n = the ratio of the modulus of elasticity of the steel to that of the concrete;
A_s = the total area of the longitudinal steel.

The second part of the equation consists of three terms; the first term represents the strength of the concrete itself; the second term the INCREASE IN THE STRENGTH of the concrete due to the wrapping; and the third term the INCREASE IN THE STRENGTH due to the vertical reinforcement. In figuring the strength of columns by this formula, only the area within the limits of the wrapping can be considered as EFFECTIVE AREA. The part outside the wrapping must be treated as a protection of the steel against fire and corrosion, and must be made of the necessary thickness to secure these results. (See page 959.) It is to be noted that the formula is applicable only in cases where the wrapping or bonding is circular in form, and where there is sufficient reinforcement to insure a lateral resistance of at least 65 lb per sq in. This second condition is satisfied when $\frac{A_h}{p}$ is equal to or greater than $\frac{r}{250}$.

Details of Lateral Reinforcement. At the top or base of the columns in each story, the wrapping should be made to continue through the floor-construction. Under certain conditions, when the floor-construction is practically solid about the columns, thus affording good lateral support, equal to the wrapping, it may be better to omit the wrapping and avoid the possible complication of steel reinforcement from column, girder and floor-construction and the consequent breaking of the bond of the concrete. The materials used for the wrapping are either steel wire or steel bands. When wire is used it is spirally wound and continuous through the full length of the column. The ends of the wire are turned into the column and turned down to such an extent that when the concrete has been poured and set, there will be sufficient anchorage to resist the tension in the wrapping due to the outward pressure of the concrete. When metal bands are used, as in the Cummings system, care must be taken to make the riveted joints in the bands as strong as the bands themselves. A form of wrapping that has the merits of rapidity and ease of erection is shown in the columns used in the Bush Terminal Warehouse, Borough of Brooklyn, New York City, described on page 959.

Metal-Core Columns. The object of this type of column is to provide a construction for tall or heavily loaded buildings that will have the necessary strength and yet not encroach too seriously on the floor-space. For this form of column some engineers advocate placing a steel core through the axis of the concrete, the steel taking the bulk of, if not the entire, load.* "A rational basis of design is to determine the strength of the steel column by the use of the column-formula for the proper l/r of the column and to consider the concrete of the core-section to have a stress-value proportional to the strength of plain concrete."†

William H. Burr designed a column (Fig. 20) for the McGraw Building, New York City. The steel core has sufficient strength as a column, independent of any concrete, to carry the entire dead load coming upon it, the stresses in the steel being in no case greater than those allowed on steel columns under the New York Building Code, considering the ratio of length to radius of gyration. Furthermore, those stresses were not allowed to exceed 9 000 lb per sq in in any case. The live loads were provided for by placing enough concrete within the steel framework, to prevent the stress on the concrete from exceeding 750 lb per sq in. This is one-twelfth of the maximum allowable load on the steel. The concrete outside of the steel was considered only as a protection against fire and corrosion. Columns of this type should be designed with caution. The concrete should not be relied upon to tie the steel units together or to transmit stresses from one unit to another. The units should be tied together by tie-plates or lattice-bars in conformity with the standard practice for structural steel work. For high percentages of steel, the concrete will develop low unit stresses and caution should, therefore, be used in placing dependence upon the concrete.‡

* Trans. Am. Soc. C. E., Vol. XIV, Part E, page 556.
† University of Illinois Bulletin No. 56, 1912.
‡ Proc. Am. Soc. C. E., Feb. 1913, page 153.

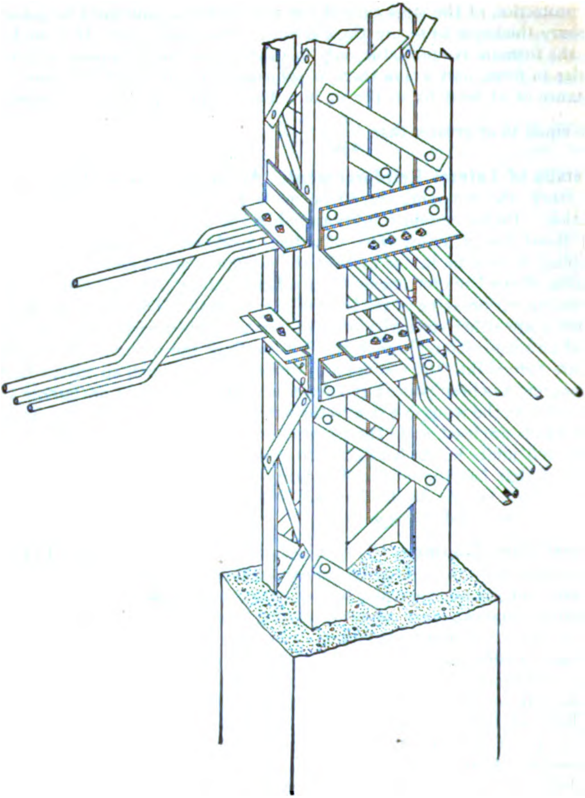
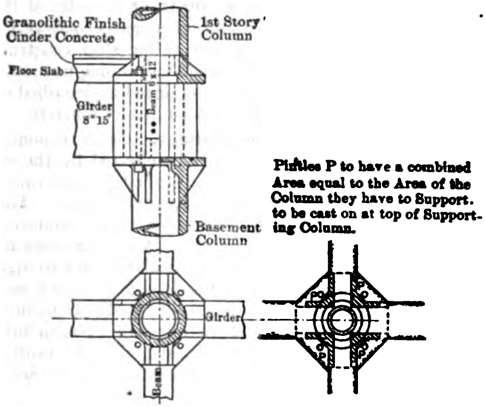


Fig. 20. Concrete Column with Steel Core

Rich Mixtures of Concrete. Increasing the proportion of cement in a mixture increases the ultimate strength of the concrete proportionally and is effective in designing columns with smaller cross-sectional area. The increased compressive strength is also accompanied by a higher modulus of elasticity. Furthermore, the employment of a rich mixture also permits of higher proportional stresses in the steel and consequently a more economical design. The internal stresses in a monolithic member, however, may be considerably complicated by the excessive shrinkage of rich mixtures which have a tendency to crack. The New York City Regulations provide that "in reinforced-concrete columns the compression on the concrete may be increased twenty per cent when the fine and coarse aggregates are carefully selected and the proportion of cement to total aggregate is increased to one part of cement to not more than four and one-half parts of aggregate, fine and coarse, either in the proportion of one part of cement, one and one-half parts of sand and three parts of stone or gravel, or in such proportion as will secure the maximum density."

Cummings' Lateral Reinforcement. Robert A. Cummings of Pittsburgh, Pa., following a European practice, has applied extensively a method of reinforcing compression-members by placing horizontal wire spirals in planes at right-angles to the main compressive stresses and spaced from 1¼ to 2 in on centers. This practice is based on the theory that the failure of a concrete prism will take place along lines parallel to the direction of the applied load. The method has been very successful in reinforcing the heads of precast concrete piles, driven by hammer.

Cast-Iron Columns. When a building for any reason need not be treated as a fire-proof structure space and time may be saved by using cast-iron or steel columns. In such cases the column-connections must be designed with suitable bearings for the concrete construction and so that there will be a continuity in that construction; for the great advantage in reinforced-concrete construction lies in its monolithic character. When cast-iron columns are used, the heads of the columns may be cast with openings through which the reinforcement may pass from one side to the other. Fig. 21 shows how this has been done in a building at Gay and Christopher Streets, New York City, without impairing the strength of the columns at the connections.



Pintles P to have a combined Area equal to the Area of the Column they have to Support. to be cast on at top of Supporting Column.

Fig. 21. Connections for Cast-iron Columns and Reinforced-concrete Construction

Steel Columns. In steel columns it is simpler to provide connections between the reinforcing-rods and the steel shapes of the columns. When the reinforcement does not go through the columns, some rods should be placed outside of them to tie as much as possible the concrete on one side to that on the other.

Eccentric Loads. Bending stresses due to lateral and eccentric loads must be computed so that the combined direct and bending stress does not exceed the allowable maximum stress for axial compression. Formulas for eccentric loading on columns are given in Chapter XIV, pages 453 and 486.

Concrete Walls. Concrete walls are generally considered better than brick or stone walls. If not reinforced they are generally required to be of the same thickness, for given conditions, as brick walls. Under such circumstances they are not as economical as brick walls. If reinforced and used as bearing-walls, they can be reduced to about two-thirds the thickness of brick walls, provided, however, that the load on the concrete does not exceed the safe load per square inch permitted on reinforced columns. The ratio of unsupported height to thickness should not exceed that fixed for columns. For spandrel-walls, supported entirely on girders, the minimum thickness should be 6 in. Such walls should be reinforced with not less than ½ lb of steel per square foot of wall, in the form of rods placed vertically and, less frequently, horizontally.

Reinforced-Concrete Footings. (See, also, pages 186, 225 and 226.) The principles underlying the design and construction of reinforced-concrete footings are the same as those applied to other types of footings. In wall, pier or column-footings the overhang or off-set must be considered as an INVERTED CANTILEVER loaded uniformly with a load per square foot equal to the load per square foot imposed on the underlying soil. The reinforcing-rods will then necessarily be placed near the lower surface of the footing and the size and number determined by formulas given on page 929. A detail often overlooked in reinforced-concrete footings is the tendency to SHEAR at the edge of the wall, pier or column supported. When footings would otherwise become very ECCENTRIC, cantilevers should be resorted to, the same as for steel construction. (See pages 165 to 169 and 978 to 982.) The maximum bending moment on the cantilever is determined and the concrete girders designed as described on page 929. Steel in footings should be protected by at least 4 in of concrete.

Economy of Reinforced-Concrete Footings. Great economy over steel-grillage or other types of footings may often be effected by the use of REINFORCED-CONCRETE FOOTINGS. The cost of the latter type will vary from 20 to 40% of the cost of a corresponding STEEL-GRILLAGE FOOTING. This difference is easily accounted for. The amount of excavation for the reinforced footing is generally much less than for the steel grillage. A smaller amount of concrete is used, and this concrete is considered in the calculations for strength; whereas in the steel grillage, the concrete is chiefly provided for incasing and protecting the steel. The amount of steel is much less, being used only to supply the tensional resistance of the construction, the compressive strength being supplied by the much cheaper material, concrete. Incidentally, the protection of the steel in the reinforced footing is generally more certain than in the steel-grillage footing.

Concrete Piles. Concrete piles are discussed in Chapter II, pages 196 to 200 and some of the types are there described.

Connections in Reinforced-Concrete Construction. Much good judgment can be displayed and must be exercised in the design of the details in these connections. The great value of reinforced-concrete construction over other types is the possibility of securing great RIGIDITY. This can only be attained when the result is as nearly MONOLITHIC as possible. We then have mass to take up vibration and this advantage, in the case of workshops or factories in which there is machinery, is readily seen. The reinforced-concrete buildings that came through the severe San Franscisco earthquake in May, 1906, in good condition, were those in which attention had been given to the details and connections. To secure a monolithic character requires CONTINUITY not only in the concrete, but also in the reinforcement. This often means that there is a net-work of steel at the connections. If this is carried to excess, the BOND and CONTINUITY of the concrete is apt to be broken, even when the spaces between the steel units are thoroughly filled. But when there is such a net-work of steel it also acts like a sieve and the spaces are not readily filled. For this reason it is well to use a richer mixture at the columns and to keep the aggregate as small as possible. The connections of floor-system to columns are particularly troublesome in this respect, and partly for this reason and partly to provide rigidity, brackets should be provided under the girders at the columns with metal reinforcement near the inclined surfaces of the bracket.

Reinforced-Concrete Stairs.[*] Some of the most interesting work that has been done in reinforced concrete has been the construction of stairs. The reinforcement, being in the form of comparatively small, limber bars, can be adapted to almost any shape for which molds can be constructed, and when a wet, rich concrete with small aggregate is used, little or no difficulty need be experienced in casting. As an example of such work, the stairs in the residence of G. W. Vanderbilt, in New York City, may be cited. When these stairs were five weeks old a test of their strength was made, without distress, by dropping a bundle of four bags of cement, weighing about 380 lb, from the floor above to the intermediate platform, a distance of 11 ft. No injurious effects were noticed.[†]

4. Types of Reinforced-Concrete[‡] Construction

Mill-Construction. In localities where the cost of labor is high and where the conditions cause more or less congestion, it is probably more economical to use brick instead of concrete for the walls. In such cases the type of construction is similar to ordinary MILL-CONSTRUCTION. Provision must be made to anchor the beams and girders, and this can be done by bending the ends of the reinforcing-rods so that they will extend horizontally into the walls on each side.

Skeleton Construction. The SKELETON TYPE of construction seems to be the form best adapted to reinforced concrete. A framework of columns, girders, beams and flooring is built, as in steel construction, the wall-girders and columns, of course, being designed to carry the weights of the outside walls as well as that part of the floor-loads and live loads which comes on them. The work, in this type of construction, can generally progress more steadily than in the MILL-CONSTRUCTION since the concrete work need not be stopped at any time to wait for the brickwork to be carried up, if brick is used for the walls. In the SKELETON CONSTRUCTION any type of outside wall may be used; brick, concrete, tile, etc. In some cases the panels are simply filled in with brickwork, 8 or 12 in thick, leaving the concrete columns and girders showing between the brick panels. For walls situated on property-lines where adjoining buildings are likely to be erected, this is not objectionable. If the wall remains exposed and a good appearance is a consideration, the columns and girders can be treated architecturally to set off the brickwork; or the brickwork may be continued as a facing over the outside of the columns and girders. This was done in the Bush Terminal Warehouses, Borough of Brooklyn, New York City.[§] To thoroughly secure this brick facing, galvanized anchors were placed in the concrete columns and girders as they were erected, projected sufficiently to bond into the brick joints. In using concrete for the panels the sides of the columns are cast with pockets, grooves, or recesses to receive the panels, which, as in the case of brickwork, are most satisfactorily and most economically built after the removal of the molds from the skeleton frame. In the Marlborough-Blenheim Hotel, at Atlantic City, N. J., the panels are filled in with hard-burned terra-cotta tiles and a stucco applied on the outside. This makes a comparatively light construction and affords good insulation. The particular advantage in the SKELETON TYPE of construction, especially for workshops and factories, is the possibility of large window-areas affording light and ventilation.

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[*] See, also, pages 905 and 983.

[†] For a detailed description, see "Cement," Jan., 1904, and Engineering Record, Dec. 12, 1903. For other examples of stair-work, see Engineering News, June 30, 1904.

[‡] See, also, Chapter XXV.

[§] For a description of this building, see Engineering Record, March 3, 1906.

System M. A type of construction known as System M has been developed by the Standard Concrete Company of New York City (Fig. 22). It consists of a light steel skeleton frame designed to carry the dead load of the entire structure, except that the columns are designed to carry the gross loads. The structure is incased in concrete making ultimately a reinforced-concrete construction.* Its advantage consists in its adaptation to the erection and inspection of the steel reinforcement before even the centers or molds are placed in position. Under congested conditions, such as prevail in large cities, it is a rapid form of construction. The use of the steel in this type is, however, not economical. In order to get the necessary strength in the steel framework, shapes must be used which do not offer the amount of adhesion that should result from the amount of metal used. Furthermore such shapes must necessarily be subjected to some bending which tends to break the bond between concrete and steel.

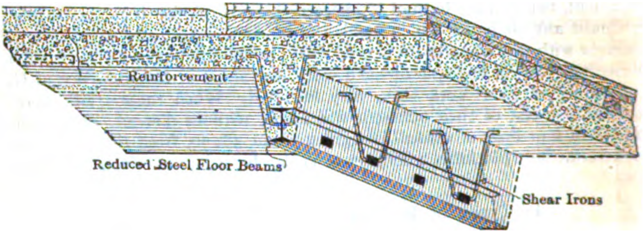

Fig. 22. System M Type of Reinforced-concrete Construction

Flat-Slab Construction.† In this form of construction beams and girders are eliminated, almost completely if not entirely, and the slab is made to rest directly on the columns; the tops of the columns are enlarged into extended caps. This system of construction employs a shallower floor-construction than is ordinarily attainable. The floor-centering, too, for purposes of erection, is somewhat simpler, especially in those forms of slabs in which the lower surface is all in one plane. "At present, a considerable difference of opinion exists among engineers as to the formulæ and constants which should be used, but experience and tests are accumulating data which it is hoped will in the near future permit the formulation of the principles of design for this form of construction."‡ There are in use at present four principal types, on all of which patent rights are claimed. In two of these the reinforcement, spoken of as FOUR-WAY REINFORCEMENT, is placed and run from column to column, parallel with the sides of the slabs and diagonally across each slab. The other two types have the reinforcement, known as TWO-WAY REINFORCEMENT, running parallel with the sides only of the slabs.

The oldest of the flat-slab construction, a FOUR-WAY SYSTEM, is the one known as MUSHROOM CONSTRUCTION,§ invented and controlled by C. A. P. Turner, of

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* For fuller descriptions, see Engineering News, April 25, 1907, and Engineering Record, June 22, 1907.

† See, also, Girderless Floors, Chapter XXV, page 993.

‡ Proc. Am. Soc. C. E., Vol. XXXIX, page 148.

§ Engineering News, Vol. 61, page 178.

Minneapolis, Minn. The striking and essential feature which gives the system its name is the gradual spreading out of the column at the top to form a cap, the diameter of which is seven-sixteenths of the sum of the distances between columns in the direction of the sides of the slab. The longitudinal column-reinforcement is bent to follow the curved outer surface of the cap, and the cap is reinforced both radially and circumferentially. The slab-reinforcement is placed at the top of the slab over the columns and allowed to sag to a catenary curve with the low point near the bottom of the slab at the middle of the span. The thickness of the slab varies from 1/36 to 1/20 of the shorter distance between the column-centering.

The Cantilever Flat Slab, controlled by the Concrete Products Company, Chicago, Ill., is the second of the FOUR-WAY REINFORCEMENT-SYSTEMS. It differs from the one described in the preceding paragraph mainly in the construction of the column-cap. The column-bars are not bent to the shape of the cap but continue up straight. The horizontal cap-reinforcement is provided by a shop-made frame of radial bars, held together by a Diamond Bar which is intended to resist the circumferential stresses. The diameter of the cap is about 4/10 the span and the thickness of the slab about 1/28 the span. The two TWO-WAY REINFORCEMENT-SYSTEMS are the Akme System, controlled by T. A. Condron, Chicago, Ill., and the Corr-Plate Floor System, controlled by the Corrugated Bar Company, New York City and Buffalo, N. Y. The thickness of slab is generally about 1/28 the span. Whenever necessary to provide for large shearing-stresses and bending-stresses around the column the slab is increased in thickness at that point, forming, in appearance, an extended cap at the column-head. In the Akme System the reinforcement is concentrated over the column-caps, resulting practically in broad, flat girders of the width of the caps, the smaller slab enclosed by four broad girders being reinforced in two directions. In the Corr-Plate Floor System the reinforcement is distributed across the entire slab, the rods being spaced unevenly to resist the varying stresses as predetermined, unevenly spaced rods being placed to resist the varying stresses in the slab as predetermined by experiment.

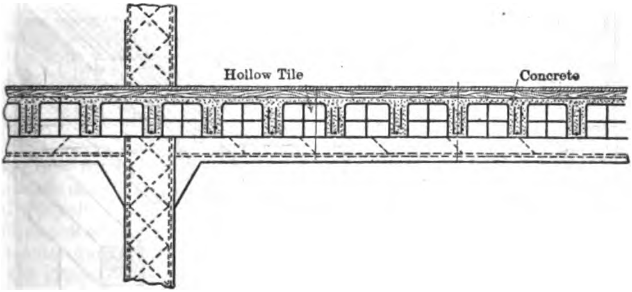

Fig. 23. The Kahn Tile and Reinforced-concrete System

Kahn Hollow-Tile and Reinforced-Concrete Construction. In seeking to minimize the cost of centering, the floor-construction shown in Fig. 23 has been devised. It consists of a series of reinforced-concrete beams with clear spaces between them of the width of the hollow-tile blocks. In erection, a flat centering is used, which, however, need not even be continuous. Planks, a few inches wider than the concrete beams, are placed under the spaces to be fille by the beams, and the tiles are laid in rows and supported along their edges b the planks, thus forming the sides of the molds for the beams. The reinforcement is placed and the concrete poured, with or without floor-plates, as the necessities of the case may require. Care must be taken in pouring the concret that the tiles are not displaced sidewise. The tiles should fit closely at thei joints, otherwise the finer particles of the concrete are liable to flow into them either making the concrete porous or requiring more cement and sand than i necessary. This form of construction, besides being economical in centering offers the advantages of a flat ceiling without the application of lath and, i roof-construction particularly, of freedom from condensation.

The Floretyle Systems. A floor-construction similar to the hollow-til construction just described has been devised by the Trussed Concrete Stee Company of Detroit, Mich., in which steel forms, called Floretyles, replace the bottom blocks. The advantages claimed over the terra-cotta tile systems are lighter weight of construction, larger covering capacity and greater economy in centering. The Floretyles are furnished in lengths of 3 and 4 ft and in depths of 6, 8, 10 and 12 in. The width at the base is, in all cases, 21 in, with the sides tapering at an angle of 7° 30′. They are furnished in two types, either with serrated edges for use with the company's Hy-rib lath for ceilings, or with straight edges for use where paneled ceilings are required.

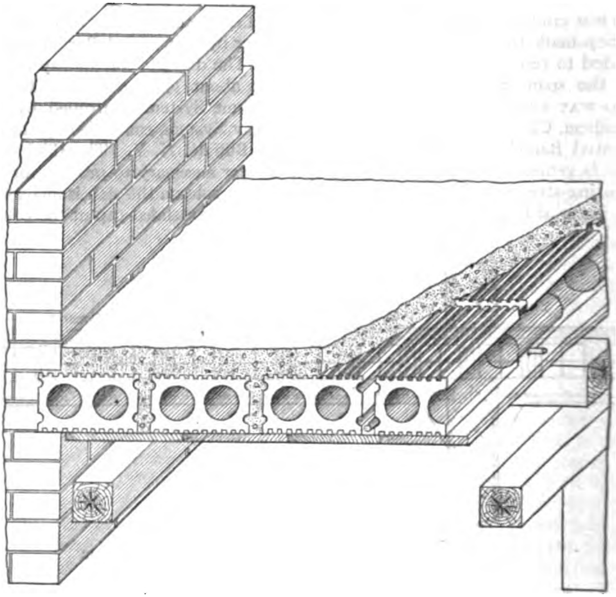

Fig. 24. The Faber Two-way Tile and Reinforced-concrete System

Two-Way Tile Systems. The same principle of construction as in the systems just described is involved in the Faber Construction (Fig. 24), patented and introduced from abroad where it has been used extensively. In this case, however, the floor is reinforced in both directions and the strength calculated for a slab supported on four sides. (See page 940.) The concrete is a rich mixture of one part Portland cement and three parts sand. It is prevented from running into the hollow spaces of the tile by the use of the cardboard tubes as shown. The tiles are of heavier construction than the ordinary commercial tiles, and are used in part in figuring the resistance to compression. Another type of combined terra-cotta tile and concrete floor-construction, with TWO-WAY REINFORCEMENT, is erected by the Corrugated Bar Company of New York City and Buffalo, N. Y., under the Burchartz patents. Three systems are installed: System A, employing alternate flanged blocks and channel-tiles; System B, using the standard floor-tiles with rectangular spacing or soffit-pieces; and System C, combining standard floor-blocks and special angle-tiles. In the Floredome construction, put on the market by the Trussed Concrete Steel Company, Detroit, Mich., the tile spacing-blocks are replaced by rectangular dome-shaped steel forms with the under side open. Lightness in floor-weight, ease and rapidity of installation and no breakages are the advantages claimed. The ceiling-treatment in this construction is similar to that in the Floretyle system. The base of the domes is uniformly 21.5 in square; the depth varies, being 6, 8, 10, or 12 in.

Strength of Combination-Systems. While the tiles may under favorable conditions add to the strength of the combined floor-construction, the chances of unsatisfactory workmanship are too great to consider them in the calculations for strength. In the floors reinforced in one direction, the construction should be treated as a series of either rectangular beams or T beams, as the concrete extends either to or above the top face of the tiles. The TWO-WAY REINFORCED CONSTRUCTION should be similarly treated, either as a series of intersecting beams or as a slab supported on four sides. If the construction is to be treated as a series of T beams or as a slab, the concrete should extend at least 2½ in above the top surface of the slab and the tiles or fillers should not exceed 60% of the volume of the construction.

Separately-Molded Construction. The UNIT OF SEPARATELY-MOLDED CONSTRUCTION consists of precast reinforced-concrete members, columns, girders, beams, or slabs, either molded at the site of the building or made at the factory and shipped to the site ready for use. The various systems of fire-proof floor-units described on pages 859 to 862, may be combined with columns and girders of similar construction to form the entire structure, each member being cast on the ground, swung into place and fitted together in the structure by interlocking reinforcement and poured grouting. Great economy is claimed for this method of erection on account of the saving of forms. The disadvantage of such a system, however, appears to lie in the lack of sufficient rigidity in tall separately-molded unit structures. All floor-members must be designed and cast as simple, NON-CONTINUOUS UNITS with the reinforcement left projecting at both ends to serve for tying the structure together. These junctures are made, after the units are hoisted into place and supported by a pouring of rich concrete. For tall structures it is more feasible to erect a light structural-steel frame and employ the precast floor-units only. (See Chapter XXIII, page 859.) The saving in cost is noted particularly in low buildings, and more especially in one-story structures,* such buildings having been erected at a saving of from 10 to 20% over MONOLITHIC construction. Methods of interlocking the units and providing satisfactory details are constantly being improved and a series of tests of the efficiency of such connections is being carried on by the Unit Construction Company of St. Louis, Mo. There are under construction, or already completed, many buildings of this type installed by the above company, including five-story buildings for the National Lead Company, at St. Louis, Mo., Kansas City, Mo., and Pittsburgh, Pa., a three-story building for the Ohio Cultivator Company, at Belleville, Ohio, five acres of car-barns at Philadelphia, Pa., and approximately thirteen and one-half acres of cotton-warehouses at Memphis, Tenn. The Ransome Engineering Company of New York City has erected five-story and six-story buildings with its Unit system in Boston, Mass. A modification of the Siegwart system is being used for two-story and three-story dwellings at Forest Hills, L. I., by the Sage Foundation Company and the Vaughan system is being used at Detroit, Mich., and throughout the Middle West. (See page 861.)

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* Engineering Record, Vol. 60, page 643; Engineering News, Vol. 58, page 5; Proceedings, National Asso. Cement Users, 1910, page 391.

5. Fire-Resistance of Reinforced-Concrete Construction

Non-Conductivity of Reinforced Concrete. Concrete is a poor conductor of heat and in this fact lies whatever virtue it has as a fire-proof material.* A series of tests made by Professor Woolson of Columbia University, New York City, and reported at the 1907 meeting of the Amercian Society for Testing Materials, shows the following results:

(1) "That all concrete mixtures when heated throughout to a temperature of 1 000° to 1 500° F. will lose a large proportion of their strength and elasticity, and that this fact must be well remembered in designing."

(2) "That all concretes have a very low thermal conductivity, and therein lies their well known heat resisting properties."

(3) "That as a result of this low thermal conductivity, two to two and one-half inches of concrete covering will protect reinforcing metal from injurious heat for the period of any ordinary conflagration (provided, of course, that the concrete stays in place during the fire)."

(4) "That reinforcing metal exposed to the fire will not convey by conductivity an injurious amount of heat to the embedded portion."

(5) "That the gravel concrete was not a reliable or safe fire-resisting aggregate." †

Loss of Strength of Reinforced Concrete. If its NON-CONDUCTIVITY were all that is involved in the fire-proof character of concrete, the minimum thickness required for the protection of the steel could be easily determined. But the STRENGTH of the concrete is more or less affected when exposed to extreme heat. An effort has been made to determine this effect and a summary ‡ of the results as reported by Professor Woolson of Columbia University, New York City, is given in Tables XII and XIII.

Fire-Tests on Reinforced Concrete. The EFFECT OF FIRE on reinforced concrete has been studied in a number of tests made by the building authorities of New York City and Philadelphia, and in some of the recent conflagrations in the country, notably at San Francisco. The tests to which the sample full-size constructions have been subjected are described in Chapter XXIII, page 827, but in the tests mentioned in this paragraph there was no limitation as to span or spacing. Of the nineteen tests made under the auspices stated, seven were failures; the others passed, showing more or less satisfactory conditions.[*]

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* It must be remembered that in this and succeeding paragraphs on the fire-resisting properties of concrete, only such material as is used in reinforced concrete is considered. The value of cinder concrete as a fire-proof material is discussed in Chapter XXIII, page 818.

† Engineering News, Aug. 15, 1907, page 168.

‡ Proc. Am. Soc. for Test. Mats., Vol. VI, page 433.

Table XII. Tests of Concrete Blocks Heated on All Sides [†]

Specimens, 6 by 6 by 14-in prisms; proportions 1 : 2 : 4

Age 2 months; temperature 1500° F.

Treatment	Aggregate			
	Limestone	Trap-rock	Cinder	Gravel
Modulus of elasticity,				
At 200 lb per sq in:				
Unheated	6 000 000	3 430 000	1 090 000	8 000 000
Heated 3 hours	200 000	150 000	49 500	....
Heated 5 hours	....	129 000	571 000	....
At 400 lb per sq in:				
Unheated	6 000 000	4 355 000	960 000	6 887 000
Heated 2 hours	285 000	222 000	....	....
Heated 5 hours	....	188 000	....	....
At 800 lb per sq in:				
Unheated	5 647 000	4 355 000	915 000	6 000 000
Heated 3 hours	425 000	348 000	....	....
Breaking-load in lb per sq in:				
Unheated	2 740	3 140	1 400	2 780
Heated 3 hours	1 345	1 400	547	....
Heated 5 hours	870	997	504	....

Table XIII. Concrete Blocks Heated on One Face Only [‡]

Specimens, 6 by 6 by 14-in prisms; proportions 1 : 2 : 4

Age 2 Months; temperature 1 500° F.

Treatment	Aggregate	
	Limestone	Trap-rock
Modulus of elasticity, heated 5 hours:		
At 200 lb per sq in	293 400	200 000
At 400 lb per sq in	521 700	268 000
At 800 lb per sq in	730 700	379 000
Breaking-load in lb per sq in	1 840	1 705

The conclusion, from a study of the tests in detail,[§] shows that to a depth averaging about 1 in the concrete is seriously impaired and easily washed off by a hose-stream applied to the surface. Any stone containing an appreciable percentage of carbonate of lime will calcine and cause failure. Where the construction is poorly designed, allowing an excessive deflection, the fine cracks in the concrete below the steel will open to such an extent as to allow the heat to reach the metal reinforcements. When the reinforcement is such as to produce a plane of weakness in the concrete there is liable to be a flaking off of the concrete and a consequent exposure of the metal.

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[*] For a partial list of these tests, see Table in Proc. Am. Soc. for Test. Mats., Vol. VI, page 128. Several tests have been made since that report was submitted.

[†] Proc. Am. Soc. Test. Mats., Vol. VI, page 446.

[‡] Proc. Am. Soc. for Test. Mats., Vol. VI, page 448.

[§] The detailed reports are on file in the Bureau of Buildings, Borough of Manhattan, New York.

Actual Fire-Tests of Reinforced Concrete. The EARLIEST TEST of a reinforced-concrete building in an actual fire occurred in 1902, in the four-story factory of the Pacific Coast Borax Company, at Bayonne, N. J. The roof of this building was of wood, and with the contents of the building, was destroyed by the fire. The only damage suffered was a break in the top floor caused by the fall of a heavy tank that had been supported by the roof. At the same time an adjoining building constructed with unprotected steel posts and beams was twisted into a tangled mass of metal.

Tests in the Baltimore Fire. In the Baltimore fire there was but one reinforced-concrete building of the three exposed to the fire, from which any fair conclusion can be drawn. In one of the buildings, the concrete construction was entirely destroyed, but this was probably due to the falling walls and the failure of other non-fire-proof parts. In a second building, the heavy reinforced-concrete floor of a banking-room came out practically unharmed; but it was not exposed to severe fire. The third structure was, however, exposed to severe fire. The contents of the building were destroyed and a large part of the outside brick walls fell. The floors, five in number, were all of reinforced concrete supported on concrete columns, having replaced an old wooden-joist construction. A test made after the fire showed that the floors were still strong enough to sustain the loads for which they were designed, although the floor-slabs were cracked. The girders were cracked longitudinally near the lines of the reinforcement, and the columns were spalled to such an extent as to expose most of the reinforcement. It would have been difficult to restore the building so that it would resist another such attack.*

Tests in the San Francisco Fire. The EFFECTS OF THE FIRE on concrete construction in the conflagration immediately following the San Francisco earthquake in 1906 are summed up in the following paragraph from the report of a committee of engineers that investigated the subject.†

"Concrete floors generally had hung ceilings, and, where thus protected, were uninjured. Where exposed, the concrete is in most cases destroyed, for instance, in the Sloan, Rialto, and the Aronson Buildings, and the Crocker Warehouse. The concrete is dry, and while in many cases hard, yet all the water has been burned out and it may be said to be destroyed, even if able to support weights. Floor coverings of wood invariably burned, adding to the destruction. Sleepers were generally burned. Surfaces of cement mortar fared much better, the linoleum covering remaining practically intact." ‡

In discussing the report, Mr. A. L. A. Himmelwright, who made a personal inspection of the ruins, concludes that reinforced concrete is inferior as a fire-resisting construction to any form of steel construction with concrete floors and concrete column and girder-protection, but superior to steel construction with terra-cotta floor and terra-cotta column and girder-protection. "Where this method was used, a very slight attack of fire was generally sufficient to cause the rupture of the concrete underneath the reinforcing-metal, so that it fell away, exposing the metal. There were comparatively few buildings, however, in which this method of construction was used." *

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* Captain Sewell in his report on this building draws a different conclusion. See Engineering News, March 24, 1904, page 276.

† Quoted verbatim et literatim. Editor-in-chief.

‡ Proc. Am. Soc. C. E., March, 1907, page 330.

Thickness of Concrete Required. From a study of the tests and fires just referred to, the fair conclusions as to the AMOUNT OF PROTECTION against fire would seem to be as follows: (1) in all columns and in large and important girders, trusses or other supports, at least 2 in of concrete outside of all reinforcements; (2) in girders and beams and in slabs of long spans, about 1½ in of concrete outside of all reinforcements; (3) in stair-work, floor-slabs of short span and walls and partitions, from ¾ to 1 in of concrete outside of all reinforcement.

Fire-Underwriters' Requirements for Reinforced Concrete. The following provisions † are those given in the Building Code recommended by the National Board of Fire Underwriters. They are generally considered, except by underwriters and some fire-engineers, as ultraconservative.

"The minimum thickness of concrete surrounding and reinforcing members one-quarter inch or less in diameter shall be one inch; and for members heavier than one-quarter inch the minimum thickness of protecting concrete shall be four diameters taking that diameter, in the event of bars of other than circular cross-section, which lies in the direction in which the thickness of the concrete is measured; but no protecting concrete need be more than four inches thick for bars of any size; and provided, further, that all columns and girders of reinforced concrete shall have at least one inch of material on all exposed surfaces over and above that required for structural purposes; and all beams and floor slabs shall have at least three-quarters inch of such surplus material for fire-resisting purposes."

Other Forms of Protection for Reinforced Concrete. Because of the effects produced by fire on reinforced concrete, as above described, and the difficulty of restoring the construction where so affected, various suggestions have been made to protect the concrete construction with other materials. On account of its excellent fire-resisting qualities (see page 818), CINDER CONCRETE naturally suggests itself. This material is out of the question where strength is required. But its use may be combined with that of STONE CONCRETE, by placing a sufficient thickness for protective purposes on the outside of the reinforcements in columns, below the neutral axis in beams and girders ‡ and on the under surface of floor-slabs. Difficulties are likely to be encountered, however, in placing two kinds of concrete in the same mold, but these difficulties are not insurmountable. Careful inspection is required to see that the poorer material is not put in place of the stronger. One kind of concrete should follow the other immediately in order to secure a bond between the two. This suggestion was satisfactorily applied to the column-protection in the Bush Terminal Warehouses in the Borough of Brooklyn, New York, serving at the same time another purpose. The steel-wire wrapping for the columns was prepared in sections 2 ft in height. Metal lath with about a ½-in mesh was placed outside the wrapping and secured to it. This was then placed in a cylindrical wooden mold 2 ft in height and with a diameter 4 in larger than the wrapping. This formed the inner side of the mold. The space between the wrapping and the wooden mold was then filled with cinder concrete. When set and the mold removed, the result was a hollow cylinder of cinder concrete, 2 in thick and 2 ft high, with the column-wrapping attached to the inside. These cylinders were set one over the other in the building till the proper column-height was reached, such vertical rods as were wanted were put in, and the interior filled with concrete. Thus was produced a fire-proof, wrapped column without the expense and inconvenience of any column-molds in the building.

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* Proc. Am. Soc. C. E., August, 1907, page 668.

† Quoted verbatim et literatim. Editor-in-chief.

‡ Trans. Am. Soc. C. E., Vol. LVI, page 284.

A form of fire-protection, advocated by the National Fire Proofing Company of Pittsburgh, Pa., is shown in Fig. 25. Here columns, beams and girders are completely incased with HOLLOW-TILE BLOCKS. Being either laid in the molds or forming them, their rough and furrowed porous surfaces cause them to adhere firmly to the concrete. They afford as efficient protection here as they do for steel columns, and if destroyed the blocks can be replaced.

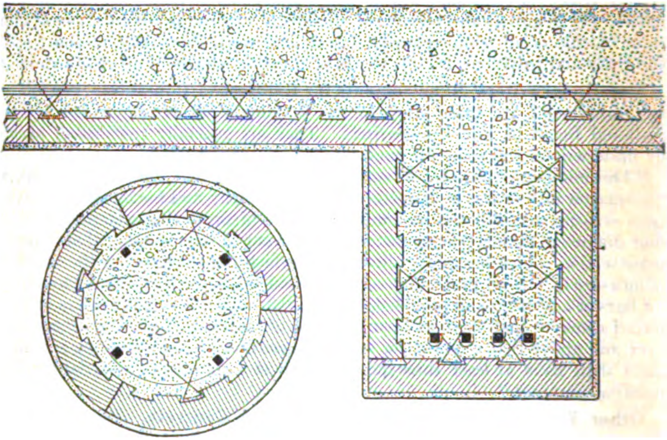

Fig. 25. Tile Protection for Reinforced Concrete

6. Protection Against Corrosion in Reinforced-Concrete Construction

Thickness of Reinforced Concrete. The THICKNESS OF CONCRETE required for protection against fire has been found to be also ample for protection against CORROSION. It is well established that steel embedded in neat cement will not corrode. C. L. Norton of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston, Mass., draws the following conclusions from a series of experiments made in 1902 and 1903.*

(1) Steel embedded in neat cement is secure against corrosion;

(2) Steel embedded in a dense concrete mixture is safe against corrosion;

(3) To assure a thorough coating of the steel the concrete should be mixed wet;

(4) Porous concrete allows the admission of moisture and will not protect the steel thoroughly;

(5) A coating of rust is not a protection against further corrosion, as has been sometimes claimed.

In these experiments the steel was incased in concrete 1½ in thick on all sides. From this it would appear that

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* Reports Nos. 4 and 9, Insurance Experiment Station of the Boston Manufacturers Mutual Fire Insurance Company.

(6) The steel of reinforced concrete is secure against corrosion, provided it is thoroughly embedded in concrete, and

(7) A slight coating of rust on the steel, where embedded, does no harm, as the cement is strongly alkaline and will counteract the acidity of the iron oxide and prevent further corrosion.

"In practical design the most important question which arises is how far a concrete may be cracked (due to bending of beams) without exposing the steel to corrosive influences. In this respect it seems to the writer that the minute cracks which appear in the early states of the tests can have very little influence."* This means that within the safe working limits, there is no danger from corrosion on account of the fine cracks due to tension in beams and girders.

Corrosion of Steel in Cinder Concrete. Cases are on record of serious CORROSION OF STEEL embedded in CINDER CONCRETE. In a report to the Structural Association of San Francisco, Cal.,† the committee investigating the subject states that in cinder concrete "the extent of the corrosion is great enough to seriously endanger the safety of the floors, and it is not probable that the floors would have supported their loads more than one to three years longer." The committee recommended "that the Structural Association try to amend the present building law so as to exclude the use of cinder concrete in floor-slabs or for fireproofing."

Mr. William H. Fox in his investigations‡ on this same subject finds that "after about forty days' treatment, the specimens were broken, and the steel carefully examined for corrosion. With but one exception, one or more of the three steel pieces in each specimen showed unmistakable signs of corrosion. Apparently it made no difference how the concrete was mixed, wet or dry, tamped or untamped, whether the steam or water treatment was used, the result was the same, rust streaks and spots were found; the difference in the amount of corrosion being imperceptible." He concludes that "to secure a dense homogeneous cinder concrete, a thorough tamping is necessary. A rich mixture, either 1:1:3 or one in which the proportion of cement to aggregate is larger, should be used in all cases. The greatest of care should be taken in mixing the materials, and it may be necessary to resort to the seemingly impractical method of coating the reinforcement with grout before placing in the concrete."

In a series of chemical and physical tests,§ made by George Borrowman of the University of Nebraska, it was found that disintegration of cinder concrete was caused by the oxidation of iron and sulphur producing internal stresses and consequent cracking with occasional efflorescence of ferrous sulphate on the surface. From these tests, it was concluded that cinders with much sulphide and sulphate sulphur are likely to give unsatisfactory results, especially if there is much coke or porous material present; also that such material (cinders) may be improved if allowed to weather with occasional washing, until the ferrous iron and sulphur have been washed and leached out of the cinders. The cinders used in these tests were from carefully screened steam coal and slack. The analysis showed considerable ferrous iron and sulphur as sulphide and sulphate.

On the question of the CORROSION OF STEEL in CINDER CONCRETE Professor Norton concludes: "There is one limitation to the whole question, that is, the possibility of getting the steel properly incased in concrete. Many engineers will have nothing to do with concrete because of the difficulty in getting 'sound' work. This is especially true of cinder concrete, where the porous nature of the cinders has led to much dry concrete and many voids, and much corrosion. I feel that nothing in this whole subject has been more misunderstood than the action of cinder concrete. We usually hear that it contains much sulphur and this causes corrosion. Sulphur might, if present, were it not for the presence of the strongly alkaline cement; but with that present the corrosion of steel by the sulphur of cinders in a sound Portland concrete is the veriest myth, and as a matter of fact the ordinary cinders, classed as steam cinders, contain only a very small amount of sulphur. There can be no question that cinder concrete has rusted great quantities of steel, but not because of its sulphur, but because it was mixed too dry, through the action of the cinders in absorbing moisture, and that it contained, therefore, voids; and secondly, because in addition the cinders often contain oxide of iron which, when not coated over with the cement by thorough wet mixing, causes the rusting of any steel which it touches. There is one cure and only one, mix wet and mix well. With this precaution I would trust cinder concrete quite as quickly as stone concrete in the matter of corrosion." *

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* Professor Turneaure in Trans. Am. Soc. for Test. Mats., Vol. IV, page 505.

† Engineering News, Nov. 1, 1906, page 458.

‡ Engineering News, May 23, 1907, page 569.

§ Journal of Industrial and Engineering Chemistry, June, 1912.

In 1902 the Pabst Building in New York City, an eight-story steel skeleton construction, was taken down after standing for about four years. The floor-filling between the steel I beams in this case consisted of cinder concrete on metal lath, built in segmental form. The Roebling construction was used. The steelwork generally was found to be free from rust, though it should be remembered that all the steel had been painted.† Taking all things into consideration it is probably safe to use cinder concrete, if care is taken to provide a proper mixture and careful and thorough workmanship.

7. Erection of Reinforced-Concrete Construction

Forms for Reinforced Concrete. For the erection of reinforced concrete, it is generally necessary, first, to construct MOLDS or CENTERINGS for the columns, floors, etc. Wood is the material used for this purpose. Sheet-metal centering has been used with questionable success and economy. In the selection of the wood for the molds a clean grade of dressed pine should be used. It should be thick enough to resist warping and to resist deflection between supports. It must be coated on its surface with soap or some other satisfactory substance to prevent it from sticking to the concrete. The forms or molds must be erected carefully, the exact size of the proposed parts and must be true in position and direction. For floor-molds, sufficient supports must be provided, not only to carry safely the heavy wet concrete, but also such materials as are liable to be placed on the floors up to the time when the concrete has set sufficiently to carry such loads. The supports must have sufficient rigidity to prevent deflection in the molds. The molds should be so constructed that they can be easily removed when the concrete has set. Sharp corners should by avoided as much as possible, as the wood is liable to stick in them. Where there are reentrant angles in the finished concrete work, the molds should have beveled edges, and at salient edges of the finished concrete work, triangular strips should be nailed in the corners of the molds to produce a beveled edge in the concrete. To prevent the spreading of the sides of the molds, cleats must be provided at sufficient intervals. In the case of beams and girders, these are generally secured by nailing. In the case of columns and piers and often in walls, the cleats are so notched at the ends that long bolts with washers may be used to hold them in place, as shown in Fig. 26. In removing the form the bolts are loosened and the cleats and the rest of the form are ready to use again. In some cases, particularly in the construction of walls, the cleats are held in place by wires running through the mold. These wires become embedded in the concrete and in removing the molds they are cut and the portions in the concrete are allowed to remain. The item of molds and centerings needed in the erection of reinforced-concrete buildings forms a considerable part of the cost of construction. Economy in this respect can be affected in designing and planning by making the floor-panels throughout a building uniform in size and by repeating, as far as possible, such parts as piers, walls, etc. Successful attempts have been made to dispense with the erection of timber molds and centering by casting the various members of the construction on the ground and assembling and erecting them in the same way that wood or steel columns, beams and floors are assembled and erected. (See page 955.)

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* Report No. 9, Insurance Experiment Station, Boston Manufacturers Mutual Fire Insurance Company.

† Trans. Am. Soc. C. E., Vol. L, page 297.

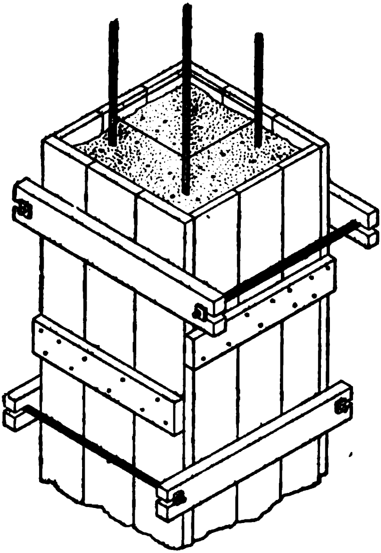

Fig. 26. Wooden Form for Reinforced-concrete Column

Concrete-Mixing. In all reinforced-concrete work the concrete should be MIXED MECHANICALLY. Satisfactory HAND-MIXING can be obtained and might be resorted to in very small jobs, where it would be uneconomical to set up a MACHINE-MIXER. But a much more uniform product will result from machine-mixing, and most types of mixers are mounted on wheels so as to be easily moved to a job. Mechanical mixers are either CONTINUOUS MIXERS or BATCH-MIXERS. In the continuous mixers the materials are fed sometimes by hand and sometimes mechanically, and the concrete issues continuously. The product, however, is not likely to be as uniform as that from the batch-mixer; for when the latter is used it is under constant supervision, whereas when the continuous mixer is used the machine is relied upon. Of the batch-mixers the ROTARY TYPE is the one giving most general satisfaction. Among the good examples of this type may be mentioned the mixers made by the Ransome Concrete Machinery Company, New York City, the McKelvey Concrete Machinery Company, Chicago, Ill., and the T. L. Smith Company, Milwaukee, Wis. They are made in different sizes and with capacities varying from about 10 to 60 cu yd per hour.

Charging Concrete-Mixers. In CHARGING A CONCRETE-MIXER the materials for each batch, carefully measured, are dumped into the mixer and the machinery started. After completing a definite number of revolutions, sufficient to thoroughly mix the ingredients, the concrete is discharged into wheelbarrows or other implements for carrying it to the molds. Each batch should be completed before another is started. To obtain uniform results the number of revolutions in each operation should be the same. It is not well to trust to the judgment of the man in charge of the machine, as to when the mixing has been thorough. He should be instructed to count the revolutions each time. A good plan is to attach a gong which rings when the fixed number of revolutions has been completed. The Code of the National Board of Fire Underwriters calls for "at least twenty-five complete revolutions."

Wet Concrete Mixture. The water is introduced during the process of mixing. The amount, also measured, should be such as to produce what is known as a WET MIXTURE, that is, a mixture that has the consistency of molasses and that will readily flow around and thoroughly incase all steel to be embedded. It may be necessary to vary the amount of water somewhat in placing a large mass of concrete, as in walls, since the water generally works itself upward through the successive layers. For TRANSPORTING THE CONCRETE from the mixer to the mold, steel wheelbarrows, each holding about 2 cu ft, are generally employed. A larger vehicle, holding about 6 cu ft, is made by the Ransome Concrete Machinery Company, Dunellen, N. J., and is found very economical in larger work. When the conditions will permit, concrete may also be distributed by means of CHUTES, but care must be exercised to secure a consistency that will prevent the separation of the coarse aggregate from the mortar. The transporting through the chutes may be done either by gravity or by compressed air.

Pouring the Concrete. Ideal conditions would obtain if the process of PLACING CONCRETE could be CONTINUOUS. This is not generally practicable; so it is important that the point at which work is stopped each day shall be so selected and predetermined that the strength of the construction shall suffer least. In smaller buildings, with floor-areas not exceeding about 3 000 sq ft, it should be possible to so arrange the progress of the work that each entire floor-construction may be placed in one day. In larger work it is necessary to lay off a certain area to be completed within the time of concreting for the day. Work should not leave off across important beams or girders, and the temporary stopping should be arranged for when the work is at the middle of slabs or minor floor-beams. If any parts of floor-slabs are considered in the calculations for the strength of the beams or girders, such parts must be concreted at the same time and must be considered parts of such beams or girders. Joints in columns should be made perpendicular to the axes of the columns, and, as far as possible, at the lower side of girders. Columns should be allowed to set for at least two hours before girders are cast on them, in order to provide for settlement and shrinkage.

Ramming the Concrete. As soon as the concrete has been poured into the molds, and during the process of pouring, it should be continually RAMMED to secure complete filling of the molds, density in the finished product and thorough adhesion to the reinforcement. In wet concrete, such as is used for buildings, this ramming should be done with a flat steel spatula at the end of a handle long enough for comfortable manipulation. For column-work the handle is lengthened out so as to reach to the bottom of the forms. Ordinary spades are sometimes employed, and where no special tools are provided, rammers are sometimes made of 2 by 3-in scantlings, rounded off at the top end to make a handle. Where a smooth surface is desired the spatula-rammer should be used, particularly at the sides of the molds. The honey-combed appearance that results from improper ramming is difficult to remedy afterward without a patched appearance. After having been placed, the concrete should be kept damp by sprinkling it with a hose until it has thoroughly hardened.

Removing the Forms from Reinforced Concrete. No fixed rule can be given for the REMOVAL OF THE FORMS, as the time required for the setting of the concrete varies with the CONSISTENCY of the mixture, the climatic and other conditions. Numerous failures of reinforced concrete have been attributed to the too early removal of forms. In warm weather concrete will set more quickly than in cold. The setting process may be somewhat accelerated after a day or two, by removing the boards forming the sides of beams or girders and leaving in the planks on the underside and the props supporting them. In cold weather it is advisable to warm the building during the setting process by means of salamanders.

The Finish of Concrete Surfaces. The EXPOSED SURFACES of concrete walls are variously treated in attempts to produce a satisfactory appearance. Where no special provision is made, the marks of the lumber used in the forms are almost certain to show, and the lines of demarcation between successive layers are clearly defined. To eliminate these lines, grooves are sometimes purposely formed, by tacking on the sides of the molds triangular or trapezoidal strips that produce sunk joints in the wall, and give it an appearance resembling dressed stone. The successive layers of concrete are in such cases stopped at these lines so that the junction of the two layers is hidden. In some cases the surface is purposely left rough and scratched like the scratch-coat in plastering, and then stuccoed with a neat cement or a rich cement mortar. In this form of finish there is always some danger that the stucco will flake off. The surface, as it comes from the mold, is sometimes hammer-dressed, or rather picked with a special hammer. This hammer has an edge at right-angles to the handle, and the edge is indented and made a series of points. A roughened face is thus produced which in time shows a uniform texture. Another method sometimes employed is to remove the forms as soon as the concrete is sufficiently hard and to rub the surface with a plasterer's float, using fine sand between the float and the wall-surface and plenty of water.

The Finish of Reinforced-Concrete Floors. If the FLOOR-SURFACES are not to be covered with a wooden flooring, a satisfactory finish may be obtained by placing over the surface, before the concrete has had time to set thoroughly, a mortar finish from 1 to 1½ in thick, and troweling to make it smooth and level. If the finish is attempted after the concrete has set, the new and the old work will probably not bond; and there is always danger of flaking off unless the finish itself is of considerable thickness.

Bonding Old and New Concrete. Various fluids and special cementitious materials have been put on the market for the purpose of BONDING NEW AND OLD CONCRETE SURFACES. Whether or not these materials have any special merits, it is now generally accepted that a good rich cement mortar will form sufficient bond between two concrete surfaces, providing the surfaces are clean. If the stress is COMPRESSIVE, the old surface of the concrete should be cleaned and wet, and the surface may be roughened. Joints which are subject to TENSION should be coated with a 1 : 1½ or a 1 : 2 cement mortar before the new concrete is cast. In building walls which must be water-tight, the structure should be MONOLITHIC. If this cannot be done, all dirt and LAITANCE should be removed, and a thin layer of very rich mortar placed.

Inspection of Reinforced-Concrete Work. In all reinforced-concrete work it is of extreme importance to have competent and thorough INSPECTION or SUPERINTENDENCE. The inspector should be familiar with the nature and qualities of the different materials entering into the construction. He should have a knowledge of the underlying principles of the design of reinforced-concrete structures, so that he may realize the importance of carrying out all the details, and particularly of placing the reinforcement exactly as planned. He must be sufficiently alert and active to see that the work of the contractor is progressing properly; so that, for instance, work shall not have to be rebuilt because of error in the forms. The MATERIALS used in the construction, particularly the cement, should be tested as the work progresses. Cubes of the concrete as used should be made up each day and at the end of seven days should be tested for compression, and if necessary again at the age of twenty-eight days. This record will serve as a guide in the acceptance of the work, or in deciding on the necessity for a load-test of the finished structure. Under no circumstances, however, should it replace or serve as an excuse to omit the testing of the cement upon delivery or before acceptance. In addition to the details discussed in this chapter, details which require the attention of the inspector on the work, a few others may be especially mentioned here:

(1) In JOINING NEW WORK with that which is already in, and which has begun to set, the surface must be thoroughly cleaned and wet. In stopping off work, it is good practice where possible, to cast a groove in a surface that is to be joined with another, so that when the work is afterward continued, a tongue-and-groove junction is effected.

(2) All FORMS or MOLDS must be carefully cleaned out just before the concrete is poured. The bottoms of the column-molds must be especially watched for this, as shavings, sawdust and even blocks of wood are liable to fall into them unobserved. It is well to leave off a small piece of one side of the column-mold at the bottom, for purposes of observation and cleaning, and to close it up just before pouring the concrete.

(3) Great care should be excerised in POURING and RAMMING concrete in deep molds, such as for columns, walls, etc., in order to get the molds thoroughly filled at the bottom. In careless work it is not unusual to find in such places very porous concrete, if not large pockets. This is particularly liable to occur when there is considerable reinforcing-steel in the construction.

(4) It should be remembered that concrete shrinks in setting. Hollow spaces at the tops of columns are sometimes found to be due to this cause. As these are not always observable from the outside after the forms are removed, great care should be exercised to guard against them. In pouring, therefore, the molds should be filled to overflowing to the top of deep molds.

(5) The exact position of the reinforcing-steel in the concrete is of such vital importance that particular mention is again made of it here. In loose-bar construction the greatest care must be exercised, in the first place, to have the reinforcement carefully placed, and then to avoid its being shifted out of position by the pouring and the ramming of the concrete.

(6) The REINFORCING-STEEL of those systems in which the advantage of attached stirrups is claimed, is often, for convenience in shipping, sent with the stirrups and laid flat or close to the main bar. It is intended that in placing them on the job the stirrups shall be turned up to their proper positions. Unless carefully inspected, this is liable to be neglected.

(7) The use of a UNIT TYPE of construction (see page 926) practically obviates these two last-mentioned dangers, as the entire reinforcement comes framed together, so that the relative positions of reinforcing-rods or bars cannot be changed; and a glance will show whether the FRAME is complete or has been damaged, and, when placed in the molds, whether it fits or not. In this type of construction the parts are all assembled in the shop from details carefully drawn and checked, in much the same way that steel beams, girders, columns, etc., are fabricated from detailed shop drawings. The work of the inspector or superintendent on the job is very much simplified and hence the liability of error reduced to a minimum.

Load-Tests on Reinforced-Concrete Construction. Load-tests on the finished structure should only be resorted to when, all reasonable care having been exercised to obtain good results, some doubt still exists as to the results. Such tests, however, should not be accepted in place of a strict compliance with the specifications. The architect should know beforehand that his building is correctly designed and safe, and should employ, if necessary, an engineer. The contractor should understand at the outset that the structure has been designed for certain definite purposes and loads, and that the materials and details of construction specified are not to be changed. If the contractor furnishes the design, as he sometimes does, a practice thoroughly condemned, the architect should prescribe in his specifications that such design shall be checked and approved by an engineer appointed by him. A fair load to be applied in a test is one and one-half times the working live load plus one-half the weight of the construction. The stresses in the construction are then equal to one and one-half times the working stresses assumed in designing. Under these conditions there should not be any evidences of distress, and the deflections should not exceed 1/360 the span. The material used for the load-test should be so selected and placed that, when uniformly distributed, as required, it will not arch and assist the compressive strength of the beam or floor. Pig iron is a very good material to use. Bricks are more generally available, but must often be piled very high to get the required load, consuming much time and labor in making the test. When bricks are used they should be set in vertical piles with spaces of 2 or 3 in between them, thus avoiding all arching of the load.

CHAPTER XXV

REINFORCED-CONCRETE FACTORY AND MILL-CONSTRUCTION *

By

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General Principles. The problem involved in the proper design of a reinforced-concrete factory or mill is a far more difficult one than might appear from a superficial examination of the finished structure. This applies to buildings constructed wholly or in part of reinforced concrete, and is due to the fact that maximum economy and efficiency in production can only be obtained when the building is thoroughly adapted to a given occupancy and use. Laymen, and even some architects, look upon the factory as a mere workshop, consisting of four walls with floors and roof. To them it seems an easy matter to locate the structure with reference to the lot or site and then supply it with stairways, elevators and kindred features. This, however, is not the case. Each industry uses processes peculiar to itself. The ease with which these processes can be employed renders the profit-making more or less successful; hence it is necessary to design the building to suit them. However, as the purpose here is to explain what constitutes proper design, as applied to the reinforced-concrete construction of a factory or mill-building, a typical case will serve to make clear the principles involved. This chapter, therefore, deals with such general types as would seem to meet the needs of the greatest number of persons.

Walls, Floors and Roofs. Reinforced-concrete construction may be used for walls and floors, or for floors and roofs only, in the latter case substituting for reinforced-concrete walls some masonry construction such as brick or stone. It is not always advisable to use reinforced concrete for walls. Circumstances very frequently arise in which it is more suitable and economical to use brick walls or piers.

Types of Floor-Construction. The floor-construction may be divided into two general types, the BEAM-AND-SLAB type and the GIRDERLESS type. The beam-and-slab type may in turn be divided into varieties. For example, it may consist of beams supported by columns, with slabs spanning from beam to beam. This arrangement corresponds to simple mill-construction in wood, where the heavy timbers run across the building every 8 or 10 ft. The timbers rest on the wall at one end and on a post at the other, with 3 or 4-in splined planks spanning from beam to beam. The earlier types of reinforced-concrete floors were patterned after this system. The next method was the introduction of girders running from column to column, and the placing of the columns farther apart, say twice the distance common to the former system. The beams are spaced as formerly. This may be called the BEAM-AND-GIRDER system. Still another variation of the beam-and-slab type is the SQUARE-PANEL system, in which the beams are arranged along four sides of a square, a column being placed at each of the four corners. The simplest type of reinforced-concrete construction for factories is some form of the beam-and-slab type with walls and piers of reinforced concrete. The GIRDERLESS type consists of a heavy flat slab supported on columns without the use of beams or girders. The column-head is enlarged to form a large bearing-surface and the columns are spaced so as to form square bays as near as possible. A typical example is worked out at the end of this chapter.

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* For Concrete in general and Mass-Concrete, see Chapter III, pages 240 to 251; for Strength of Concrete without Reinforcement, Chapter V, pages 283 to 287; and for Reinforced-Concrete Construction in General, see Chapter XXIV, the paragraphs of which, corresponding to the same details discussed here, should also be read. See, also, Chapter XXIII, pages 817 and 844.

Columns. In general, as few columns as possible should be used to support a floor, in order that they may not interfere with the placing of machinery, and to insure the most economical use of the floor-space. From the standpoint of economy of construction, however, the use of one column to not more than 400 sq ft of floor-space has been found to meet average requirements. This, of course, does not include construction of a special class. Adopting this, then, as the standard, and bearing in mind the fact that the nearer a building comes to being square in plan the less is the total length of exterior wall required to enclose a given area, it can be assumed that a four-story building 75 ft wide with two rows of columns, making three spans across the building, is a suitable one for many purposes. (See Fig. 1.)

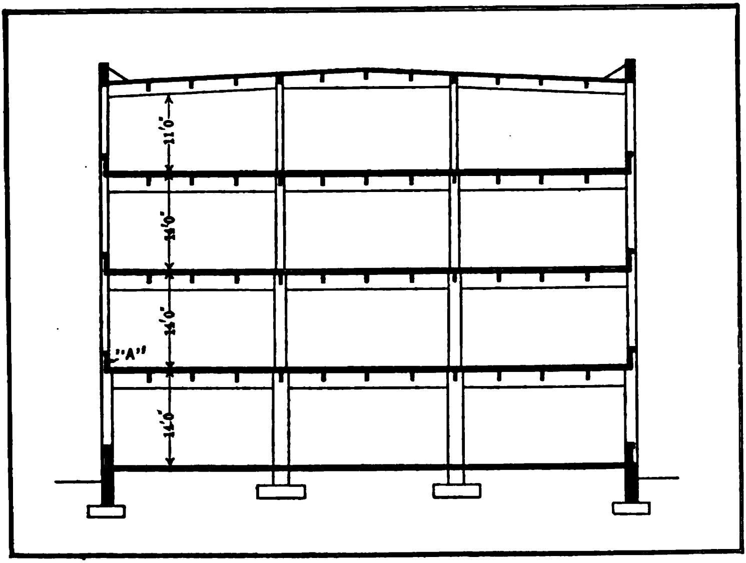


Fig. 1. Cross-section of Building

The Lighting of a Building of this width, with story-heights of 14 ft, top to top, will be ample for most purposes. There are always some parts of the floor-space for which a strong light is not absolutely essential and which can be devoted to aisles and to the storing of material in process of manufacture. The central part of the floor-space is generally used for this purpose, while the machinery is placed nearer the windows where the light is best and where the work is done. It is usually better, therefore, not to have a row of columns along the central axis of the building, unless it is definitely known that such an arrangement will not interfere with the proper use of the floor-space. In a building 75 ft wide, two rows of columns, with spans of 25 ft crosswise of the structure, leave the central part of the floor-space free. Dividing 25 into 400 sq ft, the floor-space allowed for each column, gives 16 ft as the distance between columns, measuring lengthwise of the building.

Bays. The reason in this instance for making the bays rectangular instead of square is that there would be another row of columns if a square bay with a maximum of 20 ft in either direction were assumed. This would be likely to interfere with the judicious placing of machinery and would result in a row of columns along the central axis of the building. This is not considered good practice and should be avoided, except when there is to be only one row of columns in the building.

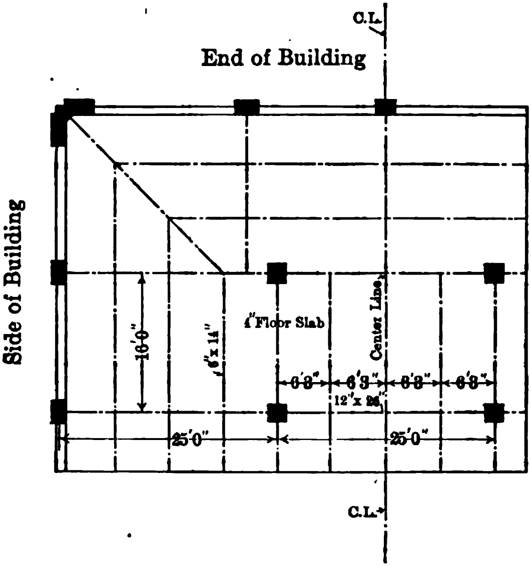


Fig. 2. Part Floor-plan of Building

Example of a Typical Bay. The design of a typical bay of the size mentioned above, 25 by 16 ft, will now be considered. Referring to the illustrations (Figs. 1 and 2), it is seen that the windows occupy the major portion of the wall-area, the sill being set much lower than is usual in brick buildings. This is done to avoid the necessity of the construction of an extra-high spandrel beam, as the lintel over the windows below performs the double function of supporting the floor and forming a curtain wall. The head of the window is carried up to the under side of the floor-slab to simplify the construction of the bottom of the lintel and at the same time permit the window to extend to the ceiling, thereby introducing the light at the highest possible point and allowing the rays to project far into the room. The first beam should be set as far back as possible from the outside wall and windows, so that the angle of the direct rays of light will be as nearly horizontal as practicable. It will be found best to have the main girders run across the building, bearing on the walls and interior columns. These girders may be made as deep as economy of design suggests, as they run parallel with the light-rays and do not interfere with the lighting-scheme. Again, a deep girder is relatively very economical. It also acts as a stiffener across the narrower dimension of the building, thus increasing the resistance to vibration caused by moving machinery.

Design of Floor-System. The various elements of the floor-system consist of columns, girders, beams and slabs. Each of these will be considered separately. A live load of 120 lb per sq ft is ample for light manufacturing purposes. This is the load prescribed by the Building Regulations of the City of Philadelphia.

The Slabs. The spacing of the beams should be governed both by economy of the form-construction and the maximum distance a slab will span while carrying the load safely. It is impractical to make a slab less than 3 in thick. Its dead weight, with concrete weighing 150 lb per cu ft, is 37½ lb per sq ft. Allowing for a 1-in cement finishing-coat, weighing 12½ lb per sq ft, to be laid on the concrete, the total live and dead load which the slab must carry, if it is 3 in thick, is 120 lb + 50 lb = 170 lb per sq ft. Referring to the diagram of the strength of reinforced-concrete slabs (Fig. 18), calculated on a basis of the bending moment equaling $Wl/10$, no curve is found in the 3-in diagram for a span of 6 ft to carry a load of 170 lb per sq ft. Some other slab must be used, therefore, to carry the load.

The Slab-Reinforcement. Referring to the diagram of the 4-in slab in Fig. 18 and following the 6-ft line until it intersects the horizontal line opposite 187½ lb per sq ft, it is found that a 4-in slab, reinforced with 0.195 sq in per lin ft, or two 5/16-in square bars per foot, will carry slightly more than is required for the slab in question. The total load, if the slab is 4 instead of 3 in thick, is 182½ lb per sq ft, and as the 187½-lb line is the nearest to this load, the 4-in slab, reinforced as above, is adopted. The reinforcing-rods are placed 1 in from the bottom of the slab and are of sufficient length to extend over two spans and lap 18 in at each end; the joints are made over the beams and not in the space between them (Fig. 3).

The Beams. The beams running from girder to girder are considered next (Fig. 2). The span, center to center of girders, is 16 ft, and the distance apart 6 ft 3 in, making an area of 100 sq ft carried by each beam. To the load per square foot of 182½ lb must be added the weight of the beam itself, which is assumed to be 15 lb per sq ft of floor-area, making a total of 197½ lb per sq ft to be carried by the beam. This multiplied by the area, 100, equals 19 750 lb. The bending moment caused by this load on the beam, based on the formula $M = Wl/10$, which for partially restrained beams is the one generally used, is 379 200 in-lb. The slab acts with the stem or beam to form a T beam and hence is assumed to be the compression-flange of the girder; and as the slab is 4 in thick, the depth of the beam and the amount of reinforcement can readily be found by referring to Fig. 21, which is the diagram of the strength of T beams having a 4-in slab. The beam-depth in the diagram is the depth of the stem below the slab. In the diagram opposite the center of the space between 350 000 and 400 000 on the left-hand side, the depth of beam that best suits the conditions can be selected, and at the bottom of the diagram is given the total area of steel to be used in the reinforcing-rods. As the depth of a beam from the standpoint of economical use of material should be about one-twelfth the span, a beam 14 or 16 in deep is found to comply with this rule. Below the space where the line representing the 14-in depth of beam intersects the line representing the bending moment, it is seen that the area of steel necessary is 1.8 sq in. Distributing this over four bars, each bar should contain 0.45 sq in. The area of one 11/16-in square bar is 0.47 sq in, and hence a beam 14 in deep, reinforced with four 11/16-in square bars, is used. The width of the beam should be 6 in. A safe rule to determine the width of the beam-stem is to allow 1½ in of concrete fireproofing on the sides of the bars and arrange the bars in two rows, if the beams have three or more bars. The distance in a horizontal direction, center to center of bars, should be 2½ times the diameter, but in any case there should be a 1 in space between the bars horizontally, to permit the concrete to thoroughly incase them.

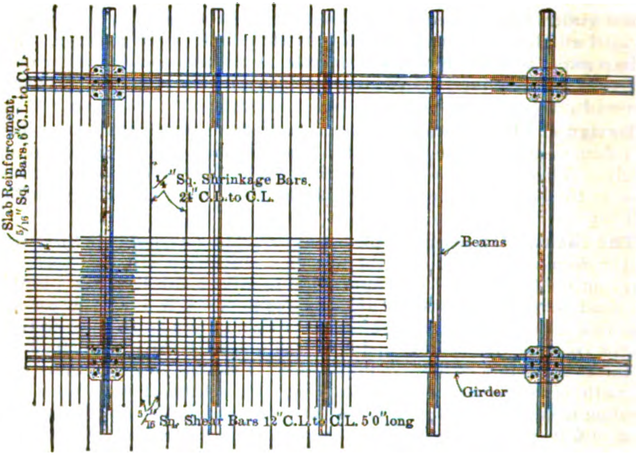

Slab Reinforcement, 5/16" Sq. Bars, 6" C.L. to C.L.
¼" Sq. Shrinkage Bars, 24" C.L. to C.L.
Beams
Girder
5/16 Sq. Shear Bars 12" C.L. to C.L. 5'0" long

Fig. 3. Plan of One Bay, Showing Reinforcing

Arrangement of the Bars. Assuming the bars to be twisted, the distance, center to center, of the two bars is 1⅞ in. Adding to this the diameter of the bars on their diagonal, which is about 1⅛ in, and 3 in for the fireproofing, the sum is 6 in as the width of the beam required in this case (Fig. 6). It would be perfectly practicable to arrange the four bars in one row across the bottom of the beam; but the width would have to be 9¾ in, which is wider than safety requires. An additional objection to the latter arrangement is that it requires more concrete, thus adding to the dead weight of the construction. There should be 2 in of concrete under the bottom of the rods for fireproofing.

Width of Beam. Of course, the width of the beam must be sufficient to permit easy pouring of the concrete. Where wooden-box forms are used, it is not good practice to make beams narrower than 6 in. If the beam is very deep, say 36 in, 6 in would be too narrow a width in which to place the steel and clean out the beam-forms. Practical considerations very frequently govern the width of beams.

Stirrups. There should be in each beam and girder a sufficient number of stirrups, made of at least 5/16-in round bars, bent U-shaped, run under the bottom rods and extended up into the slab with an angle-bend 6 in long. If the beam or girder is short and excessively deep, ⅜-in round or heavier stirrups should be used. The function of stirrups is to unite mechanically the slab to the beam, so that perfect T-beam action will result, and also to assist in the resistance to DIAGONAL TENSION or SHEAR as it is commonly called. The number of stirrups in a beam should be approximately one for each foot of the span, center to center, but the spacing should be as stated below. Thus, a 16-ft beam should have not less than sixteen stirrups, that is, eight on each side of the center line.

Stirrup Spacing for Distributed Loads. For beams with distributed loads, the stirrups are to be spaced so that the minimum distance between them will be 6 in in ordinary cases, and the maximum distance not more than 36 in at the middle of the beam. Each half of the beam should be divided into three parts. The division nearest the support should contain approximately one-half the number of stirrups allotted to one-half the beam, or one-fourth the total number. The middle division should contain one-sixth the total number, and the division next to the center line one-twelfth the total number, as shown in Fig. 4. If the distribution does not work out evenly the spacing which comes the nearest to this should be used.

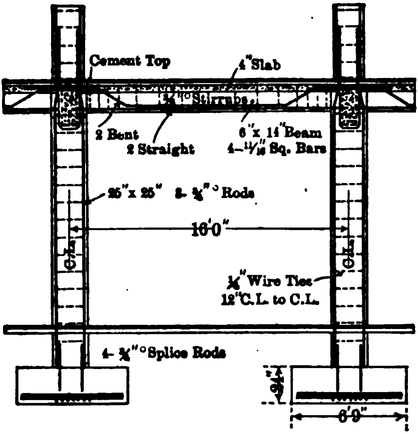


Fig. 4. Section Showing Elevation of Beam

Stirrup-Spacing for Concentrated Loads. When there are concentrated loads the stirrups should be designed to suit the loading, but in any case, for a distance equal to about one-fifth the span from each end, the stirrups should be spaced at least from 4 to 6 in on centers. A good rule to follow is to err on the side of safety and to put in plenty of stirrups, if the determination of the exact number is in doubt, as there should be a sufficient number of them to resist that part of the diagonal tension not safely resisted by the concrete.

The Arrangement of the Bars in the Beam is shown in Fig. 4. The two upper bars are bent upwards near the supports to resist the negative bending moment, which causes tension at the top of the beam near the supports. These bars should extend into the next span at least 30 in to form a tie. As reinforced concrete is of a monolithic character, it is necessary to introduce metal bars wherever the concrete is subjected to tensile stresses. While it is not necessary to provide as much steel at the top of the beam over the supports as the formula for restrained beams gives, if 50% of the area in the beam is carried to the top and over the supports, as shown in the illustration, the beam will be perfectly safe when calculated on a basis of M equaling $Wl/10$. In some cities, beams must be calculated on the basis of $M = Wl/8$. Then it is only necessary to have about one-fourth the number of the bars bent up near the supports. These bars, however, should extend at least 30 in beyond the center of the girder or column to tie the building together.

For Simple Beams with Uniformly Distributed Loads, all rods for 60% of the span should be straight and the truss-rods should bend up from the points so determined.

For Beams or Girders with Concentrated Loads, all bars are run straight as far as the concentrated loads extend. Beyond these loads, towards the supports, one-half the number of bars may be bent up as above.

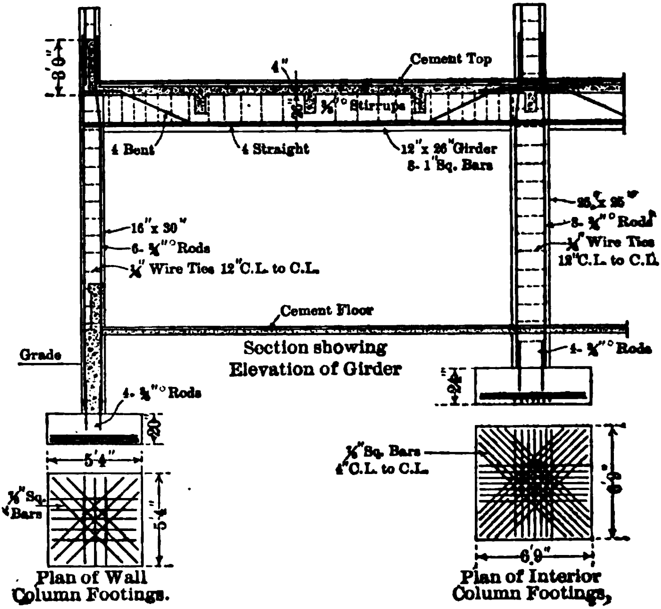


Fig. 5. Elevation of Girder and Plans of Column-Footings

The Girders. The girders running across the building are calculated on the basis of carrying their own weight as a uniformly distributed load and concentrated loads at the points where the beams frame into them. Referring to the illustrations, Figs. 2 and 5, it will be noticed that there are three beams on each side supported by the girder, the fourth beam being carried by the column. Each concentrated load equals the total load on the beams, or 19 750 lb. The weight of the girder can be assumed as 20 lb per sq ft of area carried, 20 × 400 = 8 000 lb. This acts as a distributed load. One-half the span of 25 ft, or 12 ft

6 in, is 150 in. The bending moment at the middle of the girder from the concentrated and distributed loads is

$$M = (29\,625 \times 150) - (19\,750 \times 75) + \frac{8\,000 \times 300}{8} = 3\,262\,500 \text{ in-lb}$$

Reinforcing-Bars and Width of Girder. Referring again to Fig. 21, in the center of the space opposite 3 300 000 and 3 250 000, the line of a 26-in deep beam is shown to intersect the vertical line representing 8 sq in of steel. Hence eight 1-in square bars arranged in two horizontal rows are used. The width of girder must be 12 in in order to have the proper distance between the bars and at the same time have 1½ in of concrete fireproofing on the sides (Fig. 7).

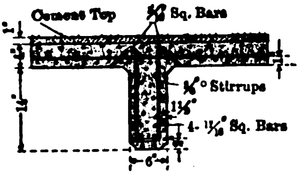


Fig. 6. Cross-section of Beam

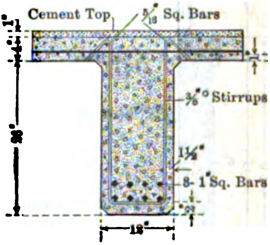


Fig. 7. Cross-section of Girder

The Width of the Slab on each Side of the Girder is found by multiplying the area of the steel by the number on the line of the 26-in beam, which is 8.7. This constant is used for any area of steel when the beam is 26 in deep; the constants on the other beams are to be likewise used for their respective beams. In the case of this girder, the width of the T beam is 8.7 × 8 = 69.6 in, or 34.8 in on each side of the middle of the girder. The portion of the slab used at the T flange of the girder or beam should not exceed on each side of the beam ten times the slab-thickness, nor one-third the span. In the case now being considered, the limit is not exceeded. Similarly the width of the slab acting as the compression-flange of the 14-in beam is 2¼ × 12 = 27 in, twelve being the constant for 14-in beams.

The Lintels. The next member to design is the lintel, or spandrel beam over the window (Figs. 2, 5 and 8). This should be, for practical considerations, 6 in thick. As the bottom of the lintel is flush with the bottom of the slab, the slab-rods must run into the lintel over the top of the lintel-rods. In addition to the stirrups in the lintel there should be bars of the same size as the stirrup-bars, spaced about 12 in apart and bent at right-angles, one leg extending up 12 in into the lintel and the other 18 in out into the slab; or else the slab-bars should be bent up, extending into the lintel 12 in. These make a perfect tie between the slab and lintel. The bottom of the lintel should be made with a rebate to receive the head of the window-frame. The load carried by the lintel is the load from the slab, the weight of the window and the dead weight of the lintel. The load from the floor-slab is 13½ ft (the clear span of the lintel) × 3 ft = 40½ sq ft × 182½ lb, the load per square foot on the floor-slab, or a total load from the floor-slab of 7 371 lb. The total height of the lintel to the window-sill is 3 ft. As it is 6 in thick this makes the weight per lin ft 75 × 3 = 225 lb, the total weight of the lintel being 225 × 13½ = 3 038 lb. For the window 10 lb per sq ft is allowed. The area being 13½ × 11 ft, the height of the window, or in even figures 149 sq ft, the weight is 149 × 10 lb = 1 490 lb. The total load on the lintel, then, is 7 371 + 3 038 + 1 490 = 11 899 lb.

The Lintels Figured as Rectangular Beams. By referring to the paragraph Explanation of Diagrams and Formulas, page 992, for the strength of rectangular beams, it is seen that when reinforced with 0.5% of steel the safe load carried by the beam is $W = wl = 48 \frac{bd^2}{l}$. Therefore, a 6 by 30-in beam will carry $48 \frac{6 \times 27^2}{13.5}$ = 15 552 lb. The depth 27 is used, as it is taken to the center of action of the steel. This is more than the load upon the lintel and hence the lintel is safe. A reinforcement of 0.5% equals 0.005 of 162 sq in, the area of the concrete, or 0.81 sq in; and if two bars are used, each must be of 0.4-sq-in sectional area. Two ⅝-in square bars, each having an area of 0.39 sq in, will be used. These should be located 2 in from the bottom, and run straight. There should be two ⅜-in square bars near the top of the lintel, running the full length, and fourteen 5/16-in stirrups, as shown in the illustration (Fig. 8). The top bars take the place of bent bars and also prevent vertical cracks which are liable to occur from shrinkage near the middle of the lintel.

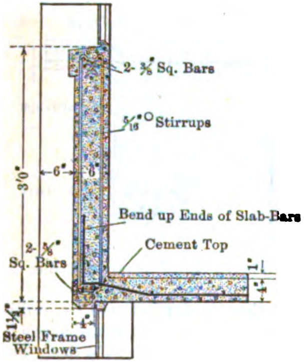


Fig. 8. Vertical Section, Showing Lintel

The Columns. Having established the design of the floor-system, the dimensions of the wall piers, interior columns and footings are next determined. A schedule of the loads on the interior columns will now be made.

The Load from the Roof. Assuming a live roof load of 30 lb per sq ft and 10 lb additional for accidental load from overhead shafting, the total live load is 40 lb per sq ft. The weight of the slab, if 3 in thick, which is as thick as is usually required, is 37½ lb per sq ft. The beams and girders weigh another 30 lb per sq ft (12 plus 18), making a total dead load of 70 lb, including the covering. Adding the live load of 40 lb to this gives 110 lb per sq ft as the total dead and live load.

The Load on the Fourth-Story Column, then, is 400 times 110 lb or 44 000 lb, not counting the weight of the column itself, as for practical reasons no column should be made less than 10 by 10 in in cross-section. Allowing, therefore, 500 lb per sq in unit stress on the concrete for columns, which is the unit stress allowed by the Philadelphia Building Bureau in reinforced-concrete columns with vertical reinforcement, the carrying capacity of a 10 by 10-in column is 100 times 500, or 50 000 lb, which is in excess of the load to be carried. (See Table I.)

The Load on the Third-Story Column is the load from the one above of 44 000 lb plus the load of one bay of the fourth floor, which is 217 lb × 400 = 86 800 lb, being the total dead and live load; or 86 800 + 44 000 = 130 800 lb, to which must be added the weight of the column, which is assumed to be 300 lb per lin ft. As it is about 11 ft long in the clear, the weight of the column is 3 300 lb, which, added to 130 800 lb, equals 134 100 lb. The area of the cross-section of a 16 by 16-in column is 256 sq in, which, at 500 lb per sq in, gives 128 000 lb as the safe carrying capacity. While this is 6 100 lb less than the load to be carried, it is within 4½% of the required strength. It is customary to make a reduction of the load to be carried on the columns in proportion to the amount of floor-area carried, the reduction being greater as the floor-area increases. Usually a 5% reduction of the LIVE LOAD per floor, with a maximum not exceeding 50% on the bottom columns for high buildings, is considered good practice.

Table I. Strength of Reinforced-Concrete Columns

Columns with vertical bars. Safe working stress on concrete 500 lb per sq in, the strength of the rods being neglected in figuring the columns

Size	Area	Total safe loads in lb	Size	Area	Total safe loads in lb
8× 8	64	32 000	18×18	324	162 000
9× 9	81	40 500	19×19	361	180 500
10×10	100	50 000	20×20	400	200 000
11×11	121	60 500	21×21	441	220 500
12×12	144	72 000	22×22	484	242 000
13×13	169	84 500	23×23	529	264 500
14×14	196	98 000	24×24	576	288 000
15×15	225	112 500	25×25	625	312 500
16×16	256	128 000	26×26	676	338 000
17×17	289	144 500	27×27	729	364 500

The Load on the Second-Story Column is 134 100 lb plus the load from the third floor and the weight of the columns, all of which is assumed as being equal to the fourth-floor load and weight of column, or 90 100 lb, making the load 224,200 lb. A 21 by 21-in column will carry 441 times 500 lb per sq in, or 220 500 lb.

The Load on the First-Story Column is 224 200 lb plus the second-floor load of 86 800 lb and the weight of the column, which, at 600 lb per lin ft, is 6 600 lb, or a total of 317 600 lb. A 25 by 25-in column will carry 625 times 500 lb per sq in, or 312 500 lb, which is almost the required strength. The column-schedule then becomes

For the first story	25 × 25 in in cross-section.
For the second story	21 × 21 in in cross-section.
For the third story	16 × 16 in in cross-section.
For the fourth story	10 × 10 in in cross-section.

The Reinforcement in the Columns should consist of eight ¾-in round rods in the two lower and four in the two upper stories, with ties of ¼-in round wire every 12 in, as shown in Fig. 9. It is the custom to use the same unit stress on reinforced-concrete columns up to 15 diameters, and not to use columns whose length exceeds 15 diameters.

The Wall Piers. The schedule of all the wall piers is made by the method used for the interior columns. The details of the calculations are not gone into here, results only being given. The size of the wall piers is determined by the architectural effect desired and by practical considerations. Assuming 30 in as the smallest face-dimension of the piers, this size should be carried up the full height of the building (Fig. 10). The reveal of the piers to the spandrels is 6 in, and the spandrels should line up flush with the inside of the piers if by so doing they are not made extremely thick. Reinforced-concrete spandrels may be 6 in thick and give good results. It is not wise to make them thinner than this, on account of the difficulty of constructing them. It is to be noticed, also, that the lintels or spandrel beams act as ties from one wall pier to another. They should be of sufficient strength not only to carry the vertical loads coming upon them, but also to act as braces to take up any vibration in the direction of the length of the building; just as the deep cross-girders resist the vibration in the direction of the width of the building. Very frequently the main girders are run lengthwise of the building, that is, spanning the shortest distance, while the beams run across the building. Sometimes this will make the construction more economical; but the reduced height of the windows in the side walls due to the necessity of lowering the window-heads to permit the beams to be carried by a lintel running over them, is objectionable, as the light from the windows in this position is not as effective as when they are run up to the under side of the floor-slab or ceiling.

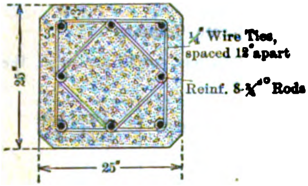


Fig. 9. Interior Column

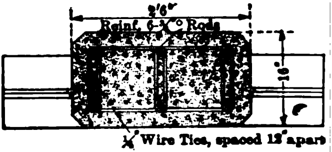


Fig. 10. First-story Wall Pier

The wall-pier schedule, figured on the assumption above, becomes

For the first story 30 × 16 in in cross-section.
For the second story 30 × 12 in in cross-section.
For the third story 30 × 12 in in cross-section.
For the fourth story 30 × 12 in in cross-section.

It will be noticed that the piers in the three upper stories are of the same dimensions. This is due to practical requirements, the reveal of the pier to the spandrel being 6 in and the minimum spandrel-thickness 6 in. The pier must be 12 in in order to be flush on the inside of the building.

Spread Foundations. The use of reinforced concrete for the footings of a building results in economical construction when it is necessary to project the base or footing more than is customary or permissible without reinforcement of some kind. In order to give sufficient information for the design of the foundations for the building under discussion in this chapter, as well as for other types of construction met with in practice, several examples are worked out in the following pages. The simplest form of reinforced concrete SPREAD FOOTING is shown in Fig. 5 and consists in considering the overhanging portions of the footings as CANTILEVER BEAMS. The footings of the interior columns are designed as explained in the following paragraphs.

The Load on the Footing. The load on the footing is assumed to be 317 000 lb and the safe bearing value of the soil 7 000 lb per sq ft. This requires a spread footing of 317 000 lb divided by 7 000, or 45 sq ft. The side of the square which comes the nearest to this area is 6 ft 9 in and its area is 45.5 sq ft.

The Design of the Footing. The footing is designed as follows: As each square foot of footing sustains an upward pressure of 7 000 lb, the overhanging portion is treated as a CANTILEVER BEAM UNIFORMLY LOADED. The load directly under the column proper causes no bending, and this load is neglected in finding the bending moment. The rods should be run as shown in Fig. 5, some diagonally and some at right-angles to the sides, the first layer located 3 in from the bottom of the footing. The size of the rods on the diagonal is now to be determined and the others are to be made the same size. The longest length of the 1-ft-wide diagonal cantilever is 4 ft, measured from the center of the column to the intersection of the 1-ft-wide strip with the side of the square. The bending moment on this strip is equal to the load on an area, outside of the column, 3 ft long and 1 ft wide, or (3 × 7 000 = 21 000 lb) × 30 in = 630 000 in-lb, 30 in being the distance from the axis of the column to the center of gravity of the area.

Assuming the footing to be 24 in thick over-all, the CENTER OF ACTION of the steel will be about 5 in up from the bottom, making an EFFECTIVE DEPTH of 19 in. As the lever-arm for the steel is nine-tenths of the depth when the stress in the concrete is 600 lb per sq in, the resisting moment of the steel per square inch when stressed to 16 000 lb is 16 000 × 0.9 = 14 400 lb. As the bending moment is 630 000 in-lb, the number of square inches of steel necessary per foot in width is $\frac{630\,000}{14\,400 \times 19} = 2.34$ sq in. This formula is for rectangular beams when the bending moment is given. (See Formula (1), page 992.) Spacing the rods 4 in on centers requires three rods per foot, each requiring a cross-section area of 0.78 sq in. As a ⅞-in square bar has a section-area of 0.76 sq in, this size will be used. The bars in the layers at right-angles to the side are made the same size and spaced as above, so as to avoid complications in the construction of the footing. It would be possible to space these farther apart, but this refinement is unnecessary. (See Fig. 5.)

When the load on a column is such as to require a footing more than 2 ft thick, it is customary to slope the top of the footing, thus saving in the quantity of concrete, or else to provide a concrete PLINTH or BLOCK at the bottom of the column on top of the footing so as to reduce the projection of the footing and thereby make a more economical design. If steel column-cores or hooped columns with vertical reinforcements are used, a metal base-plate is necessary on top of the footing of sufficient size to limit the direct stress on the footing to 500 lb per sq in.

The Foundations for the Outside Walls may be designed in either of two ways: first, as CONTINUOUS FOOTINGS such as are usual in ordinary construction, and secondly, as ISOLATED PIERS under the wall columns. In the first case it is necessary to reinforce the footings and foundation-walls, as these act as CONTINUOUS BEAMS loaded at each column, and must be made strong enough to distribute the loads from the columns uniformly over the entire length of the footings. The foundation-walls and footings can be treated as INVERTED CONTINUOUS BEAMS (Fig. 11), the upward reaction of the earth being considered a uniformly distributed load on the beams, and the wall piers being considered as columns supporting the beams, with the load on each pier as equal to the load on such supports. Fig. 12 shows the arrangement of the reinforcing-rods. Their size is determined as explained in the following paragraph.

Since the load per running foot of the foundation is equal to the load from a pier divided by the distance apart of the piers, omitting the weight of the spandrel below the first-story windows, this load per running foot = 191 140 lb, the load from the pier ÷ 16 ft = 11 946 lb. As great refinements in calculations are not required in footing-work of this kind, because of the advisability of large factors of safety for this part of the building and the small reduction in cost due to any such refinement, the strength of this continuous beam is calculated by the formula

$M = Wl/8$, assuming l to be the clear distance between the piers, or, in this case, 13 ft 6 in (Fig. 12). Therefore, $W = 13\frac{1}{2} \times 11\,946 = 161\,271$ lb and the bending moment $M = (161\,271 \times 162)/8 = 3\,265\,737$ in lb. As the size of the beam is determined by the thickness of the wall and its depth, all that is necessary is to

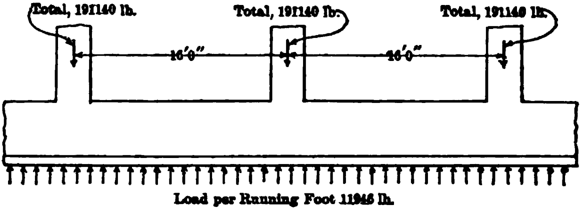


Fig. 11. Foundation-wall an Inverted Continuous Beam

find the AREA OF THE STEEL by referring to Formula (1), page 992, which gives $A = \dfrac{M}{14\,400\,d}$, or $A = \dfrac{3\,265\,737}{14\,400 \times 52} = 4.3$ sq in, distributed in eight ¾-in square bars with a total area of cross-section of 4.48 in. These are in two layers, four running straight and four bent as shown in Fig. 12. The top layer is placed 2 in

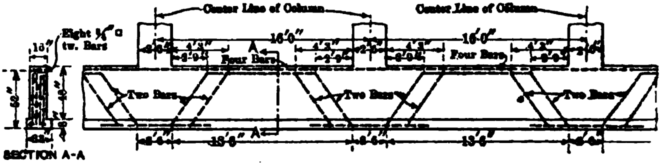


Fig. 12. Arrangement of Rods in Foundation-wall

from the top of the concrete. The footing is made wider than the wall to keep the load on the soil within the safe limit of 7 000 lb per sq ft. The WIDTH is determined as follows. As the column-spacing is 16 ft, center to center, 7 000 × 16 = 112 000 lb, the load the foundation 1 ft wide and 16 ft long will carry; hence to carry 212 120 lb (the load from the pier, plus 20 980 lb, the weight of the spandrel and footing), 212 120 is divided by 112 000, giving 1.9 ft for the width of the footing, or 1 ft 11 in, nearly.

Isolated Piers. In the second case, a SPREAD FOOTING is provided under each wall column in the same manner as under the interior columns, but designed for the lighter load. The foundation or spandrel wall is not made as heavy as in the first case, as it carries no load except its own weight and the wall or window above it. (See Fig. 5.) WHERE THE SOIL IS BAD and of low carrying capacity, the PIER-METHOD is found to make an economical foundation, especially where it is necessary to use piling under the building, as the piles can be grouped under the piers and columns, and capped with reinforced concrete. The foundation or spandrel walls, properly reinforced, can be carried from pile-cap to pile-cap, as they do not depend on the soil directly under them to sustain the load.

Combined Column-Footings. It very frequently happens that a building is to be built adjacent to and abutting on a property-line, and as the foundations must not encroach upon the adjacent property the columns must be built on the edge of the footings. In order to secure uniform soil-pressure it is often necessary to combine an interior with an exterior column-footing so as to distribute the load uniformly from the two columns to the soil below. Sometimes it is necessary to combine the footings of more than two columns. Fig. 13 shows the details of an actual construction and may be regarded as typical. The loads from the columns in this case are almost identical, one being 700 000 lb and the other 790 000 lb, so that the shape of the combined footing in plan can be **RECTANGULAR**, as the center of gravity of the two loads is practically at the middle of the span. When one column is more heavily loaded than the other, the center of gravity of the loads is no longer at the middle of the span, but nearer one column; hence it is necessary to make the combined footing **TRAPEZOIDAL** in plan so that the center of gravity of the trapezoid will coincide with the line of action of the resultant of the loads from the columns.

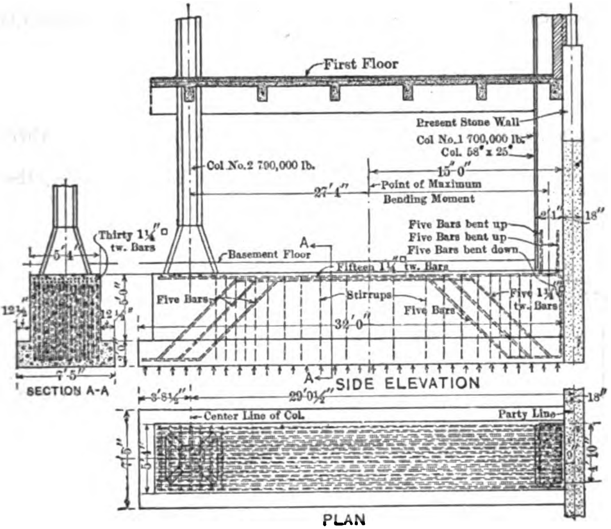


Fig. 13. Combined Column-footing

The following calculations for the design of this footing are the actual ones made, and serve as a good example of the necessity of assuming certain sizes at the start which the final calculations may change. The **WIDTH OF THE FOUNDATION** being determined by the **LOAD-LIMIT** on the soil, which in this case is not to exceed 7 000 lb per sq ft, and the size of the column-base being known, we may proceed to determine the **BENDING MOMENT** in the footing. We assume an area of 7 × 32 ft = 224 sq ft, giving a soil-pressure of 1 490 000 lb ÷ 224 sq ft = 6 650 lb per sq ft, or 6 650 × 7 = 46 550 lb per running foot. The point of maximum bending moment is where the vertical shear is zero and is determined by the equation 700 000/46 550 = 15 ft. Also, 15 ft − 1.05 ft = 13.95 ft. Hence

$$M_{\max} = [(700\,000 \times 13.95) = 9\,765\,000 \text{ ft lb}] - [(46\,550 \times 15 \times 7\tfrac{1}{2}) = 5\,236\,875 \text{ ft lb}] = (4\,528\,125 \times 12) = 54\,337\,500 \text{ in lb}$$

The 1.05 ft is one-half the column-width, 2 ft 1 in.

We may determine the DEPTH OF THE FOUNDATION by assuming a cross-sectional area of the reinforcing-steel and solving in Formula (1), page 992, for the depth. For practical considerations square bars larger than 1¼ in square should not be used; hence by trial we find that thirty 1¼-in square bars with a section-area of 46.8 sq in, placed in two rows in the top part of the foundation, will space out just right for a width of beam of 64 in, which is 6 in wider than the 58-in dimension of Column No. 1. The depth then by this formula is

$$d = \frac{M}{14\,400\,A}, \text{ or } d = \frac{54\,337\,500}{14\,400 \times 46.8} = 80 \text{ in},$$

the depth from the center of the steel to the bottom of the concrete. Therefore, 80 + 4 = 84 in, the total depth of the foundation.

The WIDTH OF THE FOOTING AT THE BASE must be increased to keep the unit stress on the concrete in compression within the allowable stress, 600 lb per sq in. As the total horizontal compression in the beam must equal the total tension in order to satisfy the requirements for equilibrium, we have total tension = 16 000 lb per sq in × 46.8 sq in = 748 800 lb. From Table V, page 930, Chapter XXIV, the depth of the AREA OF THE CONCRETE IN COMPRESSION is equal to 0.31 × 80 = 24.8 in. The width is found by dividing 748 800 by (300 × 24.8 = 8 440) the resistance of the concrete per inch in width of the beam, which gives 89 in for the width of the concrete at the bottom of the footing, 300 lb being the average unit stress on the area of the concrete in compression, since the stress actually

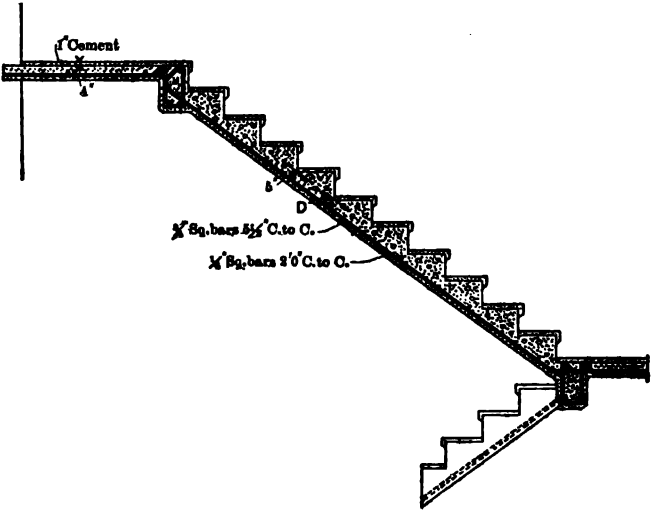


Fig. 14. Section through Flight of Reinforced-concrete Stairs

varies from 600 lb on the outside upper surface of the concrete to zero at the neutral axis.

The Stairs. The ease with which stairs can be built of reinforced concrete has led to its general adoption for this purpose in reinforced-concrete buildings. As stairs are generally enclosed in stair-towers or shafts, their construction usually takes the form of the double run or half-pace type (Fig. 14). This reduces the length of the run so that the construction does not become too heavy. Each run of stairs is considered as an inclined beam and is so figured, being supported at the top and bottom on the stair-landing header-beam. The rods are placed near the bottom of the slab and run continuously from top to bottom. The depth of the beam is considered to be equal to the distance from the soffit of the stairs to the corner formed by the tread and rise, as shown by the letter *D* in Fig. 14. The landings are figured the same as floor-slabs. Their supporting beams are calculated to carry the load coming upon them from the landing and from the upper stair-run, which starts from the landing-beam. The lower stair-run, coming up under the landing-beam, acts as an inclined strut and supports one-half of this beam. Hence the span of the landing-beam is equal to the distance from the wall of the stair-tower or shaft to the inside edge of the stair-run from below, and is a little more than one-half the width of the stair-shaft. This makes the design of reinforced-concrete stairs very economical. (See page 905.)

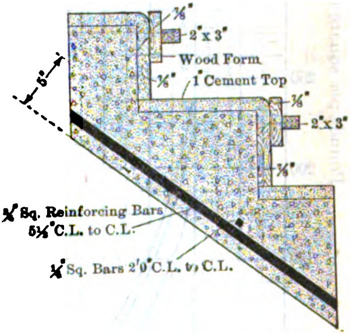
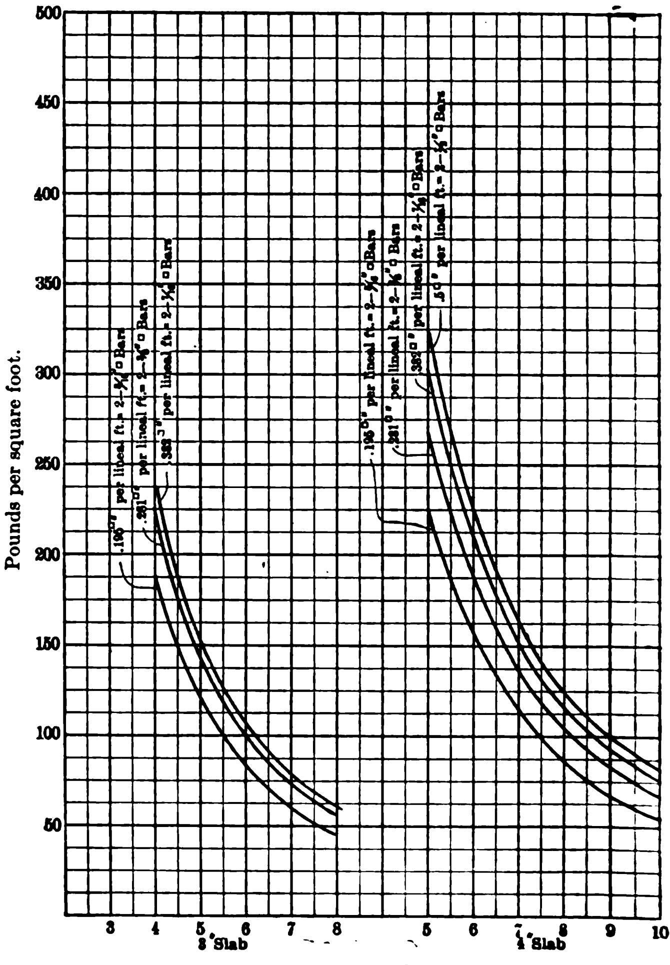


Fig. 15. Detail of Reinforced-concrete Steps

Example in Stair-Design. It is assumed that each of the runs is 4 ft wide, and that the maximum live load that can come upon the stairs in a crush is one person, weighing 150 lb, for each 2 ft of step, or 75 lb per lin ft of step. With steps 4 ft wide the live load is 300 lb per step or, for ten steps, 10 times 300 or 3 000 lb per run for the live load. The dead load is approximately 400 lb per step, or 4 000 lb for the run. This makes a total load on the inclined beam of 7 000 lb. The span in calculating inclined beams is taken at the horizontal distance between supports; hence in our example the span is 8 ft 9 in. The maximum bending moment, therefore, is $\frac{7\,000 \times 105}{10} = 73\,500$ in-lb, figuring the run as partially restrained. Assuming the thickness of the slab to be 5 in, the effective depth is 4 in, and the area of steel per foot of width for this depth and bending moment as above is $\frac{73\,500}{4 \times 14\,400} = 1.3$ sq in, approximately. If ¾-in square bars are used having a section area of 0.56 sq in, they should be spaced 5½ in apart. It is customary, also, to run ¼-in square bars, spaced 2 ft on centers, at right-angles to the main rods, as shrinkage-bars. It is also customary to run the rods which reinforce the run of the stairs, from the wall-edge of platform at the top to the wall-edge at the bottom, bending the rods to make them come in the bottom of the landing-slabs and act as their reinforcement. This makes a very rigid and economical construction. The treads should be finished with a 1-in top surface of cement and grits; and the risers can be brushed smooth



Span of feet $M = \frac{Wl}{8}$

Fig. 16. Diagram for Strength of Reinforced-concrete Slabs

when their forms are removed. The riser-forms should be removed as soon as the concrete has set sufficiently to hold its shape, so that the top of each step or tread can be incorporated into the concrete. Top-surfacing applied after the concrete has set hard is very likely to become loose and break off. A very good form of step is shown in the detail, Fig. 15. When the stair-runs are very long and cannot be carried, at bottom and top where the steps start and stop, on header beams, a reinforced-concrete beam, forming an outside string, should be used and the stair-reinforcement run parallel with the risers from the string to the wall. The beam forming the string can be made any convenient height and width, and reinforced to suit the load.

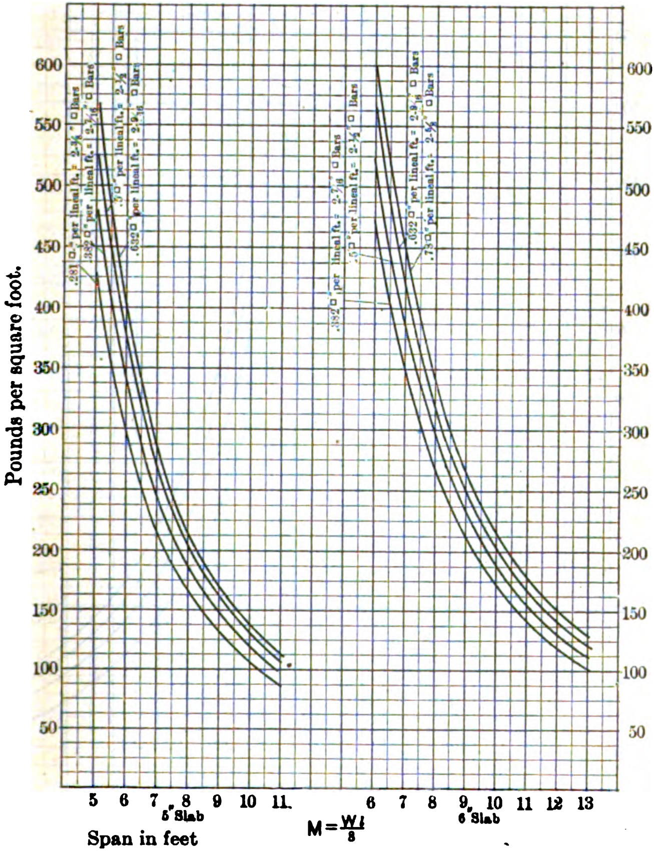


Fig. 17. Diagram for Strength of Reinforced-concrete Slabs

Explanation of Diagrams and Formulas. Figs. 16, 17, 18 and 19 are to be used in designing reinforced-concrete slabs. These diagrams are plotted from calculations made in accordance with the 1907 Regulations of the Philadelphia Bureau of Building Inspection, which permit a unit compressive stress of 600 lb per sq in in the concrete and a tension of 16 000 lb per sq in in the steel, with a ratio of the moduli of elasticity of steel to concrete equal to 12.

These unit stresses give a factor of safety of 4, based on the ultimate strengths of the materials and have been found to give results in practice which are consistent with safety and economical construction, the concrete being a 1 : 2 : 4

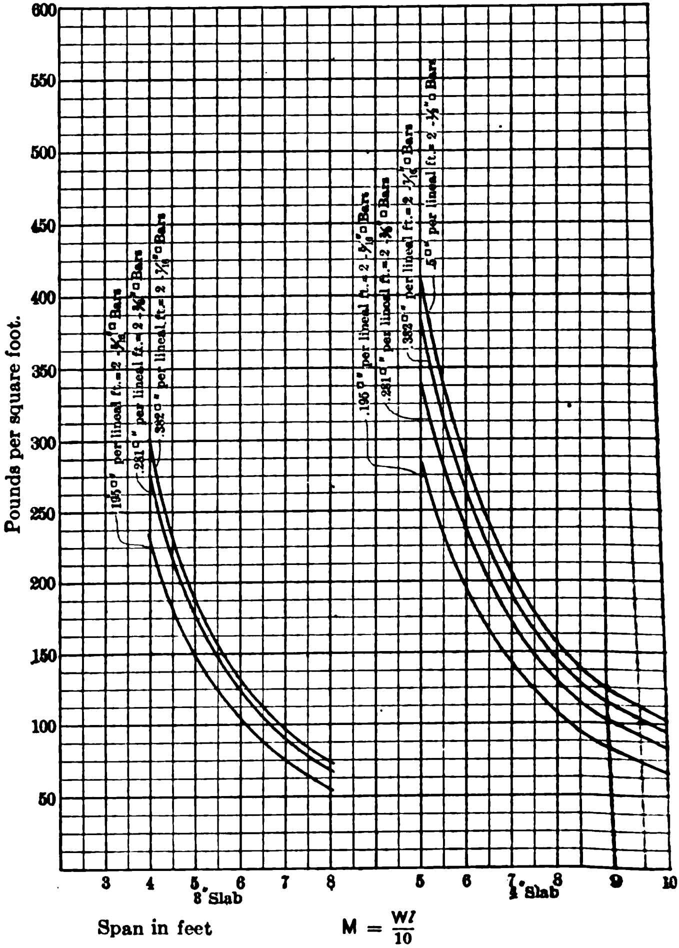


Fig. 18. Diagram for Strength of Reinforced-concrete Slabs

mixture and the aggregate a good hard stone. The building laws of vari cities usually specify the allowable unit stresses to be used in designing reinforc concrete structures, and when they differ from those used in the calculati corrections will have to be made in the results obtained when using the diagrams. However, when one has the option of choosing his own method of calculating, the diagrams may be used with absolute safety.

Figs. 20, 21, 22 and 23 are diagrams of the strength of T beams. The calculations in these diagrams are based on the same unit stresses as above; but the effective depth of the beam is taken as the distance from the center of action of the steel to the center of the concrete slab and not to a point one-third the thickness of the slab from the top. It is more nearly correct to assume the center of gravity of the compressive forces, at the center of the slab, since in most cases in practice the neutral axis of the T beams falls below the lower surface of the slab.

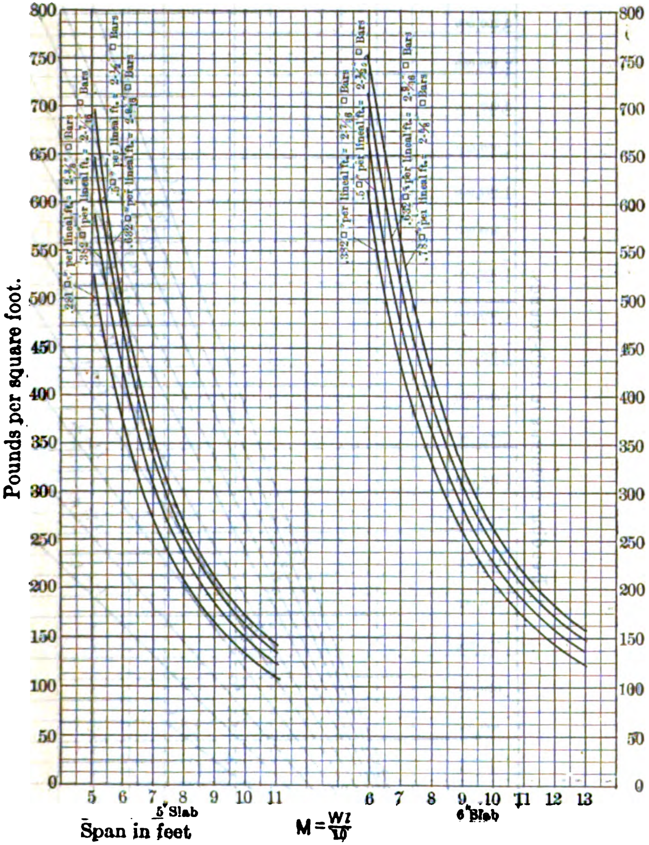


Fig. 19. Diagram for Strength of Reinforced-concrete Slabs

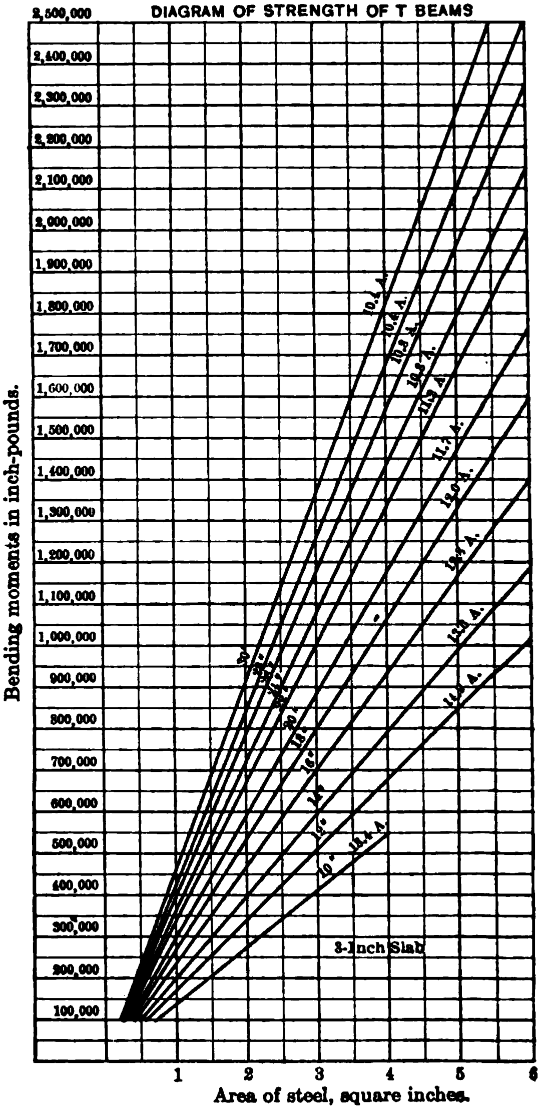


Fig. 20. Diagram for Strength of T Beams

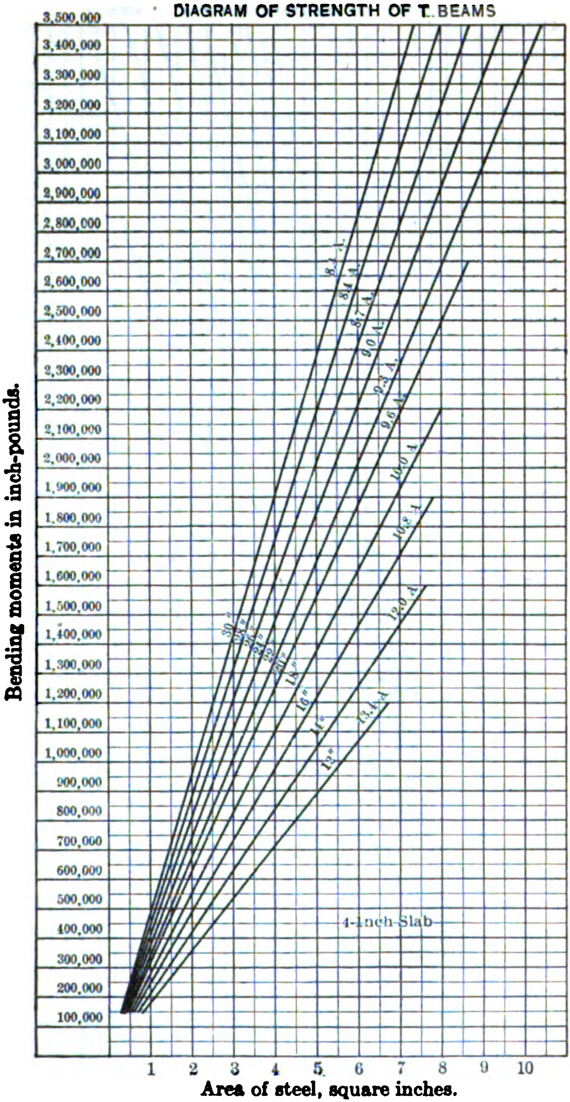


Fig. 21. Diagram for Strength of T Beams

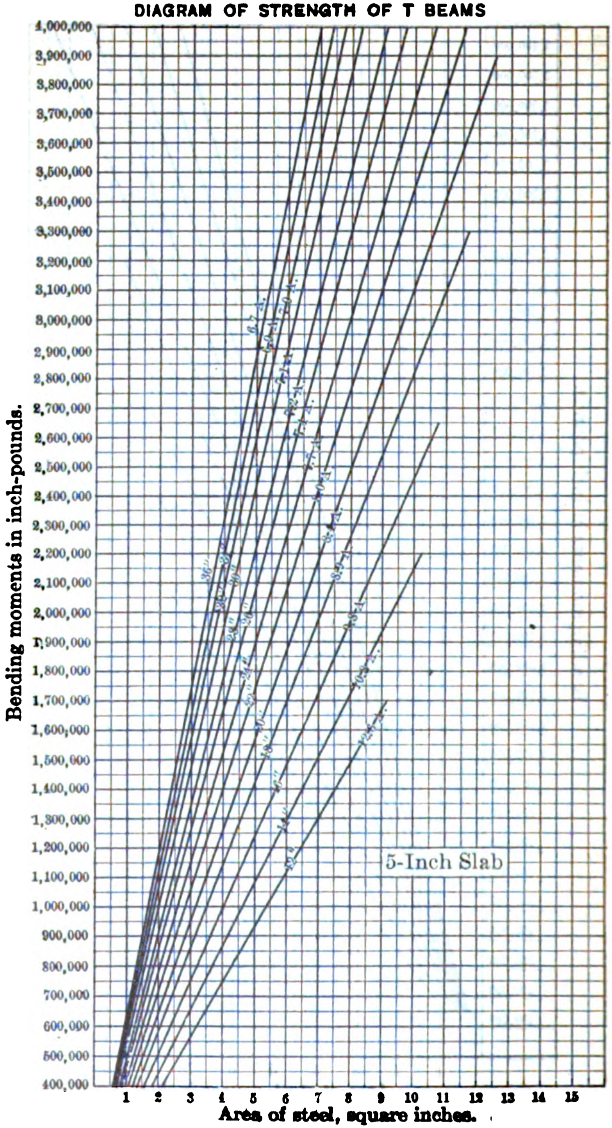


Fig. 22. Diagram for Strength of T Beams

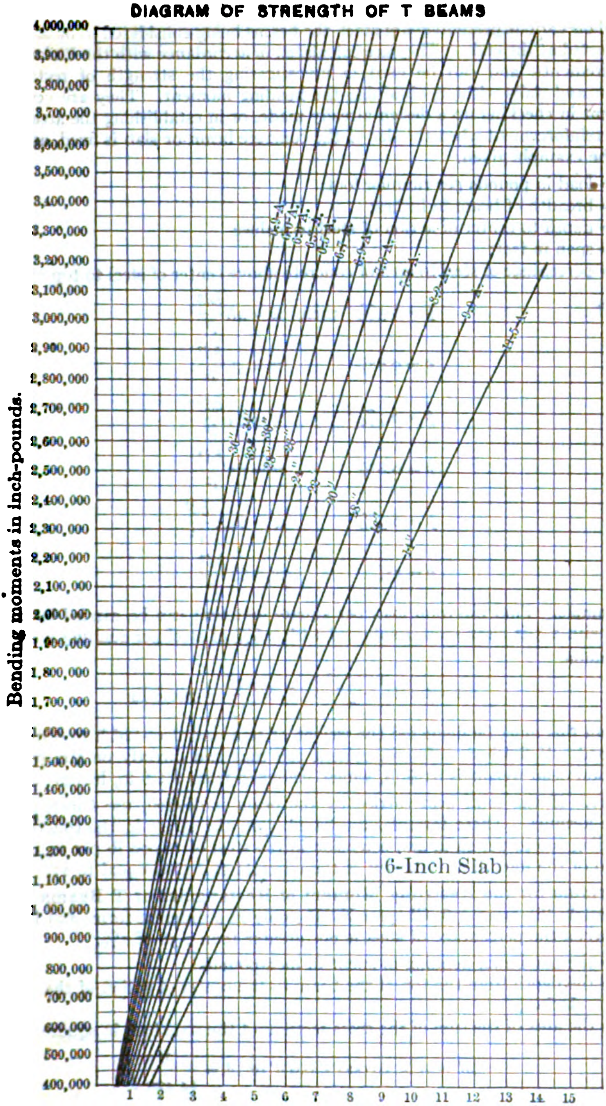


Fig. 23. Diagram for Strength of T Beams

The following formulas are for the strength of rectangular beams or slabs, based on various percentages of steel, the beams being considered to be as simply supported at the ends. They are calculated in accordance with the Philadelphia requirements, and can be used in investigating the strength of rectangular beams and slabs without obtaining the bending moment. They are very convenient in checking up a design already made, or in establishing the area of the steel reinforcement when the size of the concrete beam or slab is fixed, as shown by the example given.

w = load in pounds per running foot;
b = breadth of beam in inches;
d = depth to center of action of steel in inches;
l = span in feet;
p = percentage of steel to area of concrete above center of steel to top of beam.

When $p = 0.5\%$ then $w = 48\dfrac{bd^2}{l^2}$

$p = 0.6\%$ $w = 56\dfrac{bd^2}{l^2}$

$p = 0.7\%$ $w = 59\dfrac{bd^2}{l^2}$

$p = 0.8\%$ $w = 62\dfrac{bd^2}{l^2}$

$p = 0.9\%$ $w = 64.5\dfrac{bd^2}{l^2}$

$p = 1\%$ $w = 67\dfrac{bd^2}{l^2}$

Example. Find the total load per square foot that can be carried by a 4-in slab, with a 5-ft clear span, reinforced with 0.8% of steel per running foot.

Solution.

$$w = 62 \times \frac{12 \times 3^2}{5^2} = 62 \times \frac{108}{25} = 266.6 \text{ lb}$$

From this must be deducted the weight of slab and floor-finish to obtain the live load. If finished with 1-in cement top coat laid directly on the concrete the total dead weight is 62½ lb, which, deducted from 266.6 lb, leaves 204.1 lb.

Note. If the total load carried by the beam is desired, use l instead of l^2 in the formula. These formulas are based upon the stress in the concrete not exceeding 600 lb per sq in and a tension in the steel of 16 000 lb per sq in, with a ratio of the moduli of elasticity of the concrete and steel equal to 12.

Formula for the Resisting Moment of Rectangular or T Beams. This is Formula (6), page 936, Chapter XXIV, only in a different form, and is to be used when the percentage of steel is not greater than 0.58 of 1%.

M = the maximum bending moment in inch-pounds;
d = the depth from the top of the beam to the center of action of the steel in inches;
A = the area of the sum of the cross-sections of the steel bars in square inches.

$$M = A \times 16\,000 \times 0.9\, d \text{ or } A = \frac{M}{14\,400\, d}$$

or

$$d = \frac{M}{14\,400\, A} \quad \text{(1)}$$

Example. Given a bending moment of 217 728 in-lb and a depth (over all) of beam of 16 in, to find the sectional area of steel necessary to make the resisting moment equal to the bending moment.

Solution.

$$A = \frac{M}{14\,400\,d} \text{ or } A = \frac{217\,728}{14\,400 \times 13\tfrac{1}{2}} = 1.12 \text{ sq in.}$$

Using two round bars of ¾-in diameter we have 0.56 sq in × 2, or 1.12 sq in. Allowing 2 in for fireproofing and ½ in to the center of the bars, the effective depth of the beam is reduced to 13½ in. For the width of the beam we can use Formula (5), page 935, Chapter XXIV, substituting for K the value corresponding to the unit stresses and the ratio of the moduli of elasticity for the concrete and steel we have been using, namely, 600 and 16 000 lb per sq in for the unit stresses and 12 for the ratio. This value of K, from Table V, page 930, Chapter XXIV, is 83.4 and $M = 83.4\,bd^2$. Transposing, we have

$$b = \frac{M}{83.4\,d^2}, \text{ or } b = \frac{217\,728}{83.4 \times (13\tfrac{1}{2})^2} = \frac{217\,728}{83.4 \times 182.2} = 14.3 \text{ in}$$

The beam therefore will be 14½ in × 16 in in cross-section, reinforced with two ¾-in round rods placed so that there will be 2½ in from the bottom of the beam to their center. As the width of this beam is excessive for the number of rods used, it is uneconomical. It would be better to design the beam with a T section reducing the width to 6 in for the stem and making the top flange 14½ in wide and 13.5 × 0.31 = 4.18 in thick. The ratio of the distance of the neutral surface below the top of the beam to the effective depth of the beam, for the values we have been using is 0.31 (see Table V, page 930, Chapter XXIV), and in order to have sufficient concrete in compression at the top of the beam to balance the tensile stress in the steel, the head or flange of the T must extend from the top to the line of the neutral surface.

Girderless Floors.* In order to familiarize the student with the design of GIRDERLESS FLOORS, an example is worked out, in which the area of a panel or bay is assumed to be 400 sq ft, the same as that of a typical bay in the factory-building already considered in this chapter. The column-spacing is made the same in both directions, so that the panels are square, with a length of side of 20 ft. Without discussing the various methods of computing the strength of flat, reinforced-concrete plates, we will use one under consideration by the Bureau of Building Inspection of Philadelphia.† This is a conservative method. It has been carefully worked out in all its details and applications and gives results consistent with safety and economical design. The following paragraphs set forth the notation and equations of this method as published by the Philadelphia Bureau which calls it the DROP-CONSTRUCTION.

L = the length, center to center of columns, of the longest of straight bands in inches.
L_1 = the diameter or width, edge to edge, of the capital-head in inches.
w = the total dead and live load per square foot.
d = the distance from the center of action of the concrete in compression to the center of the steel at the drop in inches.
d_1 = the distance from the center of action of the concrete in compression to the center of the steel at the center of the slab in inches.

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* See, also, Chapter XXIV, page 952, Flat-Slab Construction.

† To Edwin Clark, Chief of the Bureau of Building Inspection, Philadelphia, Pa., is due the credit for working out and perfecting the practical applications of this method.

If the drop-construction is not used, $d = d_1$.

Sufficient depth of slab is to be provided for shearing-stresses as well as for bending-stresses.

Width of capital-head = not less than $\frac{2}{10} L$.

Width of drop = $\frac{38}{100} L$.

Width of bands = $\frac{5}{10} L$.

x = the area of section of steel over the capital-head.

x_1 = the area of section of steel in center of bay.

$-M$ = the bending moment at the edge of the capital-head.

$+M$ = the bending moment at the center of the span,

$$\text{The load carried by the straight band} = \frac{\text{total bay} - \text{capital-head}}{2} \times w$$

$$-M = \frac{\text{total bay} - \text{capital-head}}{2} \times \frac{wL_1}{12}$$

$$+M = \frac{\text{total bay} - \text{capital-head}}{2} \times \frac{wL_1}{24}$$

Width of concrete to resist compression at edge of capital-head = width of drop.

Width of concrete to resist compression when negative moment $= -\frac{WL_1}{24}$ = width of band + $3\,T$, in which T = the thickness of slab.

Width of concrete to resist compression at middle of span = width of band + $6\,T$.

$$x = -\frac{M}{d \times 16\,000}$$

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text{Place 66\% of } x \text{ in straight bands}\\ \text{Place 43\% of } x \text{ in diagonal bands}\end{array}\right\}\text{ over capital-head.}$$

$$x_1 = +\frac{M}{d_1 \times 16\,000}$$

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text{Place 66\% of } x_1 \text{ in straight bands}\\ \text{Place 43\% of } x_1 \text{ in diagonal bands}\end{array}\right\}\text{ at middle of span.}$$

The drop equals the abacus outside of the capital-head, or the increased thickness of the concrete to obtain the necessary compression in the concrete. This is not generally necessary when the live load of the floor is light, say 120 lb per sq ft and the span is not excessive. To determine d and d_1 deduct from the total thickness of the slab 1 in to the center of the steel when the rods are ⅜ in or less in diameter; if over ⅜ in deduct 1½ in; and multiply the result by 0.9. The result will be the distance from the center of the steel to the center of action of the compressive stresses in the concrete.

The depth h is the distance from the top of the slab to the center of the steel and is used in finding the thickness of the slab. Applying the above formulas to the example considered, using a floor-load of 120 lb per sq ft as in the previous example, and assuming an average slab-thickness of 8 in with a 1-in top finish-coat of cement, the dead load is 100 lb + 13 lb = 113 lb, which added to the live load = 233 lb, total.

The arrangement of the bands is shown in plan, Fig. 24, the width being $\frac{5}{10} L$, or ½ the span of 20 ft, which is 10 ft. The diameter of the column-head is $\frac{2}{10} L$, or 4 ft. The width of the drop is $\frac{38}{100} L$, or 7 ft 7 in.

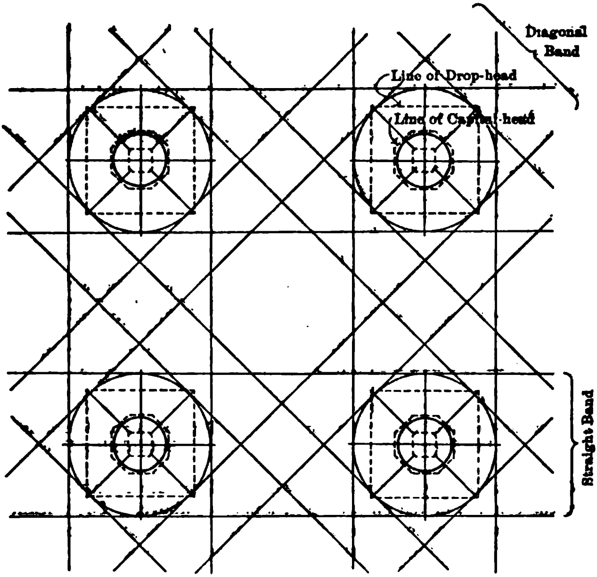

Fig. 24. Arrangement of Bands in Girderless Floor

The total area of the bay = $20^2 = 400$ sq ft.

The area of the capital-head = $4^2 = 16$ sq ft. Then, by the formula, the load carried by the straight bands $= \frac{400 - 16}{2} \times 233 = 44\,736$ lb

$$-M = \frac{44\,736 \times L_1}{12} = \frac{44\,736 \times 16 \times 12}{12} = 715\,776 \text{ in-lb}$$

$$+M = \frac{44\,736 \times L_1}{24} = \frac{44\,736 \times 16 \times 12}{24} = 357\,888 \text{ in-lb}$$

The bending-moment diagram is shown in Fig. 25.

It is necessary next to find the thickness of the concrete at the drop. The formula used to find the depth of a beam when the bending moment, the width of the beam and the allowable stresses are given, is as follows, in which h equals the total depth of the slab from the center of the steel to the top of the concrete:

$$h = \sqrt{\frac{2M}{0.27 \times bS_c}} = \sqrt{\frac{2 \times 715\,776}{0.27 \times 91 \times 600}} = \sqrt{100} = 10 \text{ in}$$

In this formula b = the width of the drop and $S_c = 600$ lb per sq in. The depth of the drop over all, therefore, is $10 + 1 = 11$ in (Fig. 26).

The steel over the column at the drop $= x = -\frac{M}{d \times 16\,000}$ in which $d = 0.9\,h$ or $0.9 \times 10 = 9$.

$$x = \frac{715\,776}{9 \times 16\,000} = 4.9 \text{ in, or about } 5 \text{ in}$$

The straight band will have 66% of 5 or 3.3 sq in of steel. A ⅜ round rod has a cross-sectional area of 0.11 sq in. Therefore, there will be $\frac{3.3}{0.11} = 30$ bars over the capital-head in the straight band. As the bars from the adjoining span overlap the column-head, extending into the next span as far as the edge of the drop, each straight band over the column will have $^{30}/_{2}$ or fifteen bars. The diagonal bands will have 43% of 5 or 2.15 sq in, which will require twenty ⅜-in round rods over the column, or ten on each side, lapped as above. The thickness of the slab at the middle of the span is found by the formula given above, substituting the proper values for the letters. The formula becomes

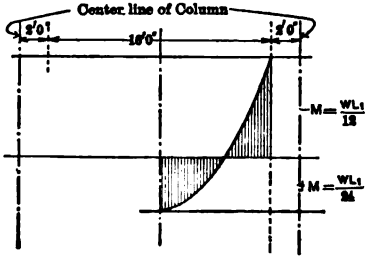

Fig. 25. Bending-moment Diagram for Girderless Floor

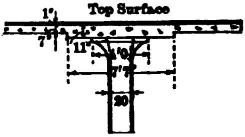

Fig. 26. Capital-head and Slab in Girderless Floor

$$h = \sqrt{\frac{2 \times 357\,888}{0.27 \times 138 \times 600}} = \sqrt{\frac{715\,776}{22\,356}} = \sqrt{32} = 5.6 \text{ in}$$

The total depth is 5.6 + 1 in = 6.6 in, or about 7 in.

The width of the band = 10 ft + (3 × 6 = 18) = 138 in.

For the steel at the center of the span

$$x = +\frac{M}{d_1 \times 16\,000} \text{ in which } d_1 = 0.9\,h \text{ or } 0.9 \times 7 = 6.3 \text{ in}$$

$$x = \frac{357\,888}{6.3 \times 16\,000} = 3.5 \text{ sq in}$$

The straight bands will have 66% of 3.5 or 2.31 sq in of steel which will require $\frac{2.31}{0.11}$ = twenty-one ⅜-in round bars or six bars more for the middle of the span than for the band set over the column.

In practice the rods are made the full length of the span, from column to column, plus the width of the drop, or in this example 20 ft + 7 ft 7 in = 27 ft 7 in for the fifteen rods. Six additional rods, 13 ft long or about the distance from the edge of one drop to the edge of the next one, must be used with the fifteen to make the twenty-one required for the middle of the span. The diagonal bands will have in the center 43% of 3.5 sq in = 1.5 sq in which require fourteen ⅜-in round rods or four more than one set of rods over the column These four, however, are to be added at the middle of the span between the drops. The rods are bent up over the column-head so as to be near the top of the slab to take care of the negative bending moment, the bars extending horizontally near the top of the slab the full width of the drop. It is necessary to provide bent radial rods extending down into the column and outwards as far as the outer ring with two or more rings as reinforcements of the column-head. The size and number of these varies with the span and load; but for the floor under consideration there should be eight 1-in radial rods as near the top of the slab as practicable, the diameter of the outer one being equal to the width of the band and that of the inner one being equal to the capital-head. It will be noticed in the above analysis that before any calculations could be made certain assumptions were necessary, such as the thickness of the slab, which was assumed as 8 in, in order to obtain the dead load; whereas in the finished design the thickness of the slab is 7 in and the drop 11 in, which, however, does not affect the practical results materially. It is for this reason that the design of flat slabs should be intrusted only to those who have wide experience in the design of reinforced concrete, as good judgment enters into the making up of a successful design; and one who is inexperienced should consult a specialist in this particular system of construction, if a design is to be put into execution.

CHAPTER XXVI

TYPES OF ROOF-TRUSSES

By

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1. Definitions

Use of Trusses. Whenever the distance between the side walls of a building exceeds about thirty feet, and there are no intermediate walls or columns, it is usually necessary to support the roof on trusses. The ceilings of large rooms, assembly-halls, etc., also, require trusses for their support. In many cases the roof and a ceiling are carried by the same trusses.

A Truss is a framework, composed of straight, or sometimes curved, members or pieces so arranged that the structure as a whole acts as a beam. Since a triangle is the only figure which cannot be changed in shape without changing the length of one or more of its sides, it follows that the pieces forming a truss must be arranged so as to form triangles. The members of a truss are usually subjected to longitudinal stresses only, either compressive or tensile. Curved members and members which act as beams supporting loads are subjected to additional bending stresses. Each member of a truss is either a TIE or a STRUT.

A Tie is a member which has developed in it a longitudinal tensile stress.

A Strut is a member which has developed in it a longitudinal compressive stress. When vertical, struts are sometimes called POSTS or COLUMNS.

The Top Chord of a truss is composed of the upper outside members. In some forms of roof-trusses top chords are called RAFTERS (Fig. 2).

The Bottom Chord of a truss is composed of the lower outside members (Fig. 2). In roof-trusses the bottom chord is commonly called the TIE-BEAM.

The Web-Members are those connecting the CHORDS (Fig. 2).

A Joint is the point of intersection of two or more members of a truss (Fig. 2).

A Panel is the distance between two adjacent JOINTS in either the upper or lower chords (Fig. 2).

Purlins. Whenever possible all roof-loads and ceiling-loads should be transferred to trusses at the joints. This usually requires beams spanning the space between trusses at corresponding joints. These beams, when supporting the roof, are called PURLINS (Fig. 2).

2. Types of Wooden Trusses

The Simplest Truss that can be built is that shown in Fig. 1. It consists of three members forming a triangle. As the unsupported length of a strut, for economical reasons, should not exceed 12 feet, such a truss is not suitable for spans exceeding from 20 to 24 ft; and even for a span of 20 ft there should be a center rod, as shown by the dotted line *R*, to support the tie-beam. To utilize this truss for spans greater than 24 ft, it is necessary to brace the rafters from the foot of the center rod, as shown in Fig. 2. This gives us the KING-ROD TRUSS, the modern type of the old-fashioned KING-POST TRUSS which is shown in Fig. 3 and which was built wholly of wood except for the iron straps at *S* and *P*.

Rods and Braces. When the tie-beam supports a ceiling or attic-floor, rods should be inserted at *RR*, Figs. 2 and 4, to support the load on the tie-beam. By increasing the number of rods and braces, as in Figs. 4 and 5, this type of truss may be used for spans up to 64 ft, and even for greater spans; but on account of the increased length of the center struts and rods it is not an economical type when the span exceeds 60 ft. When there is no load on the tie-beam the rods *RR*, Figs. 4 and 5, merely support the tie-beam and are often omitted.

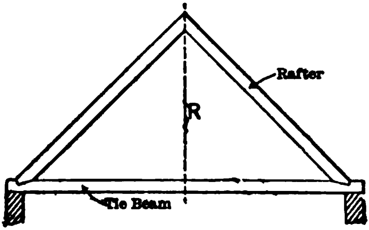

Fig. 1. Simplest Three-piece Truss. Spans up to Twenty-four Feet

Triangular Howe Trusses. The trusses shown in Figs. 4 and 5 are sometimes called Howe trusses as the character of the stresses in the web-members corresponds with that of the stresses in the web in the standard form of Howe truss. They are also called triangular Howe trusses to distinguish them from the standard Howe truss with parallel chords.

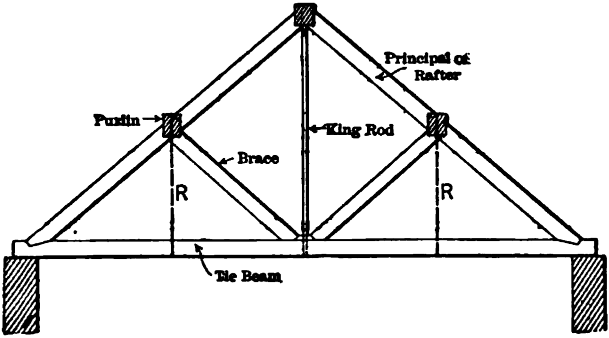

Fig. 2. King-rod Truss. Spans up to Thirty-six Feet

Queen-Rod Truss. The rise of the rafter in any of the trusses, Figs. 1 to 5, should never be less than 6 in in 12 in or 26½°; a ⅓ pitch, or a rise of 8 in in 12 in, is generally the most economical. When the span exceeds 36 ft, it is more economical to cut off the top of the truss as in Fig. 6, which shows the modern type of the ancient queen-post truss. This truss is frequently used for the support of deck roofs, although it may also be used for a pitched roof with a ridge. When the top chord is more than 12 ft long, the size of the member may be considerably reduced by using a center rod and a pair of struts as shown in Fig. 7. The center rod will be especially needed if the bottom chord or tie-beam is subject to a bending stress. The center rod should never be used, however, without the braces.

Counters. The truss shown in Fig. 6 differs from those shown in Figs. 1 to 5, in not being composed entirely of triangles and in having a rectangle in the middle. Assuming the joints to be pin-connected and without friction, it is evident that a very small inequality in the position or magnitude of the loading will cause the failure of the truss since the rectangle will not retain its shape. This is easily verified by means of a cardboard model fastened at the joints

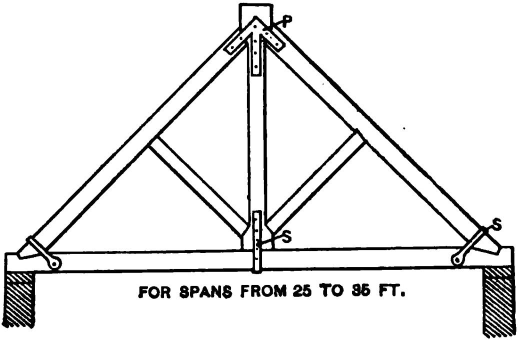

Fig. 3. Modern King-post Truss

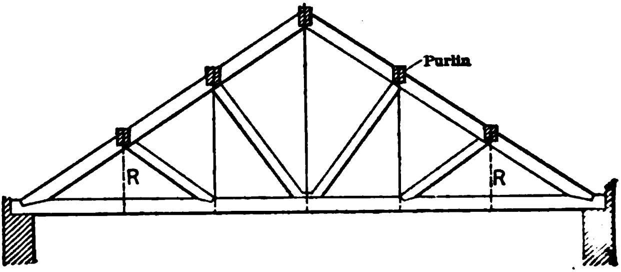

Fig. 4. Six-panel Triangular Howe Truss. Spans from Thirty-six to Fifty Feet

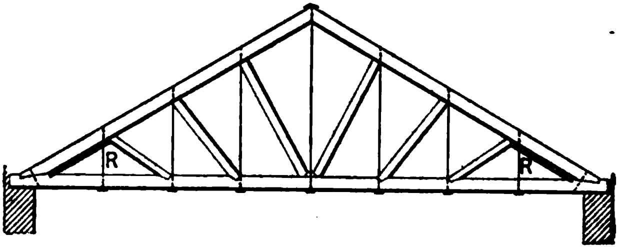

Fig. 5. Eight-panel Triangular Howe Truss. Spans from Forty-eight to Sixty Feet

with ordinary eyelets. When the joints at the corners of the rectangle are not perfectly free to turn they have a tendency to prevent distortion. When the loading is entirely upon the left of the center the truss itself tends to assume a form similar to that shown in Fig. 8. The DISTORTION of the rectangle may be prevented by the introduction of a diagonal member as shown in Fig. 9. For the loading shown, the diagonal is in compression and is usually called a COUNTERBRACE. If the piece were in tension it would be called a COUNTERTIE.

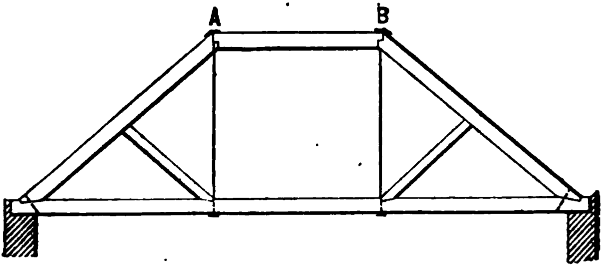

Fig. 6. Queen-rod Truss. Spans from Thirty to Forty-five Feet

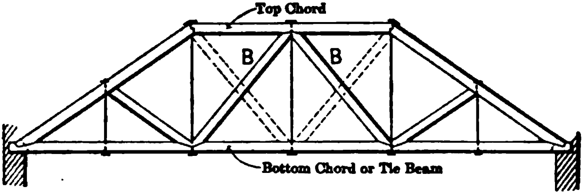

Fig. 7. Queen-rod Truss. Spans from Forty to Fifty-two Feet

Unsymmetrical Loads. Although roof-trusses of the type shown in Fig. 9, supporting symmetrical loads, do not theoretically require COUNTERS, it is nevertheless advisable to brace the rectangle along both diagonals to insure stability under accidental, unsymmetrical loading and to relieve the joints from any stresses due to the latter, which is usually caused by wind, snow and floor-loads.

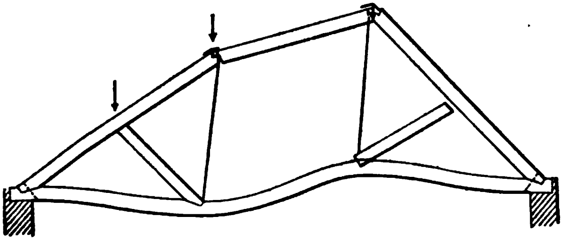

Fig. 8. Distorted Queen-rod Truss

Reversal of Stresses. In some trusses subjected to different loadings at different times, the diagonal web-members near the center may be subjected to tension for one loading and compression for another loading. In such cases it is advisable to introduce a member following the other diagonal of the quadrilateral containing the member subjected to the two kinds of stress, to assist the main member. This piece, also, is called a COUNTERBRACE or COUNTERTIE according to the kind of stress it has to resist. If this is not done, the member which is subjected to two kinds of stress must be designed for both tension and compression and the ends connected at the joints to meet the same conditions.

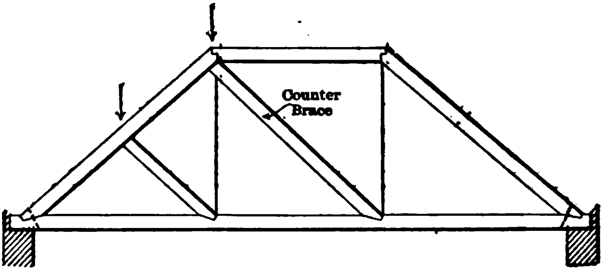

Fig. 9. Counterbraced Queen-rod Truss

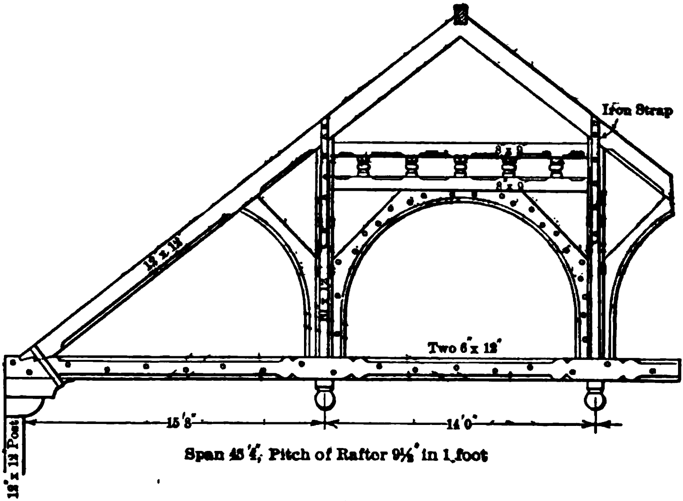

Fig. 10. Queen-post Truss. Massachusetts Charitable Mechanics' Association Building, Boston, Mass.

An Ornamental Queen-Post Truss, supporting a portion of the roof of the Massachusetts Charitable Mechanics' Association building in Boston, Mass., and designed by Mr. William G. Preston, is shown in Fig. 10. The truss-members, which are of long-leaf yellow pine, were worked from timbers of the dimensions given. In this truss wooden members instead of rods are used for the vertical ties, and are bolted and tenoned to the tie-beam and secured to the rafters by iron straps. The curved ribs take the place of counterbraces.

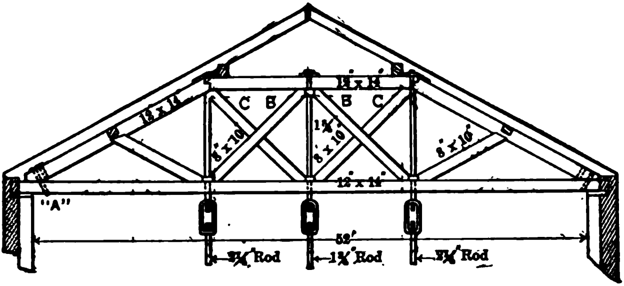

Fig. 11. Queen-rod Truss. Museum of Fine Arts, St. Louis, Mo.

A Queen-Rod Truss from the Museum of Fine Arts, St. Louis, Mo., designed by Peabody & Stearns, is shown in Fig. 11. It supports the floor below by means of three rods. The truss-rods have nuts and washers below the tie-beam, and the threads on the rods are long enough to receive turnbuckles which connect the suspension-rods with the truss. This is generally the best method of suspending a floor from a truss. Fig. 11A shows a detail of joint *A* of the truss in Fig. 11.

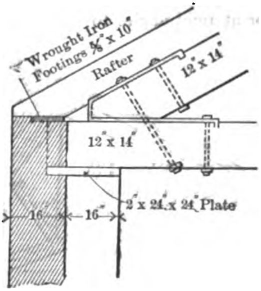

Fig. 11A. Detail of Joint *A*, Fig. 11.

Counters Omitted for Special Reasons. Fig. 12 shows a truss, sometimes used when it is desired to keep the middle part of an attic free from obstructions. In building this truss it is advisable to construct the lower part of the rafters of two timbers, thoroughly bolted together, as shown. What has been said in regard to counterbraces in queen-rod trusses applies also to this truss, although in the latter the continuous rafter aids very materially in resisting distortion from wind-pressure; so that for ordinary construction and for spans not exceeding 40 ft it is safe to omit counterbraces.

Manner of Supporting Common Rafters. Before describing other types of trusses, it may be well to consider the manner of supporting the common rafters by the trusses. Occasionally it is desirable to span the common rafters from truss to truss, but as a general rule it is better construction to support them by means of large beams or PURLINS which themselves span from truss to truss, as shown in Fig. 13.

Purlins. The trusses can be designed so that the purlins need not be more than 10 ft apart, and very often not more than 6 or 8 ft apart; so that the common rafters need not be more than 2 by 4 or 2 by 6 in in cross-section, while the trusses may be spaced 12, 14, or 16 ft on centers. As a rule a spacing of about 14 ft for the trusses and of 9 ft 6 in for the purlins is found to be the most economical arrangement. Another advantage in the use of purlins is that where they are placed at the truss-joints no bending stresses are developed in the truss-rafters or chords; and hence the latter may be made lighter than if they supported the common rafters. For wooden trusses of 60 ft or greater span, purlins should always be used.

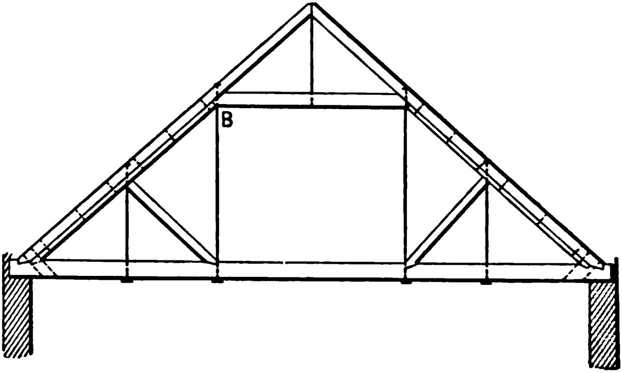

Fig. 12. Queen-rod Truss with Middle Part Clear. Spans up to Forty-two Feet

Supports for Purlins. Purlins may be placed with their sides either vertical or at right-angles to the plane of the roof, as shown in Figs. 2 and 13. The ends of the purlins may be supported by means of beam-hangers, described in Chapter XXI; by double stirrups; by 3-in planks bolted and spiked to the sides of the trusses; or they may rest on the top chords themselves. The ceiling-joists or floor-joists are usually supported at the sides of the tie-beams, as at *A*, Fig. 13, or simply rest on them, as at *B*. When they support an attic floor it is better to use the latter construction. In the case of SCISSORS TRUSSES it is sometimes more economical to support the ceiling-joists by purlins; but when the tie-beams are horizontal it is more economical to use them for the direct support of the ceiling-joists or floor-joists. All chords which support rafters, ceiling-joists or floor-joists must be designed for bending stresses as well as for longitudinal stresses.

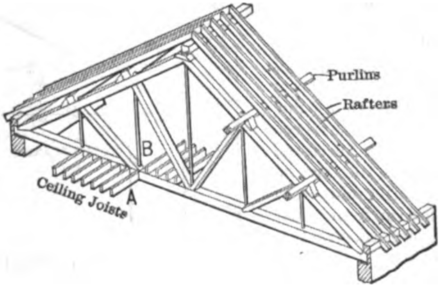

Fig. 13. Manner of Supporting Common Rafters and Purlins

Trusses with Horizontal Chords. For the support of flat roofs, with or without a ceiling below, and for conditions such that horizontal trusses are practicable, the types shown in Figs. 14 to 17 are undoubtedly the most satisfactory for wooden construction, when the span does not exceed 80 ft; and except in localities where the cost of iron rods is relatively great, it is as economical as any. In this work the name HOWE TRUSS is given to this type, as it is an adaptation of the Howe bridge-truss to building-construction; and the term HORIZONTAL TRUSS is also sometimes used. Trusses of this type can be

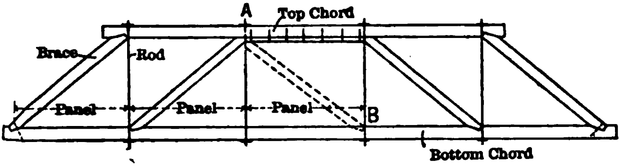

Fig. 14. Five-panel Howe Truss

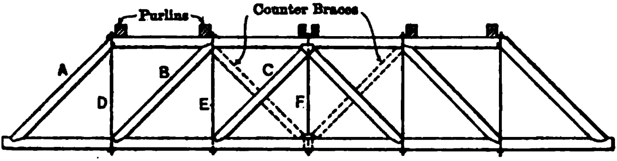

Fig. 15. Six-panel Howe Truss

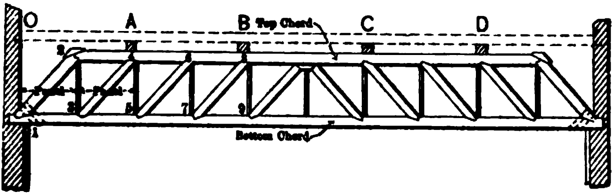

Fig. 16. Ten-panel Howe Truss

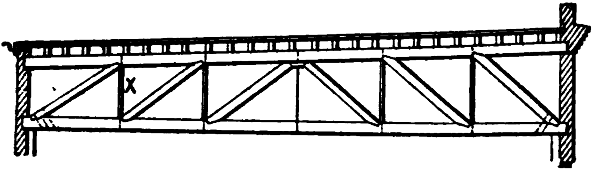

Fig. 17. Six-panel Howe Truss with Top Chord Inclined

ade strong enough for spans up to 150 ft; but when the span exceeds 100 ft is generally cheaper to use a steel truss of the PRATT TYPE in which the verticals are in compression and the diagonals in tension. When a Howe truss is laced in the longitudinal direction of a flat roof, the top chord may be given e inclination of the roof itself, so as to support the rafters without the blocking shown in Fig. 17. For deck roofs the top chord may be inclined upwards ward the center or deck-ridge, to conform to the shape of the roof, as show

Fig. 18. For deck roofs and mansard roofs the middle panels should have counterbraces, as shown in Fig. 18, to resist the wind-pressure against the sides of the roof and any unequal distribution of snow.

Height of a Howe Truss. The height of the truss, measured from center to center of the chords, should never be less than one-ninth the span for spans up to 36 ft, nor less than one-tenth the span for spans from 36 to 80 ft.

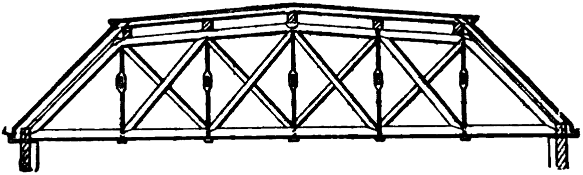

Fig. 18. Howe Truss for Deck Roofs

As a general rule a height of from one-seventh to one-sixth the span will be most economical. When the top chord is inclined, as in Fig. 17, the height at *X*, that is, at the shortest rod, should not be less than the limit given above.

Number of Panels in a Howe Truss. In this type of truss a PANEL is the space between two adjacent rods or between an outer rod and the end-joint (Fig. 14). As a rule, the number of panels should be such that the diagonals will have an inclination of from 36° to 60°, an inclination of about 45° being the most economical. It is not material whether there is an even or an odd number of panels. If the position of one or more of the purlins is fixed by some special requirement, then the panels should be so arranged that the upper joints come under the purlins, and the inclination of none of the diagonals is less than 36°. Although it is generally better to have the truss symmetrical about the center, it is not absolutely necessary; nor is it necessary to make the panels of uniform width. When the truss is not symmetrically loaded, however, it may be necessary to reverse the brace in one of the center panels. This point is considered in Chapter XXVII, page 1102, under the subject of UNSYMMETRICALLY LOADED TRUSSES.

Counterbraces in a Howe Truss. If there is any chance of the truss being more heavily loaded on one side of the center than on the other, COUNTERBRACES, that is, braces inclined in the opposite direction from that of the regular braces, should be placed in the center panels, as shown by the dotted lines in Fig. 15. If the truss is deep and the diagonals long it is economical to counterbrace each panel as shown in Fig. 18. If the number of panels is odd, as shown in Fig. 14, no diagonals are required in the middle panel when the braces and the loading are symmetrical; but it is good practice to cross-brace this panel to provide for any accidental unsymmetrical loading.

Spacing of Trusses. The most economical spacing, center to center, of the trusses, all things considered, is usually from 12 to 16 ft for spans up to 60 ft and from 14 to 20 ft for greater spans.

Spacing of Purlins. Purlins should always be placed as near the truss joints as possible; they should also be spaced so as to effect the greatest economy in rafter-construction. Their spacing, therefore, determines, to a large extent the number of panels. When the height of the truss is not more than one-ninth or one-tenth the span, it is often more economical to place a purlin over every other joint, as in Fig. 16.

Table I. Dimensions for Six-Panel Howe Trusses, Symmetrically Loaded

Timber, Norway pine, Douglas fir, or eastern spruce. (See Fig. 15)

Span	Distance apart c to c	Total height		Top chord	Bottom chord	Braces			Rods not upset		
						A	B	C	D	E	F
ft	ft	ft	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in
36	12	6	7	6×6	6×8	6×6	6×4	6×3	1⅛	¾	⅝
		5	2	6×8	6×8	6×6	6×6	6×4			
	15	6	8	6×8	6×8	6×6	6×4	6×3	1¼	⅞	⅝
		5	2	8×8	8×8	8×6	6×6	6×4			
	18	6	8	6×8	6×8	6×8	6×6	6×4	1¼	⅞	⅝
		5	2	8×8	8×8	8×8	6×6	6×4			
42	12	7	7	8×6	8×8	8×6	8×4	6×4	1¼	⅞	⅝
		5	11	8×8	8×8	8×6	8×5	8×4			
	15	7	8	8×8	8×8	8×6	8×5	6×4	1⅜	⅞	¾
		5	11	8×8	8×8	8×8	8×6	8×4			
	18	7	8	8×8	8×8	8×8	8×6	8×4	1½	1	¾
		6	1	8×10	8×10	8×8	8×6	8×4			
48	12	8	8	8×8	8×8	8×8	8×6	8×4	1⅜	⅞	¾
		6	8	8×8	8×8	8×8	8×6	8×4			
	15	8	8	8×8	8×8	8×8	8×6	8×4	1⅜	1	¾
		6	10	8×10	8×10	8×8	8×6	8×4			
	18	8	8	8×8	8×8	8×8	8×6	8×4	1½	1	¾
		6	10	8×10	8×10	8×10	8×6	8×4			
54	12	9	8	8×8	8×8	8×8	8×6	8×4	1⅜	⅞	¾
		7	6	8×8	8×10	8×8	8×6	8×4			
	15	9	8	8×8	8×8	8×8	8×6	8×4	1½	1	¾
		7	7	8×10	8×10	8×8	8×6	8×4			
	18	9	10	8×10	8×10	8×10	8×8	8×6	1⅝	1⅛	¾
		7	7	10×10	10×10	10×8	8×8	8×4			
60	12	10	9	8×8	8×10	8×8	8×6	6×6	1⅜	1	¾
		8	4	8×10	8×10	8×10	8×6	8×4			
	15	10	10	8×10	8×10	8×10	8×6	6×6	1½	1⅛	¾
		8	4	10×10	10×10	10×8	10×6	8×4			
	18	10	10	10×10	10×10	10×8	10×6	8×6	1¾	1⅛	¾
		8	4	10×10	10×10	10×10	10×6	8×6			
70	12	12	6	8×10	8×10	8×10	8×6	6×6	1½	1	¾
		9	7	10×10	10×10	10×8	10×6	8×6			
	15	12	6	10×10	10×10	10×8	10×6	8×6	1¾	1⅛	¾
		9	9	10×12	10×12	10×10	10×8	10×6			
	18	12	6	10×10	10×10	10×10	10×6	8×6	1⅞	1¼	⅞
		9	9	10×12	10×12	10×12	10×8	10×6			
80	12	14	2	10×10	10×10	10×10	10×6	8×6	1⅝	1⅛	¾
		10	10	10×10	10×10	10×10	10×6	8×6			
	15	14	2	10×10	10×10	10×10	10×8	8×6	1⅞	1¼	⅞
		11	0	10×12	10×12	10×10	10×8	10×6			
	18	14	4	10×12	10×12	10×12	10×8	8×6	2	1⅜	1
		11	1	10×12	10×14	10×12	10×8	10×6			

Bearing on Wall or Post. The point where the axial lines of the end brace and of the tie-beam intersect should always come over the support, and if possible over the axis of the supporting wall or post.

Stresses in a Howe Truss. The stresses in the chords are always greatest at the middle of a truss, diminishing towards the supports, while the stresses in the rods and diagonals are greatest at the ends of a truss.

Table of Dimensions for a Howe Truss. In SYMMETRICAL TRUSSES having panels of uniform width and uniformly loaded, the stresses in the different members are proportional to the span, number of panels, height of truss, spacing of trusses and load per square foot. It is therefore possible to prepare tables giving the proper dimensions of the members of such trusses. Table I gives the dimensions for six-panel trusses for heights of one-sixth and one-eighth the span and for three different spacings. These dimensions are for a flat roof covered with tin, sheet iron, or composition; a snow-load of 16 lb per sq ft, equivalent to about 24 in of light, dry snow; also for a lath-and-plaster ceiling supported by the bottom chord. The chords and braces are of Norway pine and the rods of wrought iron. These dimensions apply only when the rafters are supported on purlins placed at the upper joints, as in Figs. 15 and 16. When the rafters rest on the top chord, as in Fig. 17, the dimensions of the latter must be increased and special calculations made for it. The dimensions given in the table may be used for trusses of greater height than that given, but not for trusses of less height, as the less the height the greater the stresses in the chords and braces. When the conditions of load, span, height and spacing are not exactly as given above and in the table, the stresses should be determined and the members of the truss proportioned accordingly; but even in such cases the table will serve somewhat as a check on the computations.

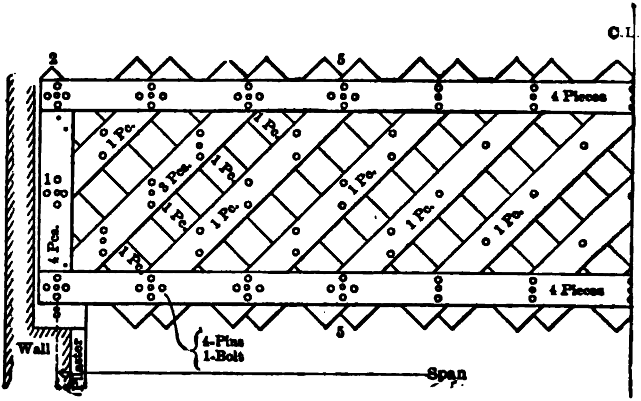

Fig. 19. Lattice Truss

Lattice Trusses. In localities where timber is not expensive the LATTICE TRUSS (Fig. 19) is often found economical for supporting flat roofs. This type of truss was invented for bridges by Ithiel Towne in 1820 and a large number of railroad bridges have been constructed with trusses of this type, some of which are in service now (1915) in New England. The principal objections to the truss are its tendency to twist sidewise, like a thin board on edge, its flexibility in a vertical plane and the difficulty of getting sufficient bearing material at the supports. As indicated in Fig. 19, the truss is composed of top and bottom chords, usually parallel, connected by lattice bracing. The chords are composed of four planks, two being on one side and two on the opposite side of the web. For the bottom chord the planks should be as long as can be obtained and arranged so that no two splices are near the same point. The available area of the bottom chord to resist tension is the area of three planks less the area cut out at the joints by the connecting pins or bolts. Each member of the web consists of a single plank arranged as shown in Fig. 19. The braces are inclined at an angle of about 45° and usually three sets are sufficient, as shown in the figure. The connections are best made with American-locust pins, which give large bearing areas without much extra weight. Modern construction employs bolts, which are expensive and add considerable weight. There should be at least two pins at each connection, if the planks are wide enough to permit, and three, at least, at the chord-joints. Since about one-half the web planks resist tensile stresses, the web projects beyond the chord at least 4 in to provide sufficient longitudinal shearing area. The ends are reinforced by vertical timbers cut in between the chords and each set of diagonals is thoroughly fastened to these timbers. In some cases it is necessary to add timbers on the outside of this and extend them down to the lower face of the bottom chords to relieve them of excessive bearing-stresses where they rest on the supports. The methods of determining the stresses in this truss are considered in Chapter XXVII, pages 1089 to 1091. Figs. 20 and 21 show details of this lattice truss.

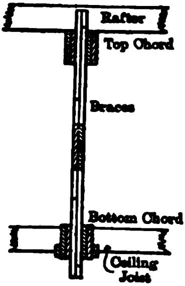

Fig. 20. Vertical Section of Truss Shown in Fig. 19

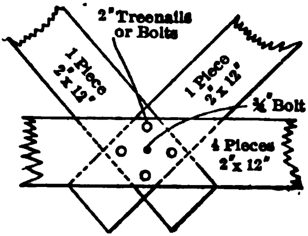

Fig. 21. Lower Joint 5 of Truss Shown in Fig. 19

Wooden Trusses with Raised Bottom Chords. All of the trusses thus far described have horizontal bottom chords; and this construction is the most desirable as well as the most economical and should be used whenever conditions do not necessitate a greater height of ceiling. In roofing churches, public halls, etc., raised ceilings are often desirable as they increase the general height of a room without increasing the height of its side walls.

Table 11. Dimensions for Lattice Trusses, Uniformly Loaded

Timber, Norway pine, Douglas fir, and yellow pine. (Fig. 19)

Span	Spacing of trusses	Height out to out of chords		No. of spaces	No. and size of pcs of bottom chord		No. and size of pcs of top chord		Size of braces	No. and diameter of treenails or bolts, joints 1–5, Fig. 19	
ft	ft	ft	in			in in		in in	in in		in
40	12	5	6	16	4	2×6	4	2×6	2×6	4	1
		7	2	12	4	2×6	4	2×6	2×6	4	1
	14	5	7	16	4	2×6	4	2×8	2×6	4	1
		7	3	12	4	2×6	4	2×8	2×6	4	1
	16	5	8	16	4	2×8	4	2×8	2×8	4	1¼
		7	4	12	4	2×8	4	2×8	2×8	4	1¼
50	12	6	8	16	4	2×8	4	2×8	2×10	4	1¼
		8	8	12	4	2×8	4	2×8	2×10	4	1¼
	14	6	8	16	4	2×8	4	2×8	2×10	4	1¼
		8	8	12	4	2×8	4	2×8	2×10	4	1¼
	16	6	9	16	4	2×8	4	2×10	2×10	4	1¼
		8	8	12	4	2×8	4	2×8	2×10	4	1¼
60	12	8	4	16	4	2×10	4	2×10	2×10	4	1¾
		10	10	12	4	2×10	4	2×10	2×10	4	1¾
	14	8	4	16	4	2×10	4	2×10	2×10	4	1¾
		10	10	12	4	2×10	4	2×10	2×10	4	1¾
	16	8	4	16	4	2×10	4	2×10	2×10	4	1¾
		10	10	12	4	2×10	4	2×10	2×10	4	1¾
70	14	9	5	16	4	2×10	4	2×12	2×10	4	1¾
		12	4	12	4	2×10	4	2×10	2×10	4	1¾
	16	9	5	16	4	2×10	4	2×12	2×10	4	1¾
		12	4	12	4	2×10	4	2×10	2×10	4	1¾
	18	9	6	16	4	2×12	4	2×12	2×10	4	2
		12	6	12	4	2×12	4	2×12	2×10	4	2
80	14	11	0	16	4	2×12	4	2×12	2×12	4	2
		14	0	12	4	2×12	4	2×12	2×12	4	2
	16	11	2	16	4	2×14	4	2×14	2×12	4	2
		14	0	12	4	2×12	4	2×12	2×12	4	2
	18	11	2	16	4	2×14	4	2×14	2×12	4	2
		14	1	12	4	2×12	4	2×14	2×12	4	2

Note. All joints should be thoroughly spiked and packing blocks used where necessary. When treenails are used each chord-joint should have in addition one ¾-in bolt as shown in Fig. 21.

Scissors Trusses. For the roofs described in the preceding paragraph some form of the SCISSORS TRUSS, so named from its resemblance to a pair of scissors, is most often used. When correctly designed, with members of the proper size, and with joints carefully proportioned to the stresses, it is a very good truss for supporting roofs over halls and churches, up to a span of 48 ft; but for greater spans it should be used with caution, as the stresses become very great and the joints difficult to make. Figs. 22 to 27 show different forms of this truss and modifications of it adapted to different spans and roof-pitches. None of these trusses exerts a large horizontal thrust if the members are of ample size and the joints properly made. The members having a plus sign on

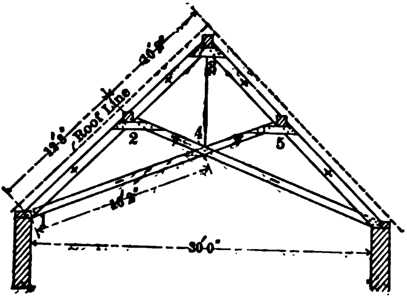

Fig. 22. Simple Scissors Truss. Spans up to Thirty Feet

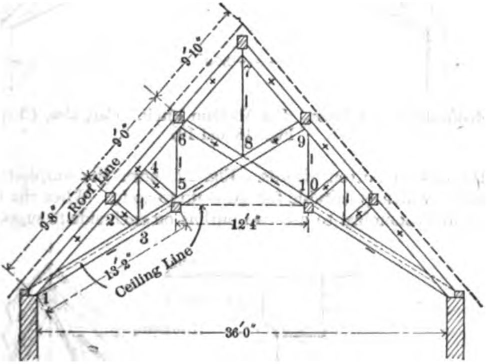

Fig. 23. Scissors Truss. Spans Exceeding Thirty Feet

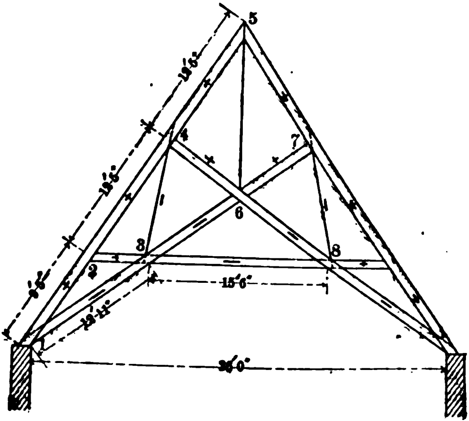

Fig. 24. Scissors Truss. For Steep Roofs. (See Chapter XXVIII, Figs. 18 and 19)

or close to them are in COMPRESSION, while those having a minus sign are in TENSION. The determination of the actual HORIZONTAL THRUST is considered on pages 1085–1087. The members indicated by a single line should be rods, except in the case of bottom chords. Fig. 22 shows the simplest form of the SCISSORS TRUSS, which is suitable for spans up to 30 ft. When the span exceeds 30 ft, it is more economical to use two purlins on each side to support the common rafters; and additional supports from the bottom chords are generally required, calling for additional rods and braces, as shown in Fig. 23. For a steep roof the arrangement shown in Fig 24 is generally the best, and for a

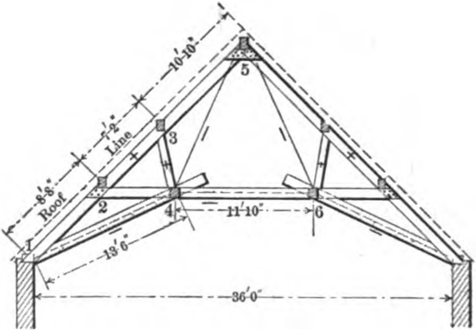

Fig. 25. Modified Scissors Truss. For Medium Pitch. (See, also, Chapter XXVIII, Figs. 18 and 19)

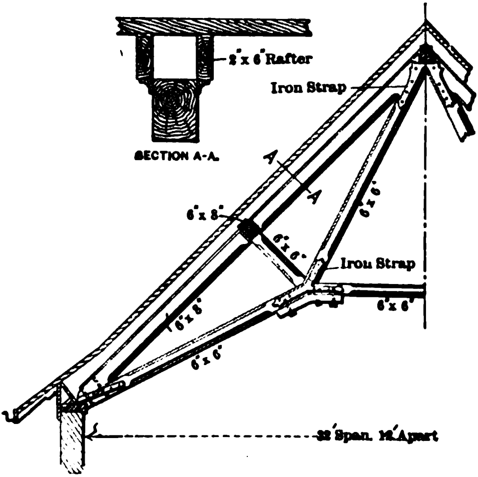

Fig. 26. Finished Cambered Truss. (See, also, Chapter XXVIII, Figs. 18 and 19)

flatter roof that shown in Fig 25, in which the scissors pieces do not cross nor run through. Fig. 26 shows a finished truss, built on somewhat the same lines as the one shown in Fig. 25 but with only one purlin. This truss can hardly be classified as a scissors truss but is shown here for convenience. It is really the same type as that of the truss shown in Fig. 33. The truss shown in Fig. 27 is similar to that shown in Fig. 24, with the peak cut off, but for spans exceeding 36 ft, is more economical. It can also be used where the roof is hipped. With this form it is better to use ceiling-purlins to support the ceiling-joists than to span the latter from truss to truss.

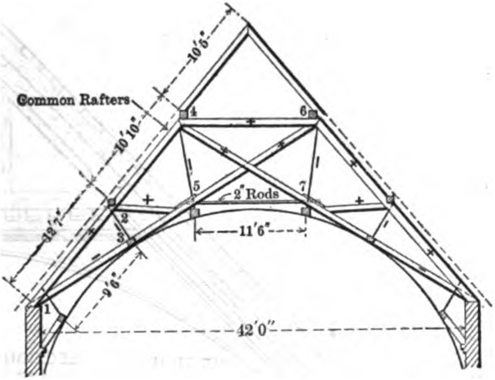

Fig. 27. Modified Scissors Truss. Spans Exceeding Thirty-six Feet. (See, also, Chapter XXVIII, Figs. 18, 19 and 20)

Hammer-Beam Trusses. Two of the principal characteristics of the Gothic style of architecture are the relatively elaborate ornamentation of structural parts and the exposure to view of the construction of a building as a whole. As the pointed arch and steep roof were developed the roof-truss became an important feature in the ornamentation as well as in the construction of Gothic halls and churches. The trusses of this period were built almost entirely of wood and generally of very heavy timbers, to give the appearance of great strength. One of the most common types of these Gothic trusses, and also the most ornamental, was the HAMMER-BEAM truss, still often used in churches designed in the Gothic style. Figs. 28 and 29 show early English forms of this truss, which takes its name from the horizontal beam *H*, called the HAMMER-BEAM, at the foot of the principal rafter. In the more ornamental trusses this hammer-beam was usually carved to represent royal personages or angels. These trusses differ in principle from those thus far described, in having no bottom chord and no substitute for one. In fact the trusses shown in Figs. 28 and 29 do not come within the scope of the definition of a TRUSS given at the beginning of this chapter. Although the rafters or principals are connected near the top of the truss by a short COLLAR-BEAM, this offers but little resistance to the tendency of the rafters to spread at their lower ends; and hence the truss depends either upon the transverse strength of the rafters or upon the resistance of the walls to keep it intact and, generally, upon both. This form of truss is actually that of an ARCH, as vertical loads produce inclined reactions at the supports. In the halls and churches of the Gothic period the walls were generally very thick and usually reinforced on the outside by BUTTRESSES built against them and directly opposite the roof-trusses. In most cases such a wall possesses sufficient stability to withstand the THRUST of the truss, and hence the bottom chord may be dispensed with; but in a wooden building the walls, unless tied at the top, offer no resistance whatever to being thrust out and hence, in such buildings, no truss which exerts an outward thrust on the walls should be used.

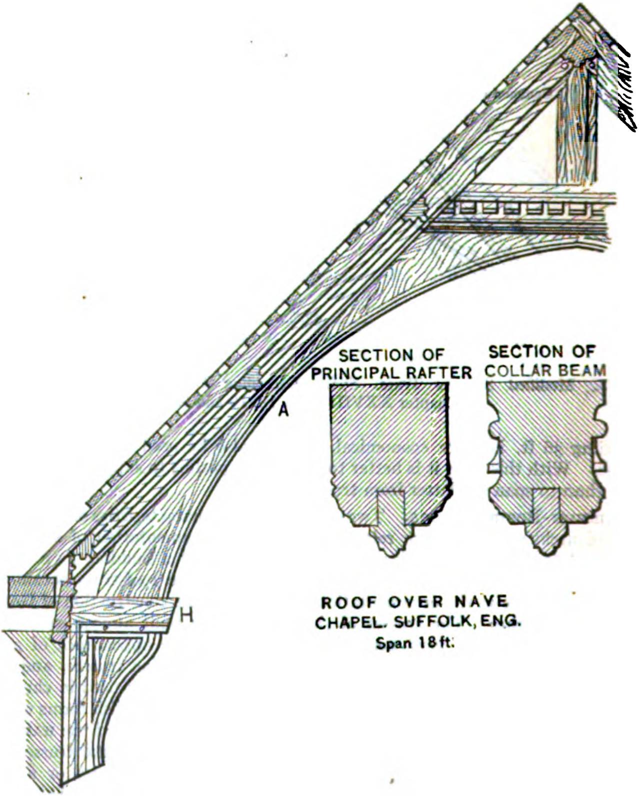

Fig. 28. Hammer-beam Truss. Early English Form

It is therefore generally impracticable to use a hammer-beam truss in a wooden building. Where these trusses are used, the CEILING is generally formed of matched sheathing, nailed to the under side of the JACK-RAFTERS between the purlins, thus allowing the latter to be seen. The purlins are generally decorated, and FALSE RIBS are often placed vertically between them, to divide the ceiling into PANELS. The main rafters should be made very large to prevent them from breaking at the point *A*, Figs. 28 and 29.

Truss for First Church, Boston, Mass. An excellent example of a hammer-beam truss adapted to modern conditions is shown in Fig. 30, which represents one-half of one of the trusses designed by Ware & Van Brunt, for

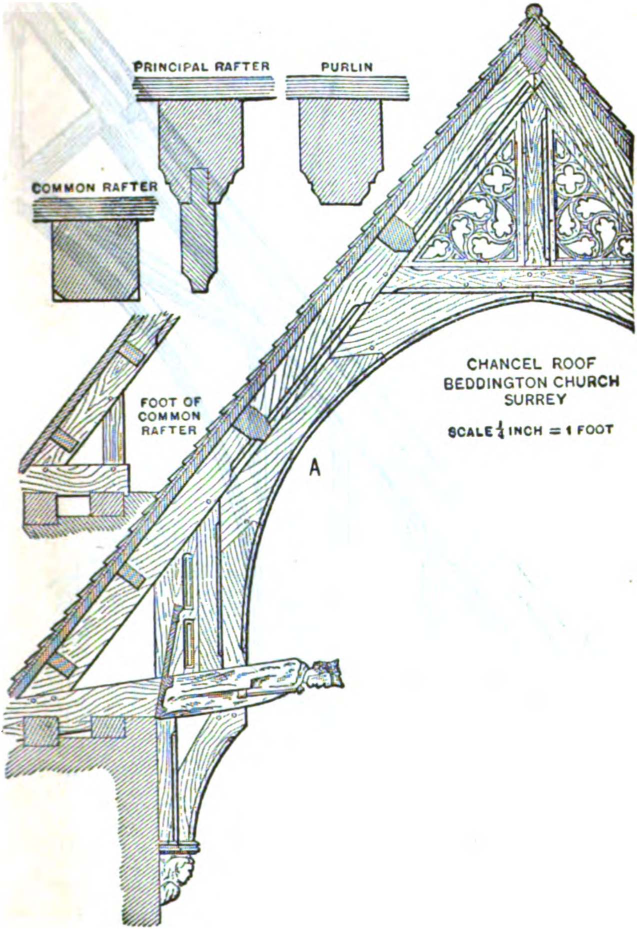

Fig. 29. Hammer-beam Truss. Early English Form

e First Church, Boston, Mass. The truss is finished in black walnut and has e effect of being very strong and heavy. Fig. 31 shows the framing of the me truss without the casing and FALSEWORK. It should be noticed that side the turned column in the upper part of the truss, Fig. 30, there is an iron

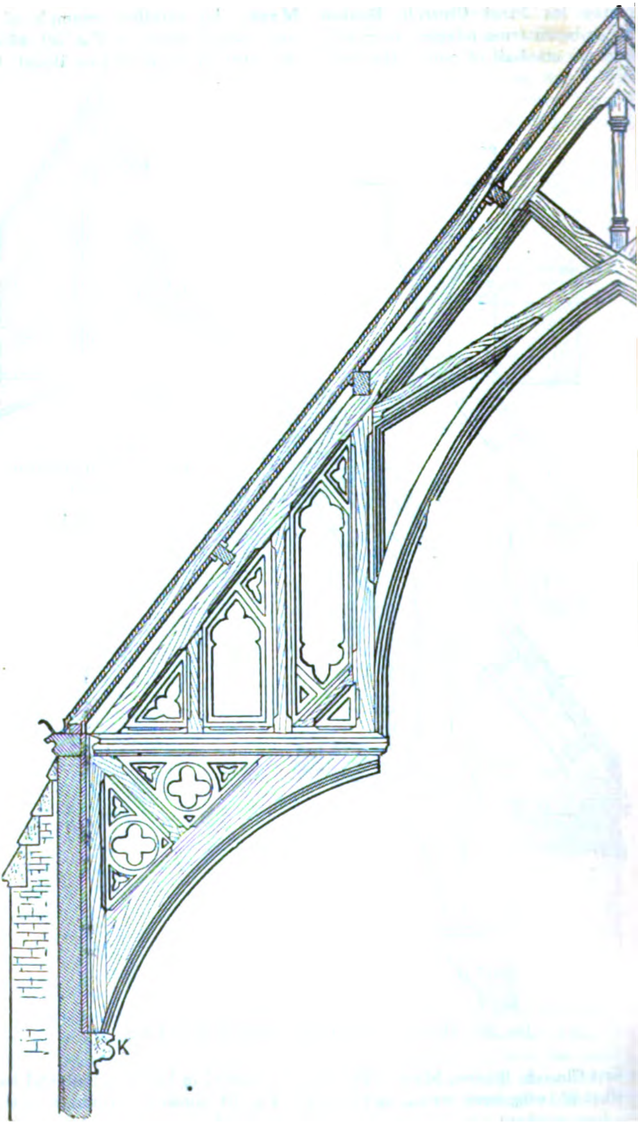

Fig. 30. Hammer-beam Truss. First Church, Boston, Mass.

rod, Fig. 31, which resists the tensile stress. In this form of truss the line of outward thrust of the arch enters the wall just above the CORBEL, *K*; and, as its direction is inclined only about 30° from the vertical, its tendency to overthrow the wall is not very great, and may be resisted, in this particular case, by a wall 20 in or 2 ft thick, thoroughly reinforced by a BUTTRESS of proper dimensions built on the outside. In trusses of this kind, the various members should be securely fastened together wherever they cross or touch each other, and the structure as a whole made as rigid as possible. No dependence should be placed upon the casings and panel-work for any extra strength.

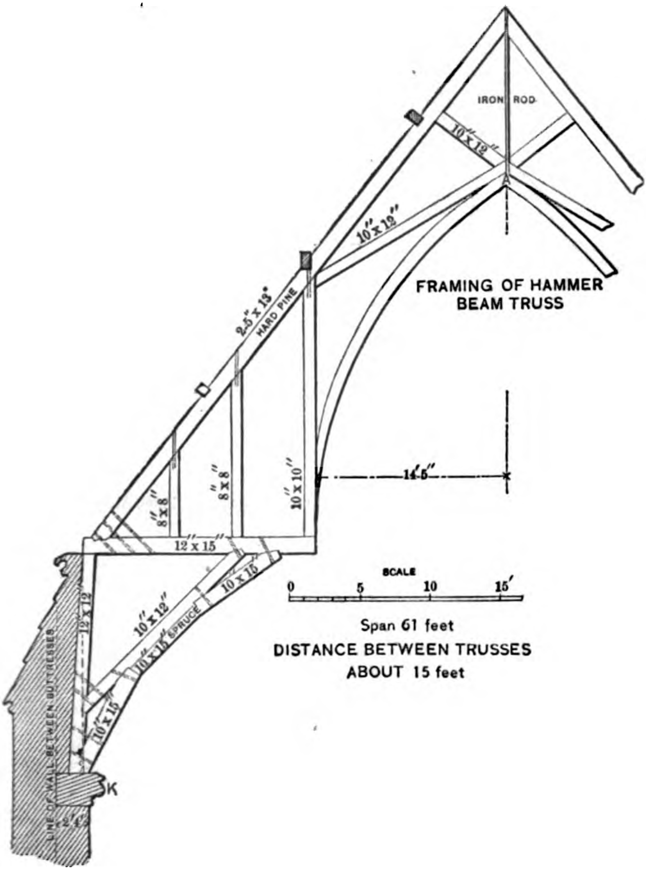

Fig. 31. Framing of Truss Shown in Fig. 30

Truss for Emmanuel Church, Shelburne Falls, Mass. Fig. 32 shows another form of truss designed by Van Brunt & Howe, for Emmanuel Church, Shelburne Falls, Mass. It is probably a VARIATION OF THE HAMMER-BEAM form and when securely bolted together at all the joints can be designed so as to exert very little thrust on the walls. The rafters and cross-tie are each formed of two pieces of timber, separated but bolted together, the small upright members passing between these pieces. The hammer-beams are carved

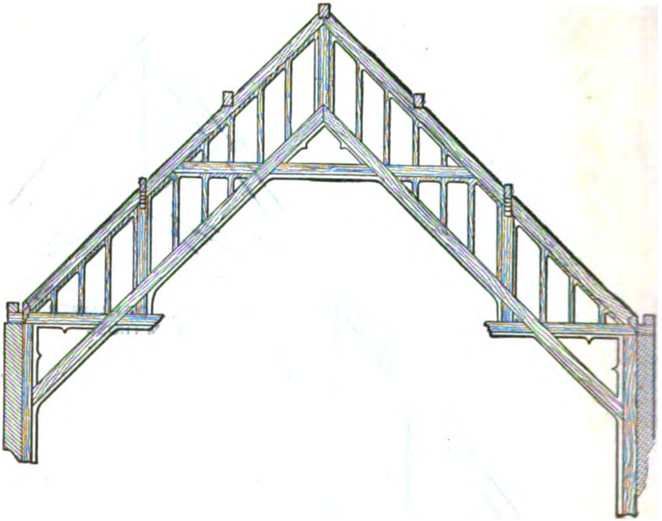
Fig. 32. Truss for Emmanuel Church, Shelburne Falls, Mass.

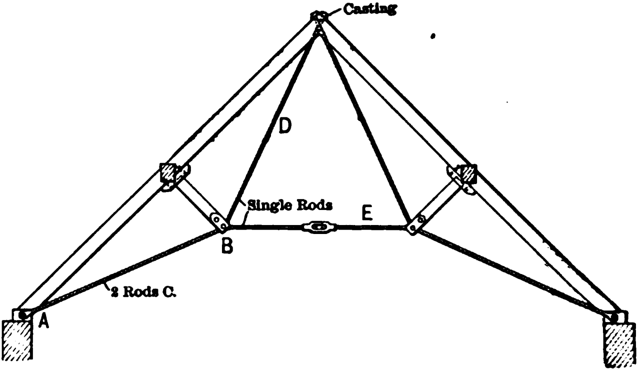

Fig. 33. Wooden Truss with Iron Ties. Spans up to Thirty-six Feet

to represent angels. The action of the stresses in hammer-beam trusses is explained in Chapter XXVII, pages 1087 to 1089.

Wooden Trusses with Iron Ties. Where there is no ceiling beneath the roof and it is desirable to make the trusses as light in appearance as possible, wrought-iron or steel rods may be used for the ties, and the wooden rafter-pieces and struts retained. For moderate spans such trusses are cheaper than steel trusses; and where the rafters and purlins are of wood they are about as good. Figs. 33 and 34 show forms of trusses well adapted to many roofs. The dimensions given in Fig. 34 are for yellow-pine or Douglas-fir timber and wrought-iron rods, and are ample for a slate roof, the trusses being spaced from 12 to 14 ft on centers. Trusses of the form shown in Fig. 33 are sometimes made with the rods *C* and *D* continuous. They should not be made in this way, however, unless the entire rod is proportioned for the stress in *C*, as this stress is greater than that in *D*. The best construction for the joint *B* is illustrated

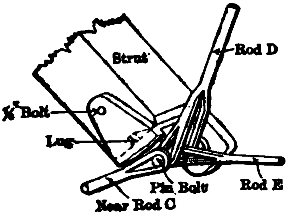

Fig. 33A. Detail of Joint *B*, Fig. 33

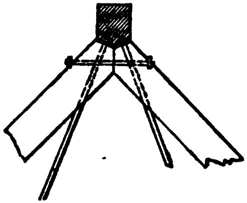

Fig. 33B. Detail of Joint at Ridge, Fig. 33

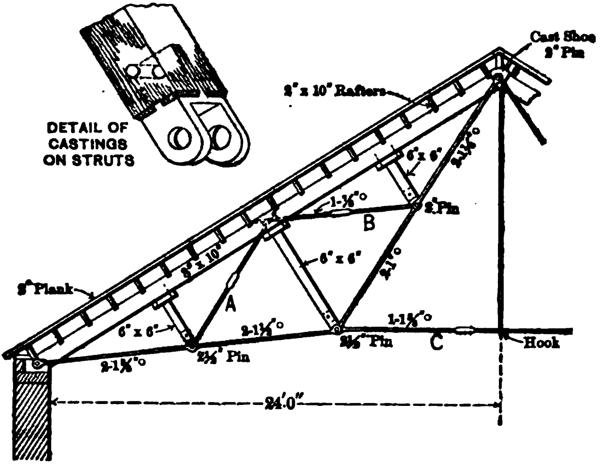

Fig. 34. Wooden Truss with Iron Ties

in Fig. 33A, which shows a CAST-IRON SHOE fitted to the end of the strut to receive the pin. For the truss shown in Fig. 34, a shoe made as shown in the detail drawing makes a better connection for the rods, two of the latter being placed outside of the brackets and three between them. For a truss with a single strut, a TURNBUCKLE on the rod *E* serves to tighten the rods. When there are three struts, there should be five turnbuckles, as in Fig. 34. A cast-iron shoe should be made to receive the foot of the rafter and the rods secured to a pin passed through shoe and rafter. At the apex, also, of the truss shown in Fig. 34, there should be castings to receive the ends of the rafters, and pins for the tie-bars. The apex-joint of the truss (Fig. 33) may be made either by crossing the rods through a CAST WASHER, or as shown in Fig. 33B. The pins at the joints should be computed for shear, bearing and flexure. More modern construction replaces the cast iron shown with STEEL PLATES and PINS. When a hammer-beam truss is to be supported on a clerestory-wall which is not very thick nor braced from the outside, a truss of the form shown in Fig. 35 may be used to advantage. It has the appearance of a hammer-beam truss and when placed over a high nave the effect of the rods is not objectionable. These tie-rods should extend through the hammer-beams to their outer ends.

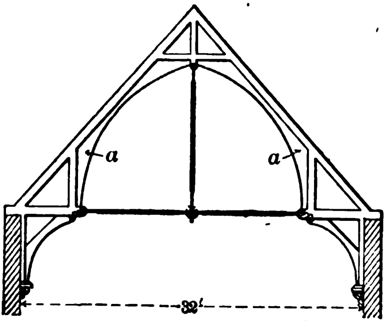

Fig. 35. Hammer-beam Truss for Grace Chapel, New York City

Truss for Grace Chapel, New York City. The CURVED RIBS *a*, *a*, Fig. 35, have a tendency to bend at their smallest section and BRACES under the hammer-beams are necessary to prevent vertical deflection in the latter. A truss similar to this was used in Grace Chapel, New York City.

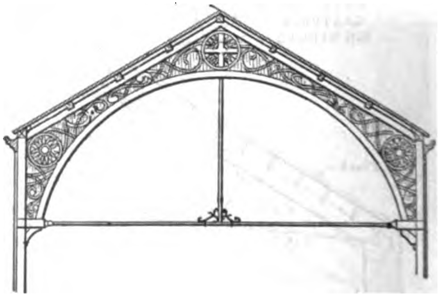

Fig. 36. Truss for Metropolitan Concert Hall, New York City

Truss for Metropolitan Concert-Hall, New York City. Fig. 36 shows a form of truss used to support the roof of the Metropolitan Concert-Hall, New York City, George B. Post, architect. The span is about 54 ft and the proportions are about as shown. The arch between rafters and raised rib is ornamented with sawed work and the truss has a very light and airy appearance. The tie-rod is kept from sagging by a vertical rod from the crown of the arch.

Wooden Arched Ribs with Iron or Steel Ties. For roofing large halls or rooms a SEGMENTAL TIMBER ARCH, with an iron or steel tie to take up the horizontal thrust, is about the cheapest construction, especially where there is no ceiling to be supported. Figs. 37 and 38 are good examples of this form of truss, the ARCHED RIBS supporting all the load and the TIE-RODS preventing the ends of the arch from the spreading which would result without them.

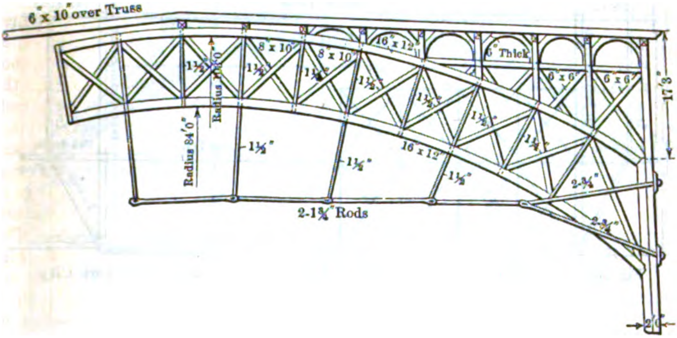

Fig. 37. Segmental Timber Arch

Truss for M. C. M. A. Building, Boston, Mass. This truss is shown in Fig. 37 and the framework shown above the arch is simply to support the purlins and rafters and carry the load directly to the arch. It does not assist the truss in any way in carrying the load.

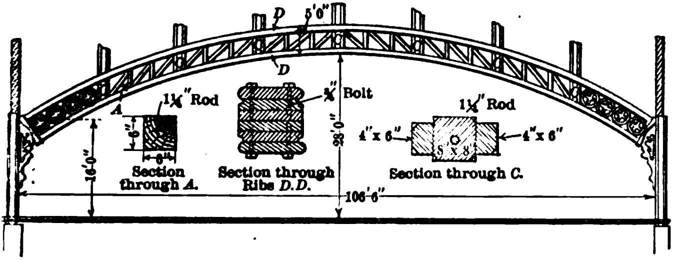

Fig. 38. Segmental Timber Arch

Trusses for the Fifth Avenue Riding-School, New York City. The method of supporting the roof of the Fifth Avenue Riding-School,* New York City, was rather unusual and very ingenious; and as it is an excellent example of the advantage of the arched form of truss, a brief description is added. The plan of the riding-room, which is 106 ft 6 in long by 73 ft wide, is shown in Fig. 39. This space is kept free from columns, the entire roof being supported by two large trusses, one of which is shown in Fig. 38. The entire roofing is supported by smaller trusses resting on these two large ones, each of the latter, however,

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* Remodeled in 1905. The old trusses were used in the altered structure.

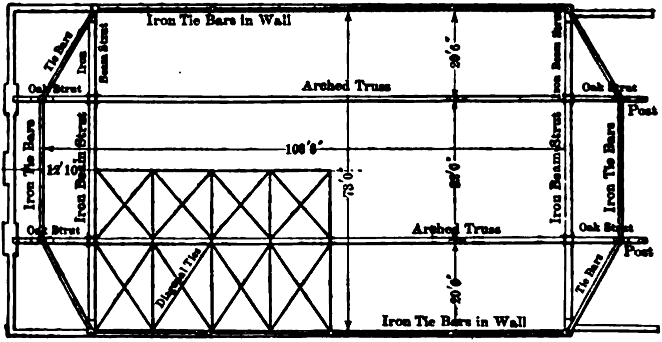

Fig. 39. Plan of Truss-framing of Fifth Avenue Riding-school, New York City

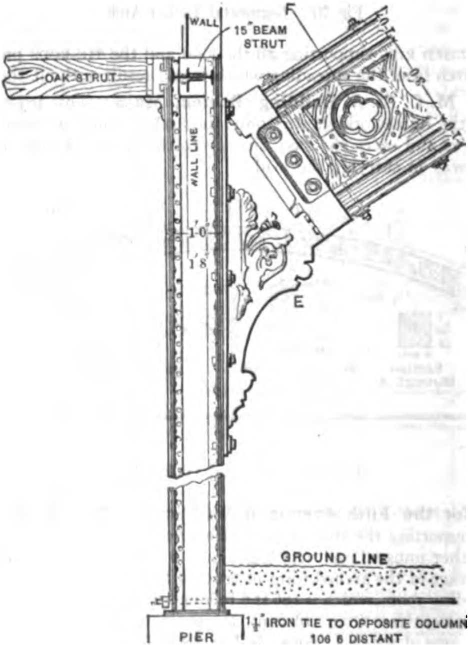

Fig 40. Detail of Iron Skewback and Post of Truss Shown in Fig. 38

eventually carrying a roof-area, equal to about 2 930 sq ft, and a great amount of extra framework. The method employed to resist the thrust of these large arches without the use of rods showing in the room is very ingenious. Opposite the upper ends of the iron posts which receive the arched ribs are oak struts held in place by iron tie-bars and heavy iron beams and together forming a horizontal truss at each end. These two trusses are prevented from being pushed out by two 3 by 1-in iron tie-bars in each side wall, as shown in the plan (Fig. 39). The lower ends of the two iron posts are tied together by iron rods running under the floor the whole length of the room. Altogether this gives for the tie-rods of each truss two 3 by 1-in iron bars and one 1½-in-diam iron rod, equivalent to two 3¾ by 1-in tie-bars. Enlarged sections of the ribs, uprights and braces are shown in Fig. 38. It should be noticed that the uprights have iron rods through their axes, holding the two ribs together. Fig. 40 shows a detail, o

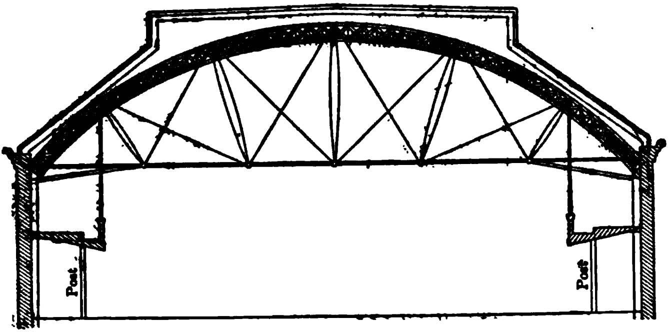

Fig. 41. Arched Wooden Truss. City Armory, Cleveland, Ohio. Span 79 feet

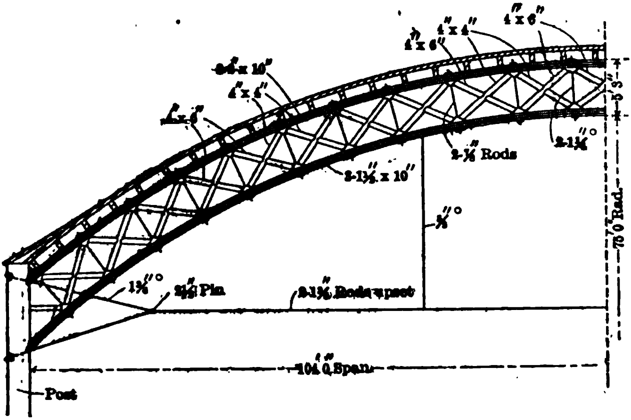

Fig. 42. Arched Wooden Truss, Sänger Hall, Philadelphia, Pa.

enlarged view, of the iron SKEWBACK and post at each end of the truss shown in Fig. 38.

Truss for City Armory, Cleveland, Ohio.* Fig. 41 shows the method adopted for supporting the roof and gallery, the arch being of wood.

Truss for Sänger Hall, Philadelphia.† Fig. 42 shows one-half of an ARCHED WOODEN TRUSS which, with seventeen others, was designed to support the roof over the central bay of Sänger Hall, Philadelphia, Hazelhurst & Huckel, architects. This building was erected in 1897 for the use of the Eighteenth National Sängerfest, and was intended only for temporary use. With the dimensions slightly increased, however, these trusses would be suitable for permanent use. They were spaced 20 ft center to center. A description of the building and trusses was published in the Engineering Record of January 9, 1897.

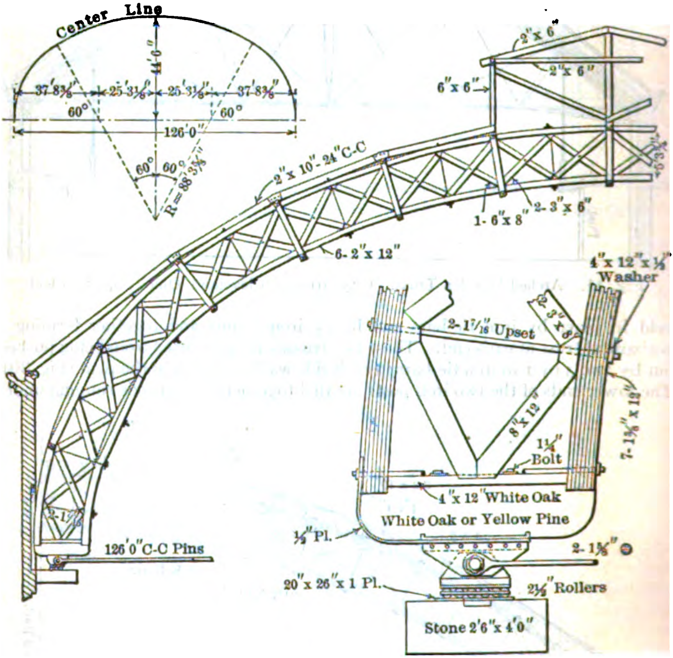

Fig. 43. Three-centered Curved Wooden Truss. O. N. G. Armory, Cincinnati, Ohio

Truss for the O. N. G. Armory, Cincinnati, Ohio. Fig. 43 shows a truss used in this building. The curve of the axial line of the arch-truss is a three-centered ellipse. Hannaford & Sons were the architects of the building and G. Bouscaren was the designer of the trusses. (See the Engineering and Building Record, December 7, 1889.)

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* The building has been remodeled and is now used for commercial purposes.

† This building was torn down immediately after the meeting.

2. Types of Steel Trusses

Trusses for Pitched Roofs. For ordinary conditions and for spans under 100 ft, some one of the types shown in Figs. 44 to 55 will generally meet the requirements of strength and economy. Trusses of these types are composed of rolled plates and angles and have riveted joints. This is not only a cheaper construction than a combination of shapes and rods with pin-joints but is also much more rigid. Where one dimension of the trusses does not exceed about 10 ft they can be completely riveted up in the shops. In case they are large a little judgment will divide them into parts which can be shipped by rail, leaving but few joints to be riveted at the building; but entire trusses having spans even of 100 ft can be raised from the ground and put in place. Occasionally a structure is of such magnitude that this is not feasible, in which case the trusses must be raised in parts and riveted afterwards. For a narrow shed or shop a truss of the shape shown in Fig. 44 is the most economical, the truss proper being that portion enclosed within the points *A*, *B*, *C*. This truss is practically the same as that shown in Fig. 45. For spans of from 24 to 48 ft, and inclinations not exceeding 6 in to the foot, the types shown in Figs. 46 and 47 are the most suitable. Trusses of the types represented by these two figures are called FAN TRUSSES. The truss shown in Fig. 45 is known as a SIMPLE FINK TRUSS. The truss shown in Fig. 47 is supported on columns, the KNEE-BRACES *B* and the pieces *A* being stressed only when the building is subjected to wind-pressure. A SAG-TIE, shown by the middle dotted line, Fig. 46, is generally inserted. When the roof-construction demands three purlins on each side of the truss,

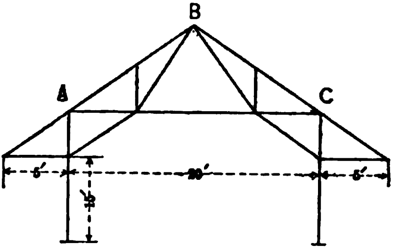

Fig. 44. Truss for a Narrow Shed or Shop

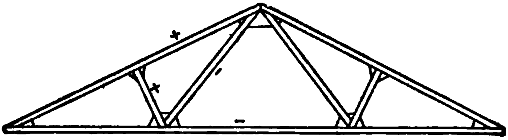

Fig. 45. Simple Fink Truss. Spans from Twenty to Thirty-six Feet

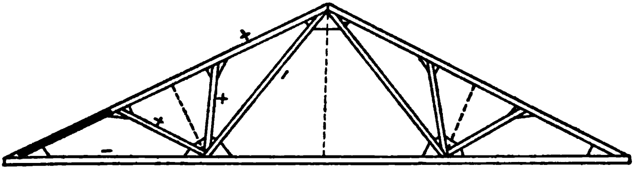

Fig. 46. Fan Truss. Spans from Thirty-six to Fifty Feet

one of the forms shown in Figs. 48, 49, 50, or 51 should be used. The term FRENCH appears to be generally given to those trusses in which the tie-beam is raised or cambered in the middle. The truss shown in Fig. 51 may be called

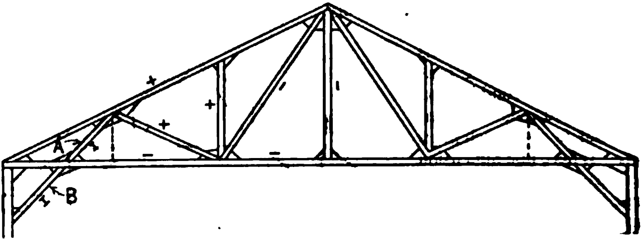

Fig. 47. Fan Truss with Knee-braces. Spans from Forty to Sixty Feet

a TRIANGULAR PRATT TRUSS as the web is composed of verticals in compression and diagonals in tension. This truss is not as economical as the FINK TRUSS, except when the inclination of the rafter is less than ¼ pitch. This is on account of the great length of the web-members in compression. In designing

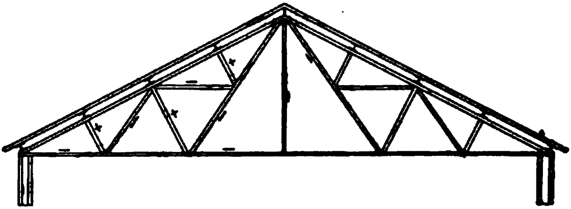

Fig. 48. Fink Truss. Spans from Forty to Eighty Feet

steel trusses it is desirable to have as many members, and especially as many long members, in tension as possible, as a given weight of steel resists a much greater stress when in tension than when in compression. The great economy of FINK TRUSSES and FAN TRUSSES lies in the fact that most of the members

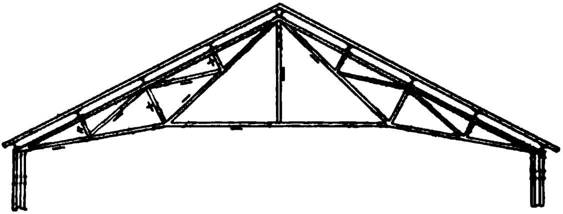

Fig. 49. French Truss. Spans from Forty to Eighty Feet

are in tension and the struts are short. By comparing Figs. 50 and 51, it is seen that the inner strut in Fig. 50 is only one-half as long as the strut in Fig. 51. If the roof is hipped it is desirable to have vertical members in the hip-trusses to receive the short trusses or TRUSSED PURLINS.

Depth of Fink and Fan Trusses. The DEPTH of these trusses at the middle is usually determined by the roofing-material. Thus slate should not be used on a roof in which the rise is not equal to one-third the span. For wooden shingles the rise should be not less than one-fourth and for corrugated iron not less than one-fifth the span. Steel-roll roofing may be used where the rise is but one-twelfth the span. There are many kinds of so-called READY ROOFING put up in rolls which may be used for any slope exceeding ¾ in to the foot. Tar-and-gravel roofing should never be used on a slope exceeding ⅝ in to the foot. Considering the construction of the roof and the weight of the trusses, the most economical pitch for a roof is about one-fourth the span, or what is commonly called a QUARTER-PITCH, the rise of the rafters being 6 in for each 12 in of run, or 26° 34′. When the rise is less than one-sixth the span some other type of truss is generally required. When the inclination of the roof is determined almost entirely by the question of economy the rise is generally made from 6 to 7 in in 12 in. With FINK TRUSSES or FAN TRUSSES having inclinations for the rafters not exceeding 30°, it is more economical to employ a horizontal chord or tie. A truss whose bottom chord has a rise of 2 or 3 ft, as in Fig. 49, presents a better appearance, however, than one with a horizontal chord. Raising the bottom chord also materially increases the stresses in the truss-members and hence increases the cost. For steep roofs, however, it is generally as economical to raise the bottom chord, because of the shortening of the members.

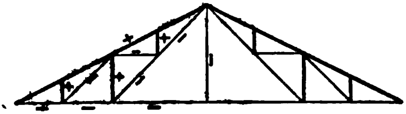
Fig. 50. Fink Truss with Vertical Struts

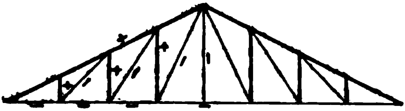
Fig. 51. Triangular Pratt Truss

Number of Panels. The NUMBER OF PANELS that should be used in each half of the truss is determined in great measure by the construction of the roof. If jack-rafters and purlins are used the length of a panel may be as great as 12 ft; if there are no jack-rafters and the planking of the roof is nailed directly to the purlins, the latter are placed not more than 8 ft apart; and if the roof is covered with corrugated iron secured to the purlins, the purlins should be not more than 5 ft on centers. Whenever the purlins are more than 4 ft apart they should be placed at the truss-joints to prevent large bending-stresses in the top chord.

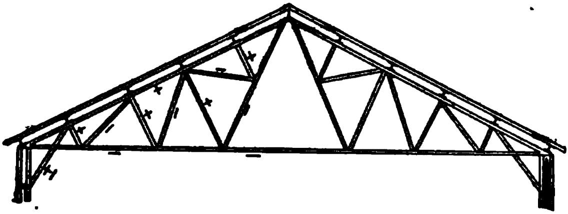
Fig. 52. Fink Truss with Knee-braces. Span Sixty-eight Feet

The spacing of the purlins, therefore, generally determines the number of panels in each half of the truss. For this reason also, the same form of truss may be required for spans of 40 and 80 ft; but of course the members will not be as heavy in the 40-ft truss as in the one with greater span. Most of the trusses shown in Figs. 45 to 55 are drawn from executed designs and give a good idea of the most economical division for different spans.

Truss over Car-Barn, Newark, N. J. When stresses due to flexure are developed in the truss-rafters, that is, when they are loaded between the joints the distance between the latter should not exceed 9 ft, and preferably 7 or 8 ft depending somewhat upon the distance between the trusses themselves. The diagram shown in Fig. 55 represents one-half of one of the steel trusses used in roofing a car-barn for the North Jersey Railway Company, Newark, N. J. There are 13 of these trusses spaced 19 ft 2¼ in on centers, each having a span of 98¼ ft between the centers of the supporting columns, to which they are riveted by splice-plates engaging the end connection-plates and the webs of the columns. The dimensions of the principal members of these trusses are indicated in connection with Fig. 55. There is a more complete description in the Engineering Record of June 22, 1901. These trusses were shipped in four sections, which were assembled on the ground in a horizontal plane and riveted up complete. The bottom chord was stiffened by rails lashed on each side of its entire length, and a sling being attached to the apex of the top chord, the truss was lifted and set on top of the columns by a gin-pole, 50 ft in length. The roofing consists of corrugated iron supported by 5-in I-beam purlins, weighing 10 lb to the foot, spanning from truss to truss and bolted to the rafters with

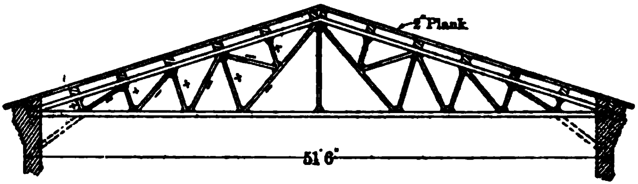

Fig. 53. Fink Truss. Span Fifty-one Feet Six Inches

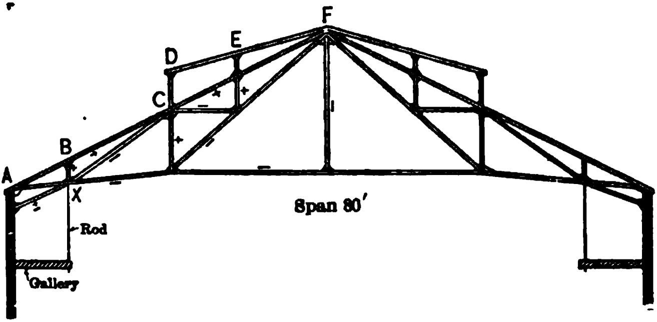

Fig. 54. Fink Truss with Vertical Struts, for Drill-hall. Span Eighty Feet

two bolts at each end. The general spacing of the purlins is 4 ft 9⅝ in. This is a good example of an extremely light roof, the weight of each truss being about 4 200 lb and the entire weight of truss, purlins, bracing of lower chord and corrugated-iron roofing being only 8 lb for each horizontal foot of surface covered.

Table III. List of Descriptions of Different Types of Roof-Trusses

Engineering Record

Date	Type	Number of panels
March 19, 1892	Howe	8
July 20, 1901	Fink Fan	8 12
January 4, 1902	Fink	8
February 22, 1902	Pratt	6
August 12, 1905	Fan	12
September 2, 1905	Fan	12
September 16, 1905	Fink	8
November 2, 1907	Truss	16
September 16, 1911	Truss	12
October 7, 1911	Fink	16

Truss over Drill-hall. The truss shown in Fig. 54 was designed for the roof of a drill-hall having a span of 80 ft and a spacing between trusses of 20 ft. The roof was to be constructed with 2 by 8-in rafters supported by purlins at the points *A*, *B*, *C*, *D*, *E* and *F*. Sashes were to be placed in the rise *CD*, to light the interior of the building. The joint at *X* was located with reference to the position of the gallery-rod; but if there had been no gallery it would have been more economical to space the vertical struts uniformly, as in Fig. 50. In all the trusses illustrated the PLUS SIGN adjacent to a member denotes that the member is in COMPRESSION, while the MINUS SIGN denotes that it is in TENSION. The members above the main rafter, as *CD*, *DE* and *EF*, in Fig. 54, and *a* and *b* in Fig. 55, do not form a part of the truss proper, but are merely a framework to

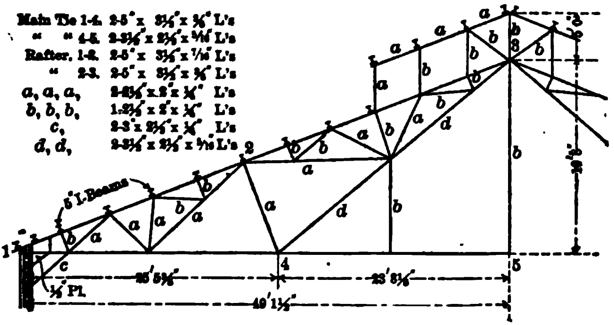
Main Tie 1-4. 2-5" x 3½" x ⅜" L's
" " 4-5. 2-3½" x 2½" x 5/16" L's
Rafter. 1-2. 2-5" x 3½" x 7/16" L's
" 2-3. 2-5" x 3½" x ⅜" L's
a, a, a, 2-2½" x 2" x ¼" L's
b, b, b, 1-2½" x 2" x ¼" L's
c, 2-3" x 2½" x ¼" L's
d, d, 2-3½" x 2½" x 5/16" L's
5" I-Beams
½" Pl.
1
2
3
4
5
a
b
c
d
25'5⅜"
23'8⅛"
49'1½"

Fig. 55. Truss over Car-barn, Newark, N. J. Span Ninety-eight Feet, Three Inches. (See, also, Chapter XXVIII, Fig. 25)

support the elevated roof, and in drawing the stress-diagram for the vertical loads they would be omitted.

In the issues of the Engineering Record given in Table III may be found descriptions and illustrations of several types of roof-trusses, including the forms described above.

Fink Trusses with Pin-Joints. The use of PIN-JOINTS in ordinary roof-trusses has practically been abandoned, even for long-span heavy trusses. In the Engineering Record of March 12, 1892, there is a description of a Fink truss with pin-joints. The truss is heavy and is built entirely of rolled metal. The tension-members are 5, 6 and 7-in eye-bars. The span is about 105 ft.

Trusses for Flat Roofs. For supporting flat roofs or roofs having a fall not exceeding 1 in to the foot, one of the types shown in Figs. 56 to 60 will generally be found economical, the choice of the particular type depending somewhat on the span and on whether the truss is supported by columns or by brick or stone walls. For spans up to about 50 ft, either of the forms shown in Figs. 56 or 57 answer all practical requirements. The truss shown in Fig. 56 is intended to be used where the slope of the roof is at right-angles to the truss. It can be built, however, with the top chord inclined as in Fig. 57. The end-diagonals in Fig. 56 are in tension, while in Fig. 57 they are in compression. The portions of the lower chord between the end-joints and the walls (Fig. 56) have no stress from the roof-load, but are put in to add rigidity to the construction as a whole. In trusses supported by brick walls this type is preferable to that shown in Fig. 57, while the latter is more suitable when the roof is supported by columns. The vertical *A*, Fig. 57, is inserted to receive the tension or compression from brace *B*, and has no stress from the roof-loads.

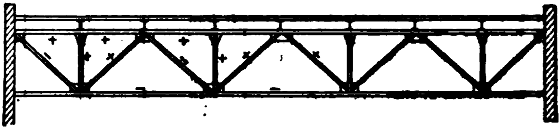

Fig. 56. Warren Truss with Verticals. Span Fifty-six Feet

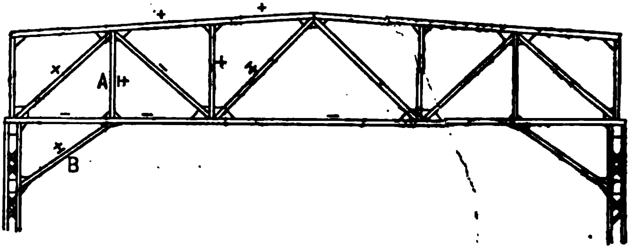

Fig. 57. Warren Truss with Verticals and Knee-braces. Spans from Thirty to Fifty Feet

Double Warren Truss. The truss shown in Fig. 58 is known as a DOUBLE WARREN TRUSS, and is desirable where it is important to make the trusses as shallow as practicable. It can be built with light members, and is a very stiff uss, being especially suitable for roofs supported by steel columns. Fig. 58 drawn from a truss in actual use. The member in the middle indicated by the otted line should never be omitted, although examples may be found where it as not been included. Fig. 59, also, represents a roof-truss which was con- ructed with a span of 57 ft and supported by steel columns. The entire load n the truss is transmitted to the columns at the intersection of the diagonals

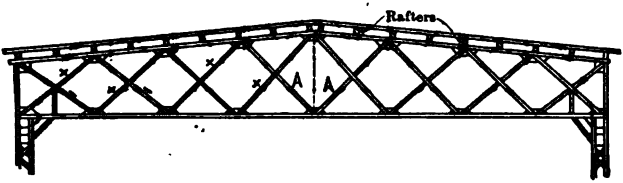

Fig. 58. Double Warren Truss

BB and the top chord. Fig. 60 shows a truss of 96-ft span over a pier-shed, New York City, the trusses being spaced 20 ft apart. They are about 10 ft high and weigh 1 300 lb each. They were delivered from the shops completely assembled and riveted, and were raised and set in position by falls suspended from two masts. The dimensions of these trusses are given in the Engineering Record of January 18, 1896.

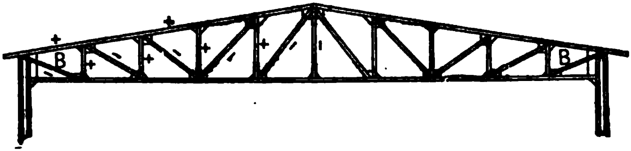

Fig. 59. Pratt-truss Type. Span Fifty-seven Feet

The Plus and Minus Signs in these illustrations, as has been mentioned before, indicate compression and tension, respectively, under a uniformly distributed dead load. The plus and minus signs used together indicate that the member may be subject to either tension or compression according to the direction of the wind or to the manner of distribution of the snow. In most of these trusses unsymmetrical loads may change the stresses in the

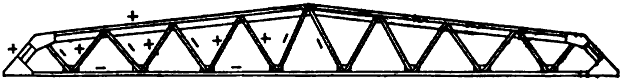

Fig. 60. Warren-truss Type. Pier-shed, New York City. Span Ninety-six Feet

diagonals near the middle of the truss. This changing of stresses due to unequal loading is considered on pages 1096 to 1104. The trusses shown in Figs. 56 to 60 are almost invariably built with riveted connections and with angle or channel-shapes for all members.

The Pratt Truss, shown in Figs. 61 and 62, is the form of steel truss best adapted to support floor-loads, the members indicated by double lines being in compression and those indicated by single lines in tension. Wher supporting floors are subject to moving loads, COUNTERTIES should be inserted where indicated by dotted lines. For trusses of this type PIN-CONNECTIONS are generally employed and are preferable to RIVETED CONNECTIONS.

The Quadrangular Truss. The truss shown in Fig. 63 is known as a QUADRANGULAR TRUSS, and has the proportions of the truss over the amphitheater of the Madison Square Garden, New York. Figs. 64 and 66, also, show variations of this type, differing, however, from the latter in having all the diagonals in each half-truss inclined in the same direction. In the typical truss their direction is usually reversed at about the middle of each half-span in order to keep them in tension. The PLUS AND MINUS SIGNS indicate the kind of stress produced in a member by a uniformly distributed dead load. It should be noticed that the middle diagonals of trusses 64 and 66 are in compression. These trusses are well adapted to steel construction and to spans up to 180 ft. When the span exceeds 100 ft one end of the truss should be supported on ROLLERS to allow for the EXPANSION or CONTRACTION in the steel. In these trusses the load is transmitted to the top of the column-support, the truss proper being included within the points *A*, *B*, *C*, *D* and *E*, Figs. 64 and 65. The continuation of the bottom chord to the columns is for the purpose of bracing the roof from the latter, there being no stresses in these end-chord members due to vertical loads. This member *B*, Fig. 63, and the corresponding member in Figs. 64 and 65 should be constructed to resist both tension and compression. For short spans the lower

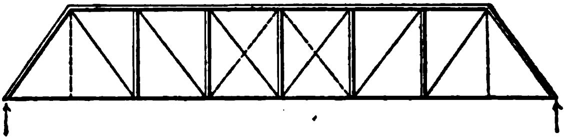

Fig. 61. Pratt Truss

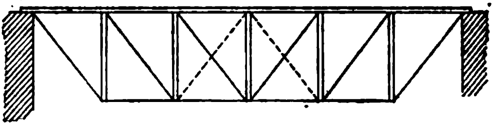

Fig. 62. Suspended Pratt Truss

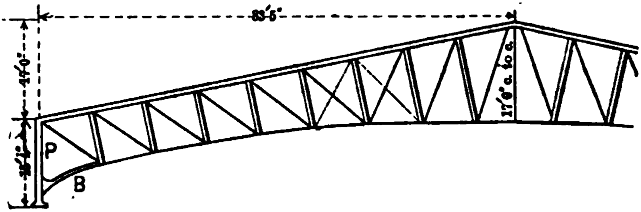

Fig. 63. Quadrangular Truss. Amphitheater, Madison Square Garden, New York City

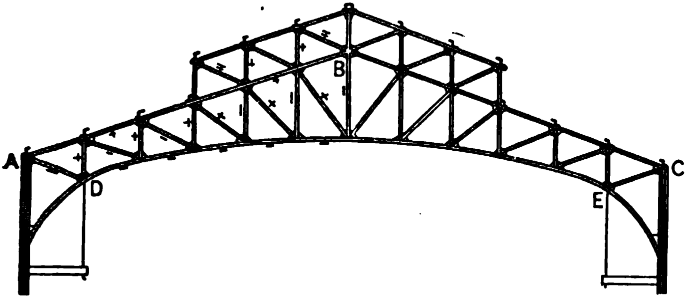

Fig. 64. Quadrangular Truss. Span Eighty Feet

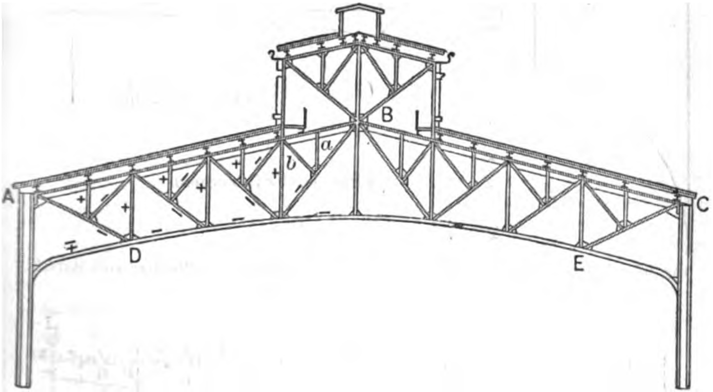

Fig. 65. Quadrangular Truss

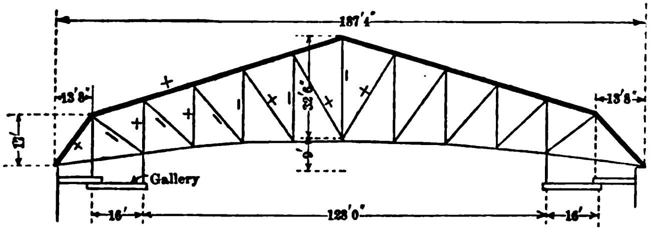

DIAGRAM OF TRUSS

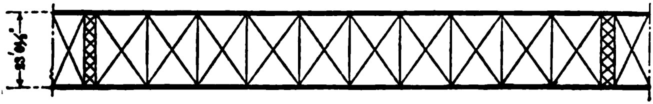

Fig. 66. Diagrams of Trusses in Auditorium, Kansas City, Mo. Plan of Two Trusses Showing Lateral Bracing

chord may be made in the shape of a semicircle or half-ellipse so as to gi
more of an arch-effect. There are numerous examples in this country of qua

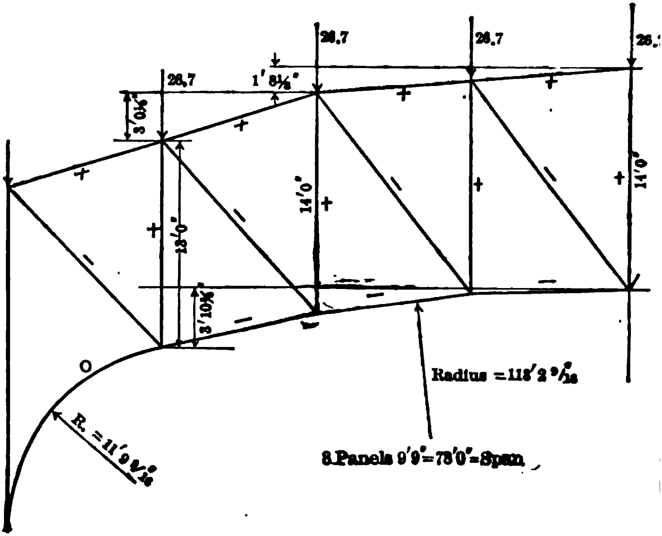

Fig. 67. Riveted Truss with Broken Top Chord. Power-house, Interborough Rapid Transit Company, New York City

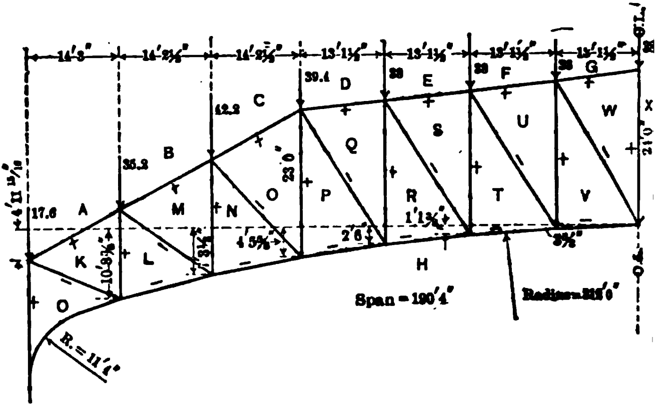

Fig. 68. Pin-connected Truss Over Drill-hall, 71st Regiment Armory, New York City

rangular trusses having spans of from 100 to 180 ft. For the wider spans it i customary to build the trusses with PIN-CONNECTIONS, EYE-BARS being used fo the ties. When this is done it is usually necessary to insert COUNTERBRACE in two panels on each side of the truss as shown by the dotted lines, Fig. 63, as under an unsymmetrical or wind-load the stresses in the diagonals are generally reversed. For spans less than 100 ft, the trusses may be built with RIVETED CONNECTIONS. In this case the diagonals are generally made of angles capable of resisting both tension and compression, the counterbraces, therefore, not being required. For this type of truss the stresses due to wind and snow should be computed independently of the dead load and the members computed for the maximum stresses produced by every possible combination of loading.

Trusses for the Auditorium, Kansas City, Mo. A description, with illustrations, of the truss shown in Fig. 66, which is a diagram of one of the trusses over the Kansas City Auditorium, may be found in the Engineering Record for July 22, 1899, and in the Engineering News of November 2, 1899.

Riveted Truss with Broken Top Chord. A description is given in the Engineering Record of October 15, 1904. The span is 78 ft between centers of the supporting columns (Fig. 67).

Truss for Drill-Hall, New York City. A pin-connected truss, over the drill-hall of the 71st Regiment Armory, New York City, has a span of 190 ft 4 in and full descriptions of it are given in the Engineering News of June 16, 1904, and in the Engineering Record of July 2, 1904 (Fig. 68).

4. Arched Trusses

Difference Between an Arched Truss and a Trussed Arch. For supporting the roof of very large spaces such as drill-halls, riding-halls, railway train-sheds, etc., trusses in the form of arches or arches composed of trussed members are often employed. The essential difference between an ARCHED TRUSS and a TRUSSED ARCH is that under vertical loads the supporting forces of an arched truss are vertical, while for a trussed arch they are inclined.

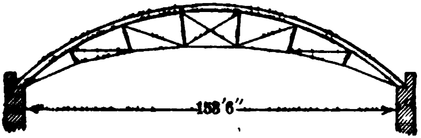

Fig. 69. Bowstring Truss

Bowstring Trusses. Previous to the year 1880 most of the wrought-iron trusses of wide span were built in the form of a bow, from which the term BOWSTRING was derived. Trusses of this type were built with spans of from 88 to 211 ft and with a rise at the middle of from ⅛ to ¼ the span. At that time this type was considered the most economical for spans exceeding 120 ft, but in recent years they have been comparatively little used. Fig. 69 is the diagram of a bowstring truss with a span of 153 ft 6 in. The trusses in this particular case are spaced 21 ft 6 in apart. The arched top chord consists of a wrought-iron deck-beam 9 in deep, with a 10 by 1⅛-in plate, riveted to its upper flange. Towards the springing this rib is strengthened with 7 by ⅞-in plates riveted on each side of the deck-beam. The struts are wrought-iron I beams 7 in deep. The bottom chord has a sectional area of 6⅛ sq in and each diagonal tension-rod a

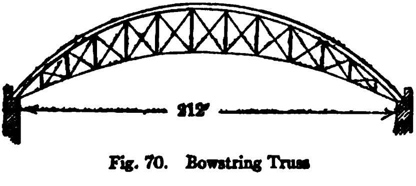

Fig. 70. Bowstring Truss

diameter of 1¼ in. Each truss is fixed at one end and rests on ROLLERS at the other, allowing free expansion and contraction due to changes of temperature in the metal. Fig. 70 shows a similar truss having a span of 212 ft. It consists of BOWSTRING PRINCIPALS spaced 24 ft apart. The rise is one-fifth the span, the middle of the bottom chord rising 17 ft, and of the top chord 40½ ft above the springing. The top chord is a 15-in wrought-iron I beam and the bottom chord a round rod in short lengths, 4 in in diameter and thickened at the joints. The ties of the bracing are of plate iron from 5 to 3 in in width, and ⅝ in thick. The struts are formed of bars having the form of a cross. During the last ten or twelve years a number of roofs have been supported on trusses which can hardly be classed as SIMPLE TRUSSES; and yet it is questionable if they are TRUE ARCHES. Probably the frames act partially as simple trusses and partially as arches.

Trusses for the Conservatory Building, Garfield Park, Chicago, Ill. Engineering News, August 27, 1908. The roof is supported by POINTED TRUSSES spaced 12 ft 6 in on centers. The truss-span is 80 ft 6 in, center to center of end-supports. The chords of the trusses are parallel and connected by WARREN BRACING. Both ends of the trusses are bolted to the supports and consequently there must be some horizontal thrust under certain conditions. The trusses are riveted at all joints and have no HINGES or PINS.

Trusses for the Chicago and North Western Railway Station, Chicago, Ill. Engineering Record, June 18, 1910. The roof over the main waiting-room is carried by trusses each having a span of 90 ft 4 in and a rise of 31 ft and being riveted to columns about 27 ft 6 in apart. All connections are riveted. The clear height of the bottom chords at the middle is 84 ft.

Trusses for the Peoria and Pekin Union Railway Trains-Shed, Peoria, Ill. Engineering Record, December 8, 1900. The trusses are riveted to columns about 30 ft above the floor and spaced 20 ft apart. The truss-span is 109 ft 4 in, center to center of end-supports, with a clear rise of about 10 ft. The depth at the middle is 18 ft and at the end 6 ft. All connections are riveted.

Trusses for the New Union Station, Washington, D. C. Engineering Record, February 6, 1904. The concourse-roof is supported by CRESCENT TRUSSES, each having a span of 132 ft 5½ in and a clear rise of 22 ft 5½ in. They are spaced about 39 ft 4 in apart. One end of each truss rests upon masonry and the other is riveted to a heavy plate girder. All connections are riveted. The bottom chord at the middle is 45 ft above the floor. The trusses over the waiting-room of the same station have a span of 137 ft 8 in and a rise of 45 ft 5 in. The chords are parallel and the ends are anchored with bolts to the masonry.

Trusses for the Riding-Hall, Armory for Squadron C, National Guard, Brooklyn, N. Y. Engineering News, August 29, 1907. The main trusses have a span of 179 ft 2 in and a rise of about 66 ft in the clear. The total depth of the truss at the middle is 14 ft, while at the ends, where the chords approach each other and finally become vertical, it is 3 ft 3 in. One end is anchored to the masonry and the other is on rollers. The trusses are in pairs 10 ft 11½ in on centers and the pairs are spaced 38 ft 8½ in on centers. All connections are riveted.

Trusses for the New Rock Island Terminal Station Train-Shed, Chicago, Ill. Engineering Record, September 12, 1903. Engineering News, August 6, 1903. The trusses over the tracks have a span of 221 ft 1 in center to center of the end-pins, a rise of 28 ft and a depth at the middle of 25 ft 6 in. They are supported by columns and are spaced from 10 ft 3 in to 19 ft 6 in apart. All principal connections are made with pins.

Curved Trusses with Horizontal Ties. CURVED or ARCHED TRUSSES are often constructed with a horizontal member connecting the ends at the supports. This makes the structure as a whole, including the horizontal member, usually called the TIE-ROD, a SIMPLE TRUSS requiring only vertical supporting forces for vertical loads, provided one end is free to move, as it is when placed on rollers. When the trusses are supported by long columns it may be assumed that the ends have freedom. A few examples are given, some of which are commonly classed as TRUE ARCHES.

Trusses for the Sullivan Square Station, Elevated Railway, Boston, Mass. Engineering Record, June 15, 1901. Fig. 71. These ARCHES spring from steel columns and are provided with tension-rods which take up the thrust. The arch proper rests on two 4¼-in pins at each end, as indicated in the diagram, the tie-rods being connected to them. The bracing below each pin is riveted to the column and the arch itself is built of angles and plates with riveted connections. Fig. 71A shows the joint at *A* where the tie-rods are connected and held up by a 1-in SUSPENSION-ROD from the crown of the arch. This construction is the same in principle as that of the WOODEN ARCH shown by Fig. 42.

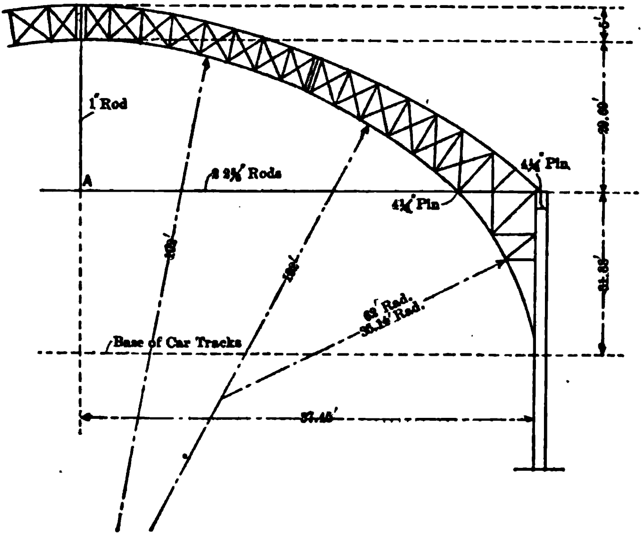

Fig. 71. Arched Truss for Sullivan Square Station, Elevated Railway, Boston, Mass.

United States Express Company's Receiving Station, New York City. Engineering Record, October 22, 1904. The roof-trusses in this building are supported on 24-in brick walls at the level of the second-story floor and have their ends connected by I beams which form a part of the floor-framing of the second story. Each truss has a span of 74 ft 4 in and a clear rise of 27 ft. They are spaced about 24 ft 5 in apart and have all connections riveted. Since the ties are very heavy one might be led to classify these trusses with TRUE ARCHES, fixed at the ends; but as the condition of FIXED ENDS rarely obtains in practice, it is better to consider this type of structure as an ARCHED TRUSS with a tie-rod, or possibly as similar to the type shown in Fig. 75.

Table IV. General Dimensions of a Few Three-Hinged Arches

Location	Span ft	Span in	Rise ft	Rise in	Tie
Syracuse University	101	4	...	...	Floor-beams
Lawson Riding-Academy	106	0	56	2¼	No tie
Machinery Hall, Chicago Exp.	121	10	96	3	†Two 1⅛ × 1⅞
22nd Reg. Armory, New York	134	0	32	6	
Coliseum, Chicago (new)	149	9	66	6	†2½ × 2½
Newark, N. J., Armory	163	6	73	5⅝	†Two 2¾ round rods
Government Bldg., St. Louis Exp.	172	0	69	9½	9-in I beam
Coliseum, St. Louis	178	6	80	0	No tie
Hartford, Conn., Armory	181	0	90	2½	No tie
Frankfort, Germany, Train-Shed	184	0	94	(about)	No tie
69th Reg. Drill-Hall, New York	189	8	103	4½	†Two 1¾-in round rods
5th Reg. Armory, Baltimore, Md.	190	4	88	0‡	Two channels
47th Reg. Armory, Brooklyn, N. Y.	191	4	84	0	†Two 4 × ⅞-in plates
Coliseum, Chicago (old)	215	0	73	0	
74th Reg. Armory, Buffalo, N. Y.	227	0	94	0	
Coal-Shed, Wende, N. J.	230	0	...	...	†9 × 7/16-in plate
Jersey City Train-Shed	252	8	89	9¾	Two 12-in I beams
Philadelphia Train-Shed	259	0	88	3½	
Broad Street Station, Phila.	300	8	100	4	
Manufactures and Liberal Arts Bldg., Chicago Exp.	368	0	206	4	

Location	Distance, center to center*	Reference
Syracuse University	17 ft 11½ in	R. Aug. 22, 1908
Lawson Riding-Academy	32 ft 0 in	R. Dec. 31, 1904
Machinery Hall, Chicago Exp.	50 ft 8 in	R. Dec. 24, 1892
22nd Reg. Armory, New York	11 and 52 ft	N. May 5, 1910
Coliseum, Chicago (new)	22½ to 25 ft	N. Sept. 14, 1899
Newark, N. J., Armory	31 and 26½ ft	R. May 26, 1900
Government Bldg., St. Louis Exp.	35 ft 0 in	N. Sept. 29, 1904
Coliseum, St. Louis	36 ft 8 in	N. Aug. 10, 1899
Hartford, Conn., Armory	6 and 52⅝ ft	R. Sept. 12, 1908
Frankfort, Germany, Train-Shed	33 ft 6 in	R. Mar. 5, 1892
69th Reg. Drill-Hall, New York	6⅝ and 38¾ ft	R. June 3, 1905
5th Reg. Armory, Baltimore, Md.	....	R. May 14, 1904
47th Reg. Armory, Brooklyn, N. Y.	34 ft 4 in	R. Dec. 23, 1899
Coliseum, Chicago (old)	46 ft 8 in	N. Nov. 12, 1896
74th Reg. Armory, Buffalo, N. Y.	....	R. June 9, 1900
Coal-Shed, Wende, N. J.	22 ft 10¼ in	R. Oct. 3, 1908
Jersey City Train-Shed	14½ and 43½ ft	N. Sept. 25, 1899
Philadelphia Train-Shed	....	R. July 16, 1892
Broad Street Station, Phila.	....	R. June 10, 1893
Manufactures and Liberal Arts Bldg., Chicago Exp.	....	N. Sept. 1, 1892

* Center to center of end-supports. † Dimensions in inches.
‡ To lower chord. N. Engineering News. R. Engineering Record.

Trusses for Drill-Hall, 13th Regiment Armory, Scranton, Pa. Engineering Record, August 24, 1901. These roof-trusses are about 5 ft deep and are spaced about 12 ft on centers. The truss-span is 156 ft, over all, with a rise of 47 ft in the clear. The ends rest on flat plates and are connected by a tie consisting of two 1⅝-in round rods. Freedom of motion is provided at one end by slotting the holes for the anchor-bolts.

Trusses for Armory Drill-Hall, Providence, R. I. Engineering Record, April 13, 1907. The type of roof-truss used in this building is commonly called a THREE-HINGED ARCH, there being a pin at each support and one at the crown; but the two end-pins are connected by a tie and one end-shoe is provided with rollers and hence the structure is a SIMPLE TRUSS composed of three members, two of which are trusses in themselves. The truss-span is 166 ft 8 in and the rise about 61 ft. The trusses are riveted and spaced about 26 ft 1 in on centers.

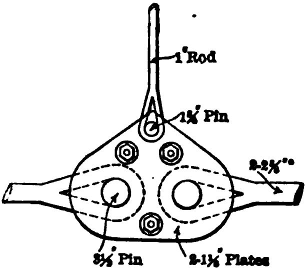

Fig. 71A. Detail at *A*, Fig. 71.

Trusses for the Pennsylvania Railway Train-Shed, Pittsburgh, Pa. Engineering Record, August 23, 1902. The trusses have three HINGES and a TIE and a ROLLER-BEARING at one end. The truss-span is 255 ft ⅝ in between end-pin centers, the rise 93 ft between pin-centers and the depth at the center 7 ft. The trusses are riveted and stand in pairs 9 ft on centers and the pairs are spaced 49 ft 6 in on centers.

The Three-hinged Arch as employed for supporting the roofs over large rooms, train-sheds, drill-halls, etc., is composed of two CURVED TRUSSES, usually of the same form and dimensions, resting upon PINS at the supports and connected by a PIN over the middle of the span. The supports are assumed to be FIXED in position and are often connected by a TIE to insure stability and take up the horizontal thrust of the arch. While a metal tie between masonry supports does not make these supports FIXED in position under all or any conditions of loading, yet for all practical purposes they may be so considered; and these THREE-HINGED STRUCTURES which have ties, provided there is no arrangement for horizontal end-movement due to roller-bearings, etc., may be classified with those whose supports must resist all horizontal as well as all vertical forces. The bottom pins are usually placed below the floor-level so that the tie-rods, when used, may be concealed by the floor or even made a part of its framing. Under certain conditions the arches can be so designed that the horizontal thrust will be quite small and the supports designed without the use of the horizontal tie. The special advantages of the THREE-HINGED ARCH for the class of buildings above mentioned are economy and a maximum amount of clear space beneath the truss. Much of the economy results from the omission of supporting columns. The base of the arch being very near the ground-level, it is also well designed to resist wind-pressure. Another advantage of this type is the free movement allowed under temperature-changes without causing additional stresses in the members of the structure, the middle part rising or falling freely with a slight rotation of the half-trusses about the pivots. In the case of the arches of the buildings of the Paris Exposition, it was estimated that a range of temperature of 100° F. would produce a change in level of 2⅜ in at the center pivot. The ARCHED RIBS are usually built of plates, angles, or channels, with riveted connections and frequently with a solid-plate web at the bottom. The determining of the stresses and detailing of the members and joints require the services of a competent structural engineer; but the illustrations given will enable the architect to decide on the general shape of the trusses for the purpose of making preliminary drawings and the computations and detail drawings can be made later.

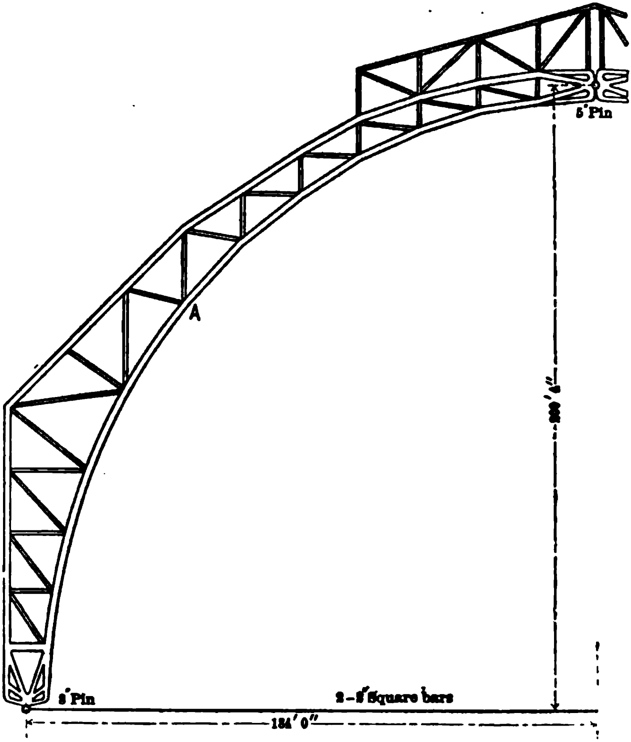

Fig. 72. Half Truss. Three-hinged Arch. Manufactures and Liberal Arts Building, Chicago Exposition

Trusses for Railway Station, Frankfort-on-the-Main, Germany. The first suggestion for HINGING THE RIBS AT THE CROWN was made by M. Manton, a French engineer. The writer believes that the first application of this principle to roof-trusses, at least on a large scale, was made in the train-sheds of the Union Railway Station completed in the year 1888 at Frankfort-on-the-Main, Germany. These trusses have a span of about 184 ft. Engineering Record of September 12, 1891, and March 5, 1892.

Trusses for Machinery Hall, Paris Exposition. The large roof of the Machinery Hall of the Paris Exposition of 1899 was supported by trusses of this type, the span being 368 ft and exceeding anything hitherto attempted in roof-trusses. Since then trusses of this kind have been frequently used for roofing large exhibition-halls, train-sheds, armories, and similar buildings.

Trusses for Manufactures and Liberal Arts Building, Chicago Exposition. Fig. 72 shows the half-truss of one of the THREE-HINGED ARCHES supporting the roof of the Manufactures and Liberal Arts Building of the Chicago Exposition. Engineering News, September 1, 1892.

Trusses for Drill-Hall, Brooklyn, N. Y. Fig. 73, in a similar manner, shows the half-truss of one of the THREE-HINGED ARCHES over the drill-hall of the 47th Regiment Armory, Brooklyn, N. Y. Engineering Record, December 23, 1899. A description of the arch shown in Fig. 74 is given in the Engineering Record of November 19 and December 24, 1892. The horizontal thrust due to the dead load is small.

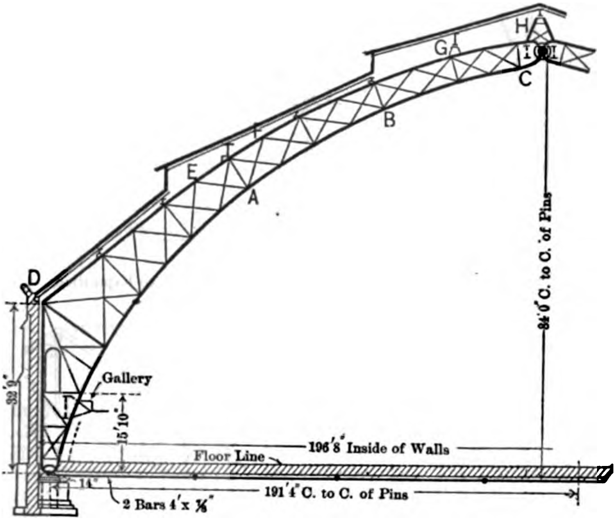

Fig. 73. Half Truss, Three-hinged Arch, Drill-hall, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Two-hinged Arches. When there are only two pins, usually at the supports, the trusses become TWO-HINGED ARCHES. As in the case of three-hinged arches, there may be a tie or the supports may be entirely depended upon to resist the horizontal thrust.

Trusses for Live-Stock Pavilion, Chicago, Ill. In the Engineering News of June 28, 1906, there is a description of the TWO-HINGED ARCHES supporting the roof of this building. The arch span is 198 ft, the rise 54 ft and the truss-spacing 42 ft. Each truss has a tie consisting of one $2\frac{9}{16}$-in round rod.

Trusses for Railway Station, Cologne, Germany. This station, owned by the Prussian Railways, has TWO-HINGED ARCHES supporting the roof of the train-shed. The arch-span is 209 ft 6 in and the rise 79 ft. There is a brief mention of it in the Engineering News, October 6, 1892. A number of roofs

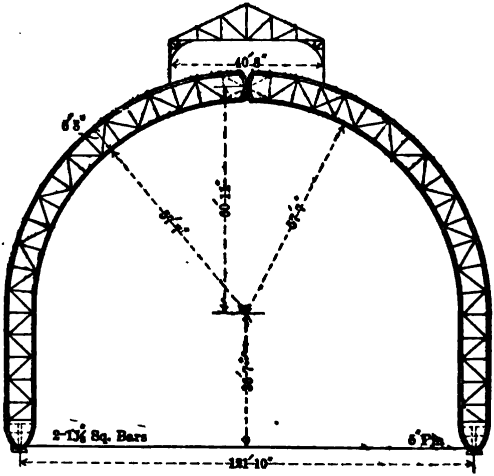

Fig. 74. Three-hinged Arch, Machinery Hall, Chicago Exposition

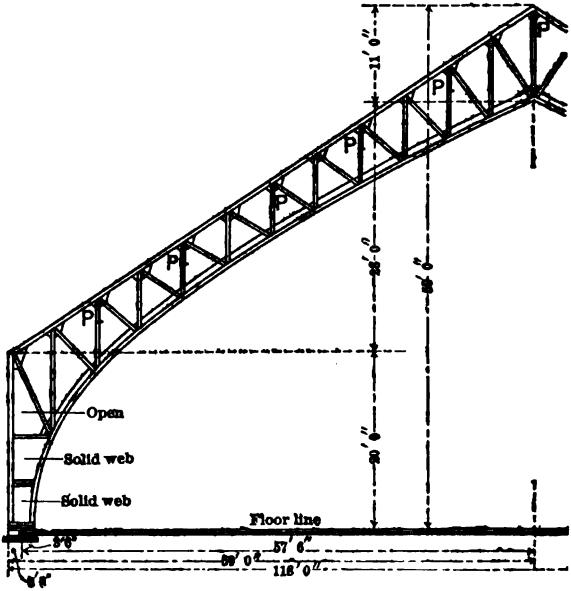

Fig. 75. Two-hinged Arch, Exposition Hall, Providence, R. I.

are supported by structures similar to that shown in Fig. 75. While such a frame is not strictly a TWO-HINGED ARCH, owing to the lack of freedom at the supports, it may, however, for all practical purposes, be so considered.

Table V. List of Buildings with Trusses of the Two-Hinged-Arch Type

Name	Span	Spacing
	ft	ft
Armory, Pawtucket, R. I.	82	24
Armory, Portland, Me.	92	25
Phœnix Hall, Brockton, Mass.	96	24
Armory, Northampton, Mass.	100	24
Palace Rink, Hartford, Conn.	104	25
Exposition Hall, Providence, R. I.	118	24.5
Armory, Cleveland, Ohio	120	23 to 25
Armory, Boston, Mass.	122	30
Armory, 22d Reg., New York City	176	24.5
Armory, Brooklyn, N. Y.	196	35

These structures are described in Building Construction and Superintendence, Part III, by F. E. Kidder and are similar to the type shown in Fig. 75.

Fixed Arches, or arches without hinges, are seldom employed in buildings. In a number of examples cited above the structures have the appearance of being fixed at the ends, but a closer inspection indicates that they are not sufficiently anchored to warrant their being classed as FIXED ARCHES.

5. Cantilever Trusses

General Principles. A CANTILEVER BEAM or CANTILEVER TRUSS is that portion of a larger beam or truss which extends beyond one of the supports, as *B* in Figs. 76 to 79 and *A* in Fig. 80. The overhanging portion *B* is called the CANTILEVER-ARM and the portion *C* the ANCHOR-SPAN. The cantilever-arm may support at its end another beam or truss. The term CANTILEVER was originally used to designate a projecting beam which served as a bracket; in engineering it is used to denote a beam or girder fixed at one end, by being either built into a wall, or, as is more commonly the case, extended a sufficient distance beyond its support to form an anchorage. Thus in Fig. 76, which shows a beam resting on two supports, *B* is the cantilever or cantilever-arm and *C* the anchor-span or anchorage. It is obvious that if this entire beam were uniformly loaded the support *P* would carry the greater part of the total load; and also, that an additional load *W*, at the end of the cantilever, might cause a negative reaction or upward pull at the support *D*, in which case the reaction at *P* would exceed the load on the beam, unless the negative reaction at *D* is considered as an additional load. Although both conditions of loading occur in practice, the cantilever end of the truss usually requires an anchorage rather than a support at the inner end. As applied to roof-construction some such arrangement as is shown in Fig. 77 is generally required to make this method of support practicable; that is, a wide middle span, with shorter spans or aisles on each side of it. Each cantilever-arm is usually made from ¼ to ⅓ the middle span and a simple MIDDLE TRUSS, represented by *S*, supported by the arms of the cantilevers, is used to support the rest of the roof. In all such cases, therefore, cantilever trusses must be used in pairs, one on each side of the building; and there must be room or passages outside of the principal span to permit the use of the outer or anchor-spans. This arrangement is generally found in auditoriums armories, exhibition-halls and similar buildings, and is sometimes convenientl adapted also to other classes of structures. Of course, in a large building a beam consisting of a single member such as is shown in Fig. 77 could not be used

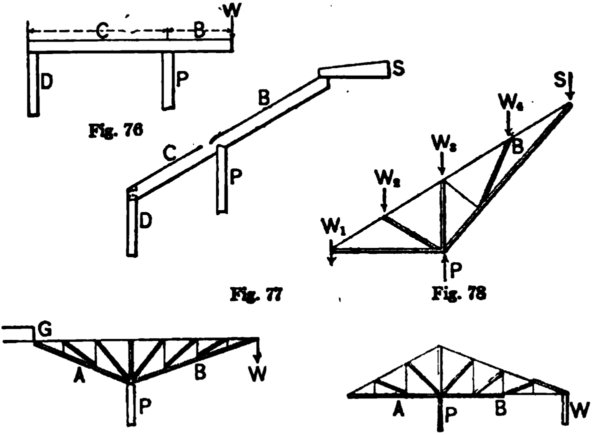

Fig. 76

Fig. 77

Fig. 78

Fig. 79

Fig. 80

Figs. 76 to 80. Cantilevers and Cantilever Trusses

but the principle of construction is the same whether the cantilever is a single member or a large truss. Fig. 78 is the diagram of a truss which takes the place of the beam *CB* in Fig. 77, the single lines representing the tension-members and the double lines the compression-members. Fig. 81 shows the complete arrangement of two of these trusses with the accompanying middle truss, for an entire roof. The truss-principle shown in these figures may be developed to almost any extent. The lower chord may be curved, but the general outline of the truss is best adapted to those roofs in which a wide middle part is to be supported by cantilevers. For bridge-trusses or floors the form shown in Fig. 79 may be used; while for shed and platform-roofs, open on one side, trusses

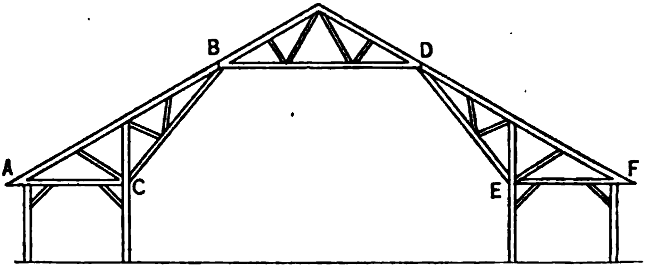

Fig. 81. Suggestion for Wooden Cantilever Truss

of the form shown in Fig. 80 are about the only ones practicable. In this latter truss the proportions of the arms are such that only a slight support is required at *W*, and a consequent compressive stress developed in the lower portion of the rafter.

Advantages and Disadvantages of the Cantilever Truss. The cantilever truss possesses some special advantages. The clear height in the middle is greater than can be obtained with any other type excepting the three-hinged arch; its appearance is light and graceful, and there is no horizontal thrust and consequently no necessity for tie-rods. The particular advantage of this truss for very great spans is that it can be erected without scaffolding under the middle part, and in bridge-work this is considered as its only advantage. It is claimed by some prominent engineers that the CANTILEVER TYPE OF TRUSS is not an economical one and not as desirable for spans of 150 ft or more as the THREE-HINGED ARCH. It does not as readily lend itself to methods of allowing for expansion and contraction as the THREE-HINGED ARCH, the BOWSTRING TRUSS, or the QUADRANGULAR TRUSS. For certain classes of buildings, however, and especially where the middle span does not exceed 150 ft, it can perhaps be used with better architectural effect than is possible with other types, the cost remaining about the same. For roofing platforms, grand-stands, etc., where an outer support is not desired, it is the only type available.

Truss for Grand-Stand, Monmouth Park, N. J. Fig. 82 is a diagram of one of the CANTILEVER TRUSSES supporting the roof of the grand-stand at this racing-track, the details of which were published in Architecture and Building, in February, 1890. This is an instance in which the cantilever was the only type of truss that could be used and the form adopted is both simple and economical. As will be seen from the drawing, the main supporting column extends to the top of the truss, as is usually the case with cantilever trusses, and the truss is riveted to each side of it. The upper and lower chords are made of two angles and a web-plate. The bracing consists of angle-bars used in pairs and varying from 3 by 2 by ¼ in to 3 by 3 by 5/16 in, the whole frame being connected by rivets.

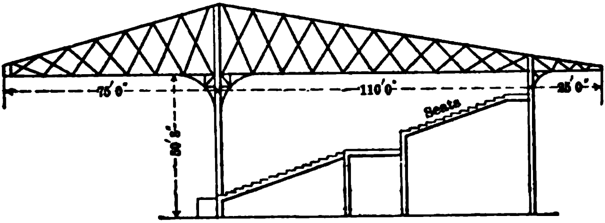

Fig. 82. Cantilever Truss, Grand-stand, Monmouth Park, N. J.

Trusses for the Fore River Ship-building Shed, Quincy, Mass. In the Engineering Record, July 26, 1902, there is a description of the roof of this building, in which the CANTILEVER TRUSSES have an overhang of 60 ft.

Roof-Trusses for Grand-Stand, Empire City Trotting Association, Yonkers, N. Y. These trusses have CANTILEVER-ARMS at each end, 25 ft 6 in on one end and 15 ft 6 in on the other. The intermediate truss has a span of 50 ft. This structure is described in the Engineering Record, February 10, 1900. Other examples of CANTILEVER ROOFS are given in Building Construction and Superintendence, Part III, by F. E. Kidder.

CHAPTER XXVII

STRESSES IN ROOF-TRUSSES

By

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1. Roof-Loads. Data, Weights, Materials, Methods

Data for Roof-Trusses. Before the stresses in a roof-truss can be determined it is necessary to decide upon the character of the roof-covering, the method of supporting it between the trusses, the geometrical shape and span of the trusses and the spacing of the trusses.

Roofing Materials for Pitched Roofs. The materials suitable for covering pitched roofs are slate, burnt-clay tiles, metal tiles or shingles, wooden shingles, corrugated iron, tin with standing seams, standing-seam steel roofing and various kinds of ready roofing. The least slope to which these materials may be laid without danger of leaks, the weight per square foot of roof and the comparative cost are indicated in Table I. The cost, however, can only be considered as approximate, as it varies for different materials, localities and the scales of wages.

Table I. Covering Materials for Pitched Roofs

Material	Least rise of rafter in 12 in	Comparative cost per square
Slates, black	8	$7.00 to $12.00
Slates, green	8	7.00 to 10.00
Slates, red	8	12.00 to 17.00
Burnt-clay tiles, interlocking pattern	7	15.00 to 25.00
Tin shingles, painted	6	8.00 to 10.00
Galvanized-iron tile, painted	6	13.00 to 15.00
Cedar shingles, stained or painted	6	3.80 to 7.20
Corrugated iron, painted	3	4.00 to 4.50
Standing-seam steel roofing, painted	2	4.00 to 4.50
Ready roofing	1	3.50 to 4.50

Roofing Materials for Flat Roofs. Flat roofs or roofs having a fall of from ½ to ¾ in to the foot are usually covered with tar and gravel, asphalt, ready roofing, or tin with lock-and-solder joints. A good tin roof costs about $8.00 a square, not including the painting. The other kinds vary from $3.50 to $4.50 a square.

Manner of Supporting the Roof from the Trusses. Wooden roofs, supported by wooden trusses, require common or jack-rafters to support the sheathing or slate, and generally purlins to support the rafters, although in some cases it may be more economical to span the rafters from truss to truss (Fig. 17, Chapter XXVI). When slates or burnt-clay tiles are used on steel roofs, they are usually secured to steel angles, running parallel with the walls and spaced from 8 to 10½ in apart, as may be necessary to accommodate the size of the slates or tiles. If the span is not more than 6 or 7 ft, the angles may be fastened to the truss-rafters. As a rule, however, when slates or tiles are to be used, it is cheaper to space the trusses from 16 to 20 ft apart, and to use purlins and jack-rafters to support the smaller angles. Quite often, wooden rafters and sheathing are used with steel trusses. This is more economical, but of course increases the fire-risk. Unprotected steel is little if any better than wood. If corrugated iron is to be used for roofing, the most economical construction for steel roofs is to space the trusses from 16 to 20 ft apart, and to use light I beams for purlins, spaced about 4¾ ft on centers, as in Fig. 52, Chapter XXVI, the corrugated iron being secured to the purlins by straps. If warm air comes in contact with the underside of a corrugated roof, either the roofing should be laid on boards, or some kind of anticondensation lining should be provided, as otherwise the moisture in the air will condense and fall on the floor or objects below. Flat roofs always require rafters and sheathing, or fire-proof filling between the rafters.

Spacing of Trusses. From the above it is seen that the economical spacing of the trusses depends to a great extent upon the kind of roofing that is used, and also upon the span. As a general rule, however, the most economical spacing is about as follows:

For WOODEN TRUSSES under 80-ft span, from 12 to 16 ft on centers.
For WOODEN TRUSSES over 80-ft span, from 16 to 24 ft on centers.
For STEEL TRUSSES under 80-ft span, from 16 to 20 ft on centers.
For STEEL TRUSSES over 80-ft span, from 20 to 40 ft on centers.

The SPACING of a number of steel trusses of wide span is given in Chapter XXVI. When the distance between the trusses exceeds 16 ft for wooden roofs or 20 ft for steel roofs, it is generally necessary to use trussed purlins. Having decided upon the kind of truss to be used, the spacing of the trusses and the roof-construction, a section-drawing of the roof should be made, showing an elevation of the truss, the points at which the purlins are to be supported, the manner of supporting the ceiling, if there is one, and any other loads that are to be supported by the trusses. The section and truss-drawing, with the tables of the weights of roofing-materials, will furnish the necessary data for computing the loads at each joint. Until the stresses have been determined, the sizes of the members computed, and the joints detailed, an exact drawing of the truss cannot, of course, be made; but in order to compute the loads and stresses, it is necessary to know the positions of the joints, and these can be indicated with sufficient accuracy before the exact sizes of the members are determined. Chapter XXVI gives sufficient information regarding the various types of trusses to enable one to decide upon the height and the number and arrangement of the struts and ties; and the sizes of the members can be approximated for the preliminary drawings.

Roof and Ceiling-Area Supported at Any Joint. Calculations for the stresses in a truss are always based on the assumption that the loads are transferred to the joints, and that the members are free to move at the joints as if hinged, although the actual joints may be made with riveted or other connections. The loads at the joints are, of course, equal to the reactions of the purlins, or of the tie-beams or principals, if these receive the ceiling-joists or rafters. When the load on the roof or ceiling is uniformly distributed, as is usually the case, the simplest method of computing the joint-loads is to determine the roof or ceiling-area contributory to the joint, and to multiply this area by the weight or load per square foot. The area contributory to any joint is equal to the product of the distance measured half-way to the next joint, on each side, by the distance measured half-way to the next truss or wall, on each side. Thus if Fig. 1

represents truss 1, of Fig. 2, the roof-area contributory to joint 2 is, in square feet, $\frac{8+14}{2} \times a$. For truss 2, the area supported by the same joint is $\frac{14+12}{2} \times a$; or, if we let D represent the length in feet of roof or ceiling supported at each joint, the area in square feet supported by joint 2 is $a \times D$, and the area supported by joint 3 is $2\,b \times D$. In the same way, the ceiling-area supported at joint 6 is $c \times D$, the arrow-heads being half-way between the joints. It makes no material difference in the joint-loads whether the common rafters are supported on purlins or whether they rest on the top chord of the truss, provided the purlins come at or close to the joints and the load is uniformly distributed. Thus the width of the ceiling contributory to joint 7 (Fig. 3) is equal to c, just the same as in Fig. 1. The arrangement in Fig. 1 produces cross-bending stresses in the tie-beam, while that in Fig. 3 does not. When the trusses are spaced a uniform distance apart, D, Fig. 2, is, of course, equal to the distance between centers of trusses. When the trusses are not spaced uniformly, D is equal to one-half the distance from the center of the truss on the left to the center of the truss on the right. When a purlin is more than 12 in from a joint, or the roof-area is not symmetrical, as is often the case at hips and valleys, the joint-load is determined by the principle of the REACTION OF BEAMS, as explained in Chapter IX. Examples showing the computation of joint-loads are given a little farther on.

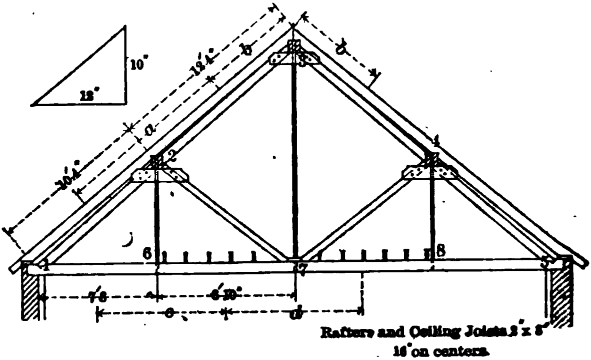

Fig. 1. King-rod Truss

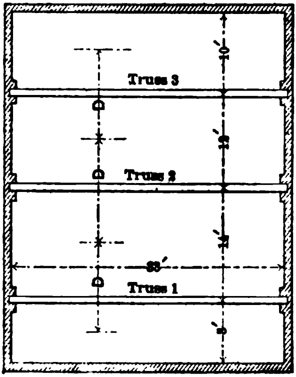

Fig. 2. Plan of Wall and Trusses

Roof-Load per Square Foot. By the term ROOF-LOAD is meant the weight of the materials composing the roof, trusses and purlins, an ample allowance for snow and also an allowance for wind-pressure. The weight of the materials is called the DEAD LOAD. Snow is generally considered a LIVE LOAD, acting vertically. The pressure due to the wind is always assumed to act normal to, or at right-angles to, the surface of the roof; but for trusses of less than 100-ft span it is usually combined with the DEAD LOAD, WIND-LOAD and SNOW-LOAD and treated as one vertical load.

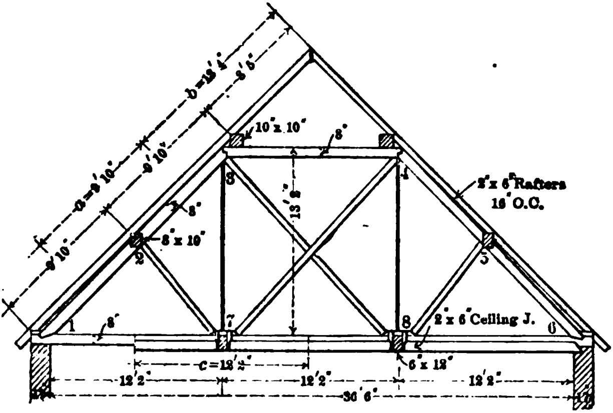

Fig. 3. Queen Truss. (See, also, Figs. 12, 53 and 54 and Chapter XXVIII, Fig. 1)

Data for Computing Dead Loads. The DEAD LOAD of any roof may be estimated with sufficient accuracy from the following data:

Table II. Weights per Square Foot of Roof-Surface

Shingles, common, 2½ lb; 18 in, 3 lb
Slates, 3/16 in thick, 7¼ lb; ¼ in thick, 9.6 lb (the common thickness is 3/16 in for sizes up to 10 by 20 in)
Plain tiles or clay shingles, 11 to 14 lb
Roman tiles, old style, two parts, 12 lb; new style, one part, 8 lb
Spanish tiles, old style, two parts, 19 lb; new style, one part, 8 lb
Improved Oriental tiles, 11 lb
Ludowici tiles, 8 lb
For tiles laid in mortar add 10 lb per sq ft
Copper roofing, sheets, 1¼ lb; tiles, 1¾ lb
Tin roofing, sheets or shingles, including one thickness of felt, 1 lb
Corrugated iron, painted or galvanized, No. 26, 1 lb; No. 24, 1.3 lb; No. 22, 1.6 lb; No. 20, 1.9 lb; No. 18, 2.6 lb; and No. 16, 3.3 lb
Standing-seam steel roofing, 1 lb
Five-ply felt and gravel roof, 6 lb
Four-ply felt and gravel roof, 5½ lb
Three-ply ready roofing (elaterite, rubberoid, asphalt, etc.), from 0.6 to 1 lb
Skylights with galvanized-iron frame, ¼-in glass, 4½ lb; 5/16-in, 5 lb; ⅜-in, 6 lb
Sheathing, 1 in thick, 3 lb per sq ft for white pine, spruce, or hemlock; 4 lb for yellow or pitch pine

Table III. Weights of Rafters per Square Foot of Roof-Surface

Size of rafter in inches	Spruce, hemlock, white pine. Spacing in inches, center to center			Hard pine. Spacing in inches, center to center		
	16	20	24	16	20	24
	lb	lb	lb	lb	lb	lb
2× 4	1⅓	1.2	1	2	1.6	1⅓
2× 6	2¼	1.8	1½	3	2.4	2
2× 7	2⅝	2.1	1¾	3½	2.8	2⅓
2× 8	3	2.4	2	4	3.2	2⅔
2×10	3¾	3	2½	5	4	3⅓

Wooden purlins weigh about 2 lb per sq ft of roof-surface when the span is between 12 and 16 ft.

For steel roofs the sizes and weights of the purlins and rafters should be computed for each particular case.

Weight of Truss. To the weight of the roof-construction proper should be added an allowance for the weight of the truss. If trusses could be built in exact accordance with the theoretical requirements their weight would be directly proportional to the roof-load and span; but as there is always some extra material, it is impossible to determine the weight of the truss exactly until it is completely designed. Several tables for the weights of wooden trusses and formulas for steel trusses have been published, but hardly any two of them are alike. The following are some of the formulas in use:

For Wooden Trusses

$W = 0.04\,L + 0.000167\,L^2$	N. C. Ricker, for trusses like Figs. 4 and 5, Chapter XXVI.
$W = 0.05 + 0.075\,L$	H. S. Jacoby.
$W = 0.75 + 0.075\,L$	Mansfield Merriman.

For Steel Trusses

$W = 0.6 + 0.06\,L$, for heavy loads $W = 0.4 + 0.04\,L$, for light loads	C. E. Fowler, for Fink trusses.
$W = P/45\left(1 + \frac{1}{5}\sqrt{A}\right)$	M. S. Ketchum, for steel mill-building trusses.
$W = 0.05\,L + 12/A$	H. G. Tyrrell.

In the above formulas, W = weight of truss in pounds per square foot of horizontal projection of the roof supported, L = span in feet, A = distance between trusses, and P = capacity of truss in pounds per square foot of horizontal projection.

Tables IV and V, compiled from a comparison of other tables and formulas, and from the weights of actual trusses, are sufficiently accurate for the purpose of determining stresses. The weights given are probably slightly in excess of the actual weights of average trusses, as it is preferable to have the error, if any, on the safe side. It should be noted that the weights are for each square foot of roof-surface, and not for the horizontal area. Table VI gives the actual weights of a number of large steel roofs.

Table IV. Weights of Wooden Trusses per Square Foot of Roof-Surface*

Span	½ pitch	⅓ pitch	¼ pitch	Flat
ft	lb	lb	lb	lb
Up to 36	3	3½	3¾	4
36 to 50	3¼	3¾	4	4½
50 to 60	3½	4	4½	4¾
60 to 70	3¾	4½	4¾	5¼
70 to 80	4¼	5	5½	6
80 to 90	5	6	6½	7
90 to 100	5¾	6¾	7	8
100 to 110	6½	7½	8	9
110 to 120	7	8½	9	10

Table V. Weights of Steel Trusses per Square Foot of Roof-Surface

Span	½ pitch	⅓ pitch	¼ pitch	Flat
ft	lb	lb	lb	lb
Up to 40	5.25	6.3	6.8	7.6
40 to 50	5.75	6.6	7.2	8.0
50 to 60	6.75	8.0	8.6	9.6
60 to 70	7.25	8.5	9.2	10.2
70 to 80	7.75	9.0	9.7	10.8
80 to 100	8.5	10.0	10.8	12.0
100 to 120	9.5	11.0	12.0	13.2
120 to 140	10.0	11.6	12.6	14.0

Table VI. Weights and Spacing of Some Steel Roofs of Wide Span, Including Trusses, Purlins and Braces, but not Roof-Covering or Rafters

Name of building	Type of truss	Span ft	Spacing, center to center of trusses, ft	Weight per sq ft sloping surface, lb	Weight of one truss, tons
Armory, Pawtucket, R. I.	Fig. 75†	82	24	8.7	6.7
Armory, Portland, Me.	"	92	25	9.7	9
Phoenix Hall, Brockton, Mass.	"	96	24	8.6	10
Armory, Northampton, Mass.	"	100	24	8.0	8.5
Palace Rink, Hartford, Conn.	"	104	25	11.8	11.5
Ex. Hall, Providence, R. I.	"	118	24½	9.5	12.5
Cleveland, Ohio, Armory	"	120	23–25	....	....
Armory, Boston, Mass.	"	122	30	12.4	21
Armory, 22d Regt., N. Y.	"	176	24½	....	....
Armory, Brooklyn, N. Y.	"	196	35	....	....

* For scissors trusses, increase one-third.

† Chapter XXVI.

The data for the first seven buildings in Table VI were compiled by H. G. Tyrrell, who states that all of the seven roofs were proportioned for slate and plank roofing resting on wide rafters 2 ft apart, supported by steel purlins about 10 ft apart. The spans given are measured from center to center of side bearings. Stresses were computed for a dead load of 25 lb per sq ft, a snow-load of 10 lb per sq ft of sloping surface, and a horizontal wind-load of 40 lb per sq ft or a 28-lb-per-sq-ft normal pressure. Data for computing the weights of floors and floor-loads supported by trusses, and for fire-proof construction, may be found in Chapters XXI and XXIII.

Snow-Loads. As a basis for making an allowance for snow, Table VII is perhaps as good a guide as any that can be given. When snow-guards are placed on a roof, the same allowance is made for a half-pitch as for a one-third pitch.

Table VII. Allowance for Snow in Pounds per Square Foot of Roof-Surface

Location	Pitch of roof				
	½	⅓	¼	⅕	⅙ or less
	* †	* †	* †		
Southern states and Pacific slope......	0– 0	0– 5	0– 5	5	5
Central states..........................	0– 5	7–10	15–20	22	30
Rocky Mountain states...............	0–10	10–15	20–25	27	35
New England states..................	0–10	10–15	20–25	35	40
Northwest states......................	0–12	12–18	25–30	37	45

Columns headed by an asterisk (*) are for slate, tile, or metal; those headed by a dagger (†) are for shingles.

Wind-Pressure.* For roofs having a pitch of 5 in or more to the foot, an allowance must be made for wind-pressure. For trusses of the Fink, fan, king, or queen types, the usual practice is to include the wind-pressure with the vertical loads, and to make a single allowance for both wind and snow, as during a gale snow is not likely to stay on a steep roof. When the wind-pressure is added to the vertical loads, the allowance for wind and snow combined should not be less than indicated in Table VIII.

Table VIII. Allowance for Wind and Snow Combined in Pounds per Square Foot of Roof-Surface

Location	Pitch of roof					
	60°	45°	⅓	¼	⅕	⅙
Northwest states............	30	30	25	30	37	45
New England states.........	30	30	25	25	35	40
Rocky Mountain states......	30	30	25	25	27	35
Central states................	30	30	25	25	22	30
Southern and Pacific states..	30	30	25	25	22	20

No roof-truss should be proportioned for a total load of less than 40 lb per sq ft of roof-surface except flat roofs in warm climates. For trusses having spans exceeding 100 ft (except trusses for flat roofs) and for trusses in which a partial load may produce maximum stresses, or call for COUNTERBRACING, as is the case in QUADRILATERAL TRUSSES, and trusses with CURVED CHORDS, the stresses for all the different loadings should be found separately and each member of the truss proportioned for the maximum stress to which it may be subject under any possible combination of loads. For determining the stresses due to wind-pressure alone the force of the wind is usually assumed to act in a direction normal, that is, at right-angles, to the slope of the roof. This force is commonly based on a horizontal wind, producing a pressure of 30 lb against a vertical surface. This corresponds to a wind-velocity of nearly 100 miles per hour. According to Marvin's formula,

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* (See, also, pages 1308 and 1637.)

$$P = 0.0032\, V^2$$

where P = the pressure in lb per sq ft against a surface normal to the direction of the wind and V = the velocity in miles per hour. For $P = 30$ lb, $V = 96.3$ miles. The normal pressure per square foot of roof-surface corresponding to pressures of 20 and 30 lb per sq ft against a vertical surface is given in Table IX.

Table IX. Wind-Loads in Pounds per Square Foot of Roof-Surface

Inclination of roof	Normal pressure P_n, pounds per square foot	
	$P = 30$ lb	$P = 20$ lb
5°	5.1	3.4
10°	10.1	6.7
15°	14.6	9.7
21° 48′ = ⅕-pitch	19.8	13.1
26° 34′ = ¼-pitch	22.4	14.0
30°	24.0	16.0
33° 41′ = ⅓-pitch	25.5	17.0
40°	26.7	17.8
45° 0′ = ½-pitch	28.3	18.9
60° and above	30.0	20.0

The values in Table IX are based on Duchemin's formula,

$$P_n = P\frac{2 \sin\theta}{1 + \sin^2\theta}$$

in which P is the pressure per square foot on a vertical surface, P_n the normal component of pressure and θ the angle of inclination of the roof with the horizontal. The wind not only produces a pressure upon the windward side of the roof but a suction upon the leeward side; therefore all roof-covering should be securely fastened, all joints in the trusses so constructed that they will resist tension and compression, and the trusses themselves securely anchored to the supports.

Variations in Loading for which Stresses should be Found. To determine the maximum stresses under any possible condition of loading, stresses should be found for the following cases:

(1) Stresses due to permanent DEAD LOADS,
(2) SNOW covering only one side of roof,
(3) SNOW covering entire roof,
(4) WIND on side of truss nearer the expansion-end,
(5) WIND on side of truss nearer the fixed end.

It is generally assumed that the maximum wind-pressure and the snow-load cannot act on the same half of the truss at the same time; hence the combinations for maximum stress will be either cases 1 and 3 or cases 1, 2, and 4 or 5. If the trusses are supported on iron columns instead of on walls the wind-force is transferred to the foundations through the columns, producing a bending moment in the columns. The stresses in the columns, trusses and knee-braces should therefore be determined for the wind-pressures against the side of the building and roof. These pressures are obtained by multiplying the area of the vertical surfaces by the full pressure per square foot and the area of the roof by the normal component, given in Table IX.

Kansas City Auditorium. For the trusses supporting the roof of the Kansas City Auditorium (Fig. 66, Chapter XXVI) stresses were computed for the following conditions: First, full dead and live load on both galleries and the roof-garden, and wind-pressure due to a velocity of 45 miles an hour; second, full dead load, snow-load, and gallery live load, wind-pressure 10 lb and no load on roof-garden floor; third, full dead load and 50 lb wind-pressure; fourth, full dead load and wind-pressure at 45 miles an hour, and full live loads on gallery and roof-garden on one side only. Snow-loads throughout were taken at one-third of the dead load. Examples showing manner of combining the stresses due to different conditions of loading are given on pages 1114 and 1123–8.

2. Examples of the Computation of Roof-Loads[*]

King-Rod Truss. Example 1. The first example considers the roof and truss shown in Fig. 1, page 1048, which it is assumed represents truss 2 of Fig. 2. It is assumed that the timber is to be common white pine and that the roof is to be covered with 5/16-in slate of medium size on 7/8-in sheathing. The ceiling is to consist of lath and plaster. The dead load of roof and truss per square foot of roof-surface is made up as follows:

	lb per sq ft
For slate	7¼
For sheathing	3
For rafters	3
For purlins	2
For truss	3
Total	18¼

For wind and snow-load combined there should be allowed about 28 lb (the pitch being about 40°), which makes a total roof-load of 46¼ lb. To avoid fractions, however, the load is assumed to be 48 lb per sq ft. As the distance to truss 1, Fig. 2, is 14 ft and to truss 3, 12 ft, the length of roof supported by the truss is 13 ft. The roof-area supported by the purlins at joint 2 is equal to the distance *a* multiplied by 13 ft; and *a* is one-half the distance from the wall-plate to the ridge-purlin, or 22 ft 8 in divided by 2, or 11 ft 4 in, or 11⅓ ft. Hence the roof-area supported at joint 2 is 11⅓ by 13 ft, or 147⅓ sq ft. The roof-area supported by the purlins at joint 3 is 2 *b* by 13 ft, or 12⅓ by 13 ft, or 160⅓ sq ft. Multiplying the roof-areas by the load per square foot, 48 lb, there results 7 072 lb for the load at joint 2; and 7 696 lb for the load at joint 3. The load at joint 4 is equal to that at 2, as the truss is symmetrical. The ceiling-loads at joints 6 and 7 are computed next. The ceiling-area supported at joint 6 is *c* × 13 ft, or 8¼ by 13 ft, or 107¼ sq ft. The area supported at joint 7 is 8⅚ by 13 ft, or 114⅚ sq ft. The actual weight of the ceiling per square foot is

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[*] In the following five examples all loads are considered as acting vertically.

3 lb for the joists and 10 lb for the lath and plaster; but where there is a large attic-space liable to be used for storage it is well to make a small allowance, say 5 lb per sq ft, for any extra attic-load. Therefore, 18 lb per sq ft is allowed for the weight of the ceiling, which makes the weight at joints 6 and 8, 107¼ sq ft by 18 lb per sq ft, or 1 930 lb; and the weight at joint 7, 114⅚ sq ft by 18 lb per sq ft, or 2 067 lb. As soon as computed, the roof and ceiling-loads should be marked on a truss-diagram, as in Fig. 10. The roof and ceiling-loads at joint 1 are transmitted directly to the wall and need not be taken into account in determining the stresses in the truss.

Queen Truss. Example 2. It is required to compute the joint-loads for the truss shown in Fig. 3, page 1049. All timber is to be of spruce and the roof is to be covered with shingles on 1-in sheathing. The ceiling is to be of lath and plaster. The dead load is:

	lb per sq ft
Weight of shingles	2½
Weight of sheathing	3
Weight of rafters	2¼
Weight of purlins	2
Weight of truss	3
Total dead load per sq ft	12¾
Allowance for wind and snow	30
Total roof-load in pounds per square foot	42¾

For the weight of the ceiling it is well, for a truss of this kind, to allow at least 20 lb per sq ft. It will be assumed that the trusses are to be spaced uniformly 15 ft on centers. Then the roof-area supported at joint 2 is 9⅚ by 15 ft, or 147½ sq ft, and the load at this joint is 6 306 lb. The purlin at joint 3 supports the roof, from a point midway to joint 2, to the ridge, or $b = 4$ ft 11 in + 8 ft 5 in, or 13 ft 4 in. The roof-area supported at this joint is 13⅓ by 15 ft, or 200 sq ft, and the load is 8 550 lb. The loads at joints 4 and 5 are equal respectively to those at 3 and 2. For the ceiling-loads at joints 7 and 8 there is an area to be supported equal to 12⅙ by 15 ft, or 182½ sq ft, which, multiplied by 20, gives 3 650 lb.

Scissors Truss. Example 3. For this example the church-roof shown in section in Fig. 4 is considered. In this roof the trusses take the place of the rafters and ceiling-beams, the sheathing spanning from truss to truss and the laths for the ceiling being nailed to 1¼ by 2½-in furring strips, spaced 12 or 16 in on centers. Assuming that the parts of the trusses have the dimensions indicated in the figure, and that the wood is white pine, the actual weight of one truss is about 1 200 lb. The roof-area supported by one truss is 170 sq ft, and hence the weight of the trusses is about 7 lb per sq ft of roof-surface. This weight is more than twice that given in Table IV, owing principally to the close spacing of the trusses and also to the small dimensions of their members. The weight of the sheathing and shingles is about 5½ lb and 30 lb is allowed for wind-pressure. The roof is too steep for snow to lodge on it. This gives a total roof-load of 42½ lb per sq ft of sloping surface. For the weight of the ceiling 12 lb per sq ft is ample, as no load other than its own weight is likely to come upon it. The roof-area supported at joint 2 is 10⅘ by 2½ ft, or 27 sq ft. The area supported at joints 4 and 5 is equal to 12⅖ by 2½ ft, or 31 sq ft for each. The ceiling-area supported at joint 3 is 14⅕ by 2½ ft, or 35½ sq ft. Multiplying each joint-area by the corresponding loads per square foot, there results 1 148 lb for the load at joint 2, 1 318 lb for each load at joints 4 and 5, and 426 lb for the load at joint 3.

Truss over Car-Barn. **Example 4.** In this example the roof is of corrugated iron, supported by a steel truss of the shape shown in Fig. 55, Chapter XXVI. This truss supports nothing but the corrugated iron, the purlins and the pressure due to wind and snow, the use of the building not requiring the suspending of any load from the trusses. In figuring the dead loads for such a roof, the sizes of the purlins and the gauge of the iron should first be definitely fixed, so that the weight per square foot of roof may be accurately determined. In this instance the purlins are 5-in I beams spaced 4 ft 9 in on centers, and weighing 10 lb per linear foot. The weight of the purlins per square foot of roof is therefore equal to 10 lb divided by 4¾, or 2.1 lb. For a span of 4 ft 9 in the corrugated iron should be No. 18 gauge (see Corrugated Iron, Part III, page 1515) weighing 2 lb per sq ft. For the weight of the truss and bracing the weight taken is that given in Table V for a span of 100 ft and ¼-pitch, 10.8 lb.* This gives a total dead load of 14.9 lb per sq ft of sloping surface.

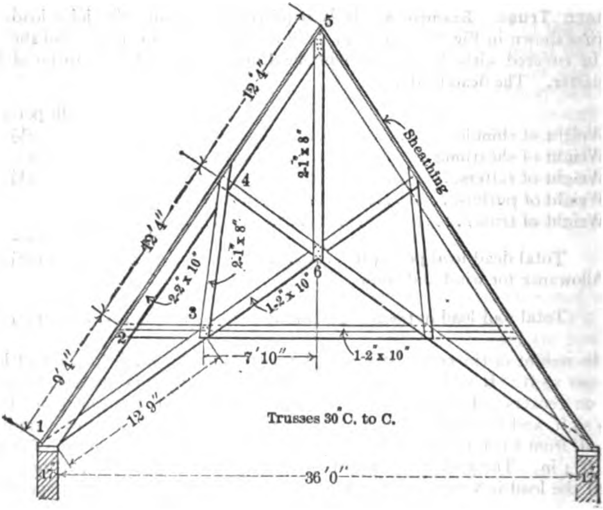

Fig. 4. Scissors Truss. (See, also, Fig. 24 and Chapter XXVIII, Fig. 2)

For wind and snow we should allow 22 lb per sq ft if the building is situated in the Central states, making the total roof-load 36.9 lb per sq ft. It is quite generally recommended, however, that no roof should be designed for a load less, all told, than 40 lb per sq ft; the joint-loads, therefore, should be computed on that basis. The only loaded joints in this truss are those under the purlins. The trusses are spaced 19 ft 2¼ in and the purlins 4 ft 9 in on centers, the roof-area supported at each upper joint being 91 sq ft. The joint-loads, therefore, should be figured at 3 640 lb. Even for the locality in which it was built, this is a very light roof; and it would hardly be considered safe for states further north or west.

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* The actual weight of this truss and bracing was 4 lb per sq ft of sloping surface, which is remarkably small.

Truss for Flat Roof. Example 5. This truss is for a flat roof (Fig. 5). The timber is of spruce and there is a five-ply gravel roof and a plastered ceiling. For the dead load we have,

	lb per sq ft
Weight of roofing	6
Weight of sheathing	3
Weight of rafters	2¼
Weight of purlins	2
Weight of truss, about	4¼
Total dead load in pounds per square foot	17½

No allowance is required for wind-pressure, but the snow-load is a large percentage of the total load in any of the Northern states, as indicated in Table VII.

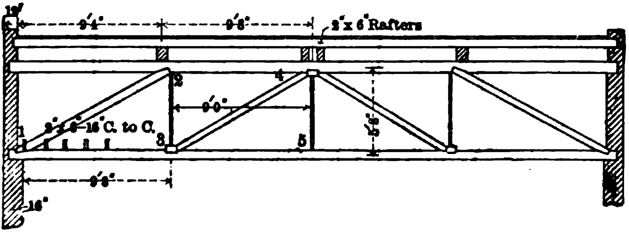


Fig. 5. Howe Truss

Assuming that the building is located in one of the Central states, 30 lb per sq ft should be allowed for snow, making the total roof-load 47½ lb. The plaster ceiling and the ceiling-joists weigh about 12¼ lb and as the roof-space is not likely to be used for storage, 13 lb per sq ft is a sufficient allowance for the ceiling. Assuming that the trusses are to be uniformly spaced, 14 ft on centers, the roof-area supported at joint 2 is 9½ by 14 ft, or 133 sq ft, and the area supported at joint 4, 9⅔ by 14 ft, or 135⅓ sq ft. The ceiling-area supported at joint 3 is 9⅓ by 14 ft, or 130⅔ sq ft and at joint 5, 9 by 14 ft, or 126 sq ft. Multiplying each of these areas by the corresponding load per square foot, we have 6 317 lb for the load at joint 2, 6 428 lb at joint 4, 1 699 lb at joint 3, and 1 638 lb at joint 5. In practice it is hardly worth while to compute the stresses closer than 100 lb, so that the loads may as well be put down at an even 50 or 100 lb above the loads obtained by computation. When the roof is supported by purlins, there are often some joints of the truss which have no load. Thus for the truss shown in Fig. 16, Chapter XXVI, there are no loads on joints 2, 6 and 10. The roof-area supported at joint 4 (Fig. 16) is equal to one-half the distance *OB* multiplied by the distance halfway to the truss on each side. If the lower chord supports ceiling-joists, there is a load at each of the joints 3, 5, 7, 9, etc. STRESS-DIAGRAMS can be drawn for any arrangement of loads, the important point being to compute the loads exactly as they are placed on the truss.

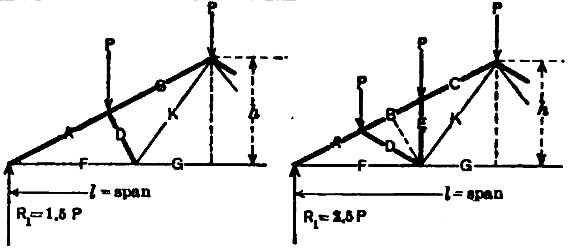
These five examples illustrate fairly well the method of computing the loads on different types of trusses. Other special cases of loading should be computed on the same principles.

3. Determination of Stresses by Computation

Stresses. To determine the stresses, a DIAGRAM OF THE TRUSS, composed of single lines representing the central axial or median lines of the truss-members, should first be carefully drawn to a scale and the loads at the different joints indicated by arrows and numbers as in Figs. 10 and 12. If the center lines of the members, as they are actually placed, do not intersect at common points, they must be made to do so in the diagram, as the stresses can be COMPUTED only on the assumption that the center lines of all members meeting at any joint intersect at a common point. In wooden trusses it is not always practicable to place the members so that their center lines meet in a common point at each joint; but this condition should obtain as nearly as practicable, and in steel trusses the joint-connections should be made so that the lines passing through the centers of gravity of the cross-sections of the members meeting at a joint intersect in the same point.

Table X. Coefficients for Determining the Stresses in Simple Fink and Fan Trusses

WHEN PANEL-LOADS ARE ALL EQUAL



Simple Fink Truss   Simple Fan Truss

To find the stress in any member, multiply its factor by the panel-load, *P*

SIMPLE FINK TRUSS

Member	Kind of stress	*l/h*=3	*l/h*=3.464 =30°	*l/h*=4	*l/h*=5
A...........	Compression	2.70	3.00	3.35	4.04
B...........	"	2.15	2.50	2.91	3.67
D...........	"	0.83	0.87	0.89	0.93
F...........	Tension	2.25	2.60	3.00	3.75
G...........	"	1.50	1.73	2.00	2.50
K...........	"	0.75	0.87	1.00	1.25

SIMPLE FAN TRUSS

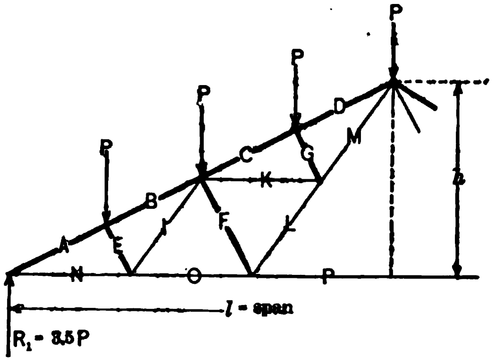
Member	Kind of stress	*l/h*=3	*l/h*=3.464 =30°	*l/h*=4	*l/h*=5
A...........	Compression	4.51	5.00	5.59	6.73
B...........	"	3.54	4.00	4.55	5.59
C...........	"	3.40	4.00	4.70	5.99
D...........	"	0.93	1.00	1.08	1.21
E...........	"	0.93	1.00	1.08	1.21
F...........	Tension	3.75	4.33	5.00	6.25
G...........	"	2.25	2.60	3.00	3.75
K...........	"	1.50	1.73	2.00	2.50

Computation of Stresses. As a general rule, the stresses in a roof-truss can be determined much more readily by the GRAPHIC METHOD than by MATHEMATICAL COMPUTATIONS and with as close a degree of accuracy as is necessary. There are a few forms of trusses, however, for which the stresses can be more easily determined by COMPUTATION. Such trusses must be symmetrical in shape and the joint-loads all alike, as is quite frequently the case with simple steel roofs having no ceiling-load.

Tables X to XIII give constants by which the stresses in Fink and fan trusses may be readily COMPUTED simply by multiplying the constant by the panel or joint-load. These tables apply, however, only when the rafter is divided by the struts into equal spaces, giving equal panel-loads. For any other conditions the stresses should be determined by the GRAPHIC METHOD.

Table XI. Coefficients for Determining the Stresses in an Eight-Panel Fink Truss

WHEN PANEL-LOADS ARE ALL EQUAL



Eight-panel Fink Truss

To find the stress in any member, multiply its factor by the panel-load, *P*

Member	Kind of stress	$l/h=3$	$l/h=3.464 = 30°$	$l/h=4$	$l/h=5$
A...........	Compression	6.31	7.00	7.83	9.42
B...........	"	5.76	6.50	7.38	9.05
C...........	"	5.20	6.00	6.93	8.68
D...........	"	4.65	5.50	6.48	8.31
E...........	"	0.83	0.87	0.89	0.93
F...........	"	1.66	1.73	1.79	1.86
G...........	"	0.83	0.87	0.89	0.93
I...........	Tension	0.75	0.87	1.00	1.25
K...........	"	0.75	0.87	1.00	1.25
L...........	"	1.50	1.73	2.00	2.50
M...........	"	2.25	2.60	3.00	3.75
N...........	"	5.25	6.06	7.00	8.75
O...........	"	4.50	5.19	6.00	7.50
P...........	"	3.00	3.46	4.00	5.00

Table XII. Coefficients for Determining the Stresses in Cambered Fink and Fan Trusses

WHEN PANEL-LOADS ARE ALL EQUAL AND THE CAMBER EQUALS ONE-SIXTH THE RISE

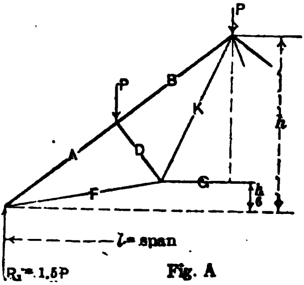


Fig. A

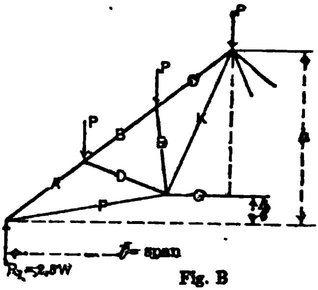


Fig. B

To find the stress in any member, multiply its factor by the panel-load, *P*

TRUSS LIKE FIG. A

Member	Kind of stress	$l/h = 3$	$l/h = 3.464 = 30°$	$l/h = 4$	$l/h = 5$
A...........	Compression	3.64	4.13	4.70	5.78
B...........	"	3.09	3.63	4.25	5.41
D...........	"	0.83	0.87	0.89	0.93
F...........	Tension	3.07	3.62	4.24	5.40
G...........	"	1.80	2.08	2.40	3.00
K...........	"	1.43	1.69	1.98	2.52

TRUSS LIKE FIG. B

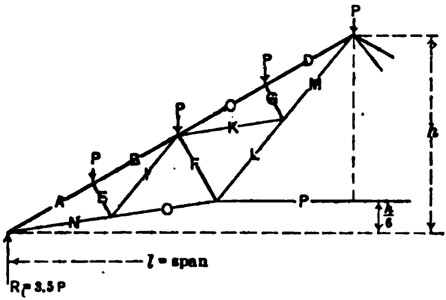
A...........	Compression	6.09	6.88	7.83	9.64
B...........	"	4.89	5.63	6.48	8.10
C...........	"	4.96	5.88	6.93	8.89
D...........	"	1.04	1.15	1.26	1.49
E...........	"	1.04	1.15	1.26	1.49
F...........	Tension	5.12	6.03	7.07	9.01
G...........	"	2.70	3.12	3.60	4.50
K...........	"	2.66	3.13	3.67	4.69

Table XIV gives coefficients which are general for any span and depth for eight-panel roof-trusses with the Howe and Pratt types of bracing. Tables XV and XVI give formulas for COMPUTING the stresses in symmetrical Howe and Pratt trusses which are symmetrically loaded. The coefficients are given for trusses having an odd number of panels. For the Howe truss with an even number of panels the coefficients for the center load on the top chord are each divided by two. For the center load on the bottom chord the coefficients are also divided by two, except that for the center vertical, which remains unity.

For the Pratt truss with an even number of panels the coefficients are divided by two for the center loads for all pieces, except that for the center vertical for loads on the top chord, the coefficient remains unity. For the young architect or engineer these tables will be found useful in furnishing a check upon stresses determined by GRAPHIC METHODS.

Table XIII. Coefficients for Determining the Stresses in an Eight-Panel Cambered Fink Truss

WHEN PANEL-LOADS ARE ALL EQUAL AND CAMBER EQUALS ONE-SIXTH THE TOTAL RISE



To find the stress in any member, multiply its factor by the panel-load, *P*

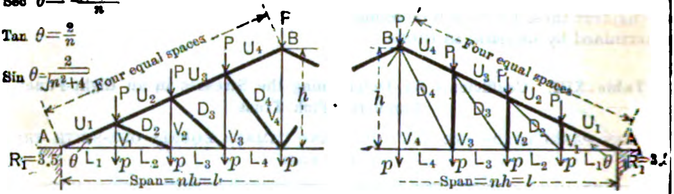
Member	Kind of stress	$l/h = 3$	$l/h = 3.464 = 30°$	$l/h = 4$	$l/h = 5$
A............	Compression	8.49	9.63	10.96	13.49
B............	"	7.94	9.13	10.51	13.11
C............	"	7.39	8.63	10.06	12.74
D............	"	6.83	8.13	9.61	12.37
E............	"	0.83	0.87	0.89	0.93
F............	"	1.66	1.73	1.79	1.86
G............	"	0.83	0.87	0.89	0.93
I............	Tension	1.02	1.21	1.41	1.80
K............	"	1.02	1.21	1.41	1.80
L............	"	2.87	3.37	3.96	5.04
M............	"	3.89	4.58	5.37	6.85
N............	"	7.17	8.44	9.90	12.61
O............	"	6.15	7.23	8.48	10.81
P............	"	3.60	4.16	4.80	6.00

Table XIV. Coefficients for Eight-Panel Roof-Trusses

$\sec\theta = \frac{\sqrt{n^2+4}}{n}$

$\tan\theta = \frac{2}{n}$

$\sin\theta = \frac{2}{\sqrt{n^2+4}}$

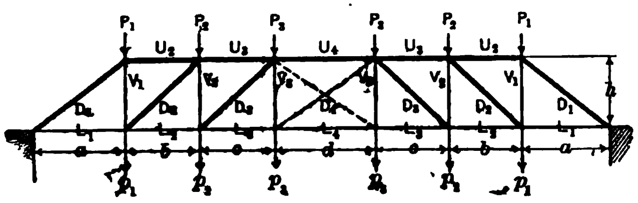


Member	Roof-loads, P	Ceiling-loads, p	Length of member	Roof-loads, P	Ceiling-loads, p	Length of member
U_1	$1.75\sqrt{n^2+4}$	$1.75\sqrt{n^2+4}$	$0.125h\sqrt{n^2+4}$	$1.73\sqrt{n^2+4}$	$1.75\sqrt{n^2+4}$	$0.125h\sqrt{n^2+4}$
U_2	$1.50\sqrt{n^2+4}$	$1.50\sqrt{n^2+4}$	"	$1.75\sqrt{n^2+4}$	$1.75\sqrt{n^2+4}$	"
U_3	$1.25\sqrt{n^2+4}$	$1.25\sqrt{n^2+4}$	"	$1.50\sqrt{n^2+4}$	$1.50\sqrt{n^2+4}$	"
U_4	$1.00\sqrt{n^2+4}$	$1.00\sqrt{n^2+4}$	"	$1.25\sqrt{n^2+4}$	$1.25\sqrt{n^2+4}$	"
L_1	$1.75\ n$	$1.75\ n$	$0.125\ nh$	$1.75\ n$	$1.75\ n$	$0.125\ nh$
L_2	$1.75\ n$	$1.75\ n$	"	$1.50\ n$	$1.50\ n$	"
L_3	$1.50\ n$	$1.50\ n$	"	$1.25\ n$	$1.25\ n$	"
L_4	$1.25\ n$	$1.25\ n$	"	$1.00\ n$	$1.00\ n$	"
V_1	0	1.0	$0.25\ h$	1.0	0	$0.25\ h$
V_2	0.5	1.5	$0.50\ h$	1.5	0.5	$0.50\ h$
V_3	1.0	2.0	$0.75\ h$	2.0	1.0	$0.75\ h$
V_4	3.0	4.0	$1.00\ h$	0	1.0	$1.00\ h$
D_2	$0.25\sqrt{n^2+4}$	$0.25\sqrt{n^2+4}$	$0.125h\sqrt{n^2+4}$	$0.25\sqrt{n^2+16}$	$0.25\sqrt{n^2+16}$	$0.125h\sqrt{n^2+16}$
D_3	$0.25\sqrt{n^2+16}$	$0.25\sqrt{n^2+16}$	$0.125h\sqrt{n^2+16}$	$0.25\sqrt{n^2+36}$	$0.25\sqrt{n^2+36}$	$0.125h\sqrt{n^2+36}$
D_4	$0.25\sqrt{n^2+36}$	$0.25\sqrt{n^2+36}$	$0.125h\sqrt{n^2+36}$	$0.25\sqrt{n^2+64}$	$0.25\sqrt{n^2+64}$	$0.125h\sqrt{n^2+64}$

Stress = coefficient × P or p.

For a half-truss supported at A and B, reduce all top-chord coefficients by $\sqrt{n^2+4}$ and all bottom-chord coefficients by n. The coefficients for the web-members used remain unchanged.

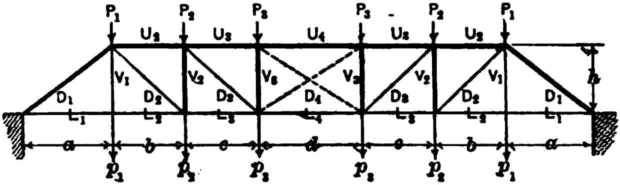
Table XV. Coefficients for Howe Trusses which are Symmetrical About the Center of the Span and Symmetrically Loaded



Member	7 panels			5 panels		3 panels
	P_1	P_2	P_3	P_1	P_2	P_1
L_1 and U_2	$a \div h$	$a \div h$	$a \div h$	$a \div h$	$a \div h$	$a \div h$
L_2 and U_3	$a \div h$	$(a+b) \div h$	$(a+b) \div h$	$a \div h$	$(a+b) \div h$	....
L_3 and U_4	$a \div h$	$(a+b) \div h$	$(a+b+c) \div h$	....	....	....
L_4.......	$a \div h$	$(a+b) \div h$	$(a+b+c) \div h$	....	....	....
D_1.......	$\sqrt{a^2+h^2} \div h$	$\sqrt{a^2+h^2} \div h$	$\sqrt{a^2+h^2} \div h$	$\sqrt{a^2+h^2} \div h$	$\sqrt{a^2+h^2} \div h$	$\sqrt{a^2+h^2} \div h$
D_2.......	0	$\sqrt{b^2+h^2} \div h$	$\sqrt{b^2+h^2} \div h$	0	$\sqrt{b^2+h^2} \div h$	....
D_3.......	0	0	$\sqrt{c^2+h^2} \div h$	0	0	....
D_4.......	0	0	0	....	....	....
V_1.......	0	1.0	1.0	0	1.0	0
V_2.......	0	0	1.0	0	0	....
V_3.......	0	0	0	....	....	....
	p_1	p_2	p_3	p_1	p_2	p_1
V_1.......	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
V_2.......	0	1.0	1.0	0	1.0	....
V_3.......	0	0	1.0	....	....	....

For loads p_1, p_2, etc., the coefficients for the chords and diagonals are the same as given for the loads P_1, P_2, etc. The coefficients for the verticals for loads p_1, p_2, etc., are given in the supplementary table below the general table. Tension is indicated in the truss diagram by light lines.

Table XVI. Coefficients for Pratt Trusses which are Symmetrical About the Center of the Span and Symmetrically Loaded



Member	7 panels			5 panels		3 panels
	P_1	P_2	P_3	P_1	P_2	P_1
L_1 and L_2	$a \div h$	$a \div h$	$a \div h$	$a \div h$	$a \div h$	$a \div h$
L_3 and U_2	$a \div h$	$(a+b) \div h$	$(a+b) \div h$	$a \div h$	$(a+b) \div h$	....
L_4 and U_3	$a \div h$	$(a+b) \div h$	$(a+b+c) \div h$	....	....	....
$U_4 = L_4$...	....	....	....	....	....	....
D_1.......	$\sqrt{a^2+h^2} \div h$	$\sqrt{a^2+h^2} \div h$	$\sqrt{a^2+h^2} \div h$	$\sqrt{a^2+h^2} \div h$	$\sqrt{a^2+h^2} \div h$	$\sqrt{a^2+h^2} \div h$
D_2.......	0	$\sqrt{b^2+h^2} \div h$	$\sqrt{b^2+h^2} \div h$	0	$\sqrt{b^2+h^2} \div h$	....
D_3.......	0	0	$\sqrt{c^2+h^2} \div h$	0	0	....
D_4.......	0	0	0	....	....	....
V_1.......	0	0	0	0	0	0
V_2.......	0	1.0	1.0	0	1.0	....
V_3.......	0	0	1.0	....	....	....
	p_1	p_2	p_3	p_1	p_2	p_1
V_1.......	1.0	0	0	1.0	0	1.0
V_2.......	0	0	1.0	0	0	....
V_3.......	0	0	0	....	....	....

For loads p_1, p_2, etc., the coefficients for the chords and diagonals are the same as given for the loads P_1, P_2, etc. The coefficients for the verticals for loads p_1, p_2, etc., are given in the supplementary table below the general table. Tension is indicated in the truss-diagram by light lines.

4. Examples Showing Use of Tables in Stress-Computations

Simple Fan Truss. Example 1. In this example a simple fan truss of 36-ft span is considered. The distance on centers of trusses is 12 ft. The height of truss is 9 ft, or $l/h = 4$. The total load per square foot of roof is 40 lb. The length of rafter is 20 ft, nearly. The panel-load, $P = \frac{20}{3} \times 12 \times 40 = 3\,200$ lb. Then from Table X,

Stress in lower end of rafter $A = 3\,200 \times 5.59 = 17\,888$ lb
Stress in ends of main tie $F = 3\,200 \times 5.00 = 16\,000$ lb
Stress in center of main tie $G = 3\,200 \times 3.00 = 9\,600$ lb
Stress in braces D and $E = 3\,200 \times 1.08 = 3\,456$ lb
Stress in tie $K = 3\,200 \times 2 = 6\,400$ lb

Five-Panel Howe Truss. Example 2. (Table XV.) A five-panel Howe truss is considered, for which $h = 6$ ft, $a = 9$ ft, $b = 10$ ft and $c = 12$ ft. Let the trusses be spaced 10 ft on centers, the roof-load be 40 lb per sq ft and the ceiling-load 15 lb per sq ft. The panel-loads become:

$$\left.\begin{aligned} P_1 &= \tfrac{1}{2}\,(9 + 10)\,(10 \times 40) = 3\,800 \text{ lb} \\ p_1 &= \tfrac{1}{2}\,(9 + 10)\,(10 \times 15) = 1\,400 \text{ lb} \end{aligned}\right\} = 5\,200 \text{ lb}$$

$$\left.\begin{aligned} P_2 &= \tfrac{1}{2}\,(10 + 12)\,(10 \times 40) = 4\,400 \text{ lb} \\ p_2 &= \tfrac{1}{2}\,(10 + 12)\,(10 \times 15) = 1\,700 \text{ lb} \end{aligned}\right\} = 6\,100 \text{ lb}$$

L_1 and $U_2 = \frac{9}{6} \times 5\,200 + \frac{9}{6} \times 6\,100 = 17\,000$ lb
L_2 and $U_3 = \frac{9}{6} \times 5\,200 + \frac{19}{6} \times 6\,100 = 27\,100$ lb
$D_1 = 10.82/6\,(5\,200 + 6\,100) = 20\,400$ lb
$D_2 = 11.66/6 \times 6\,100 = 11\,900$ lb
$V_1 = 4\,400 + 1\,400 + 1\,700 = 7\,500$ lb
$V_2 = 1\,700$ lb

In the above results all values between 50 and 100 have been considered 100.

5. Determination of Stresses in Roof-Trusses by Graphic Methods

The Graphic Method is the simplest and in most cases the quickest method of determining the stresses in a roof-truss; and it has, besides, the additional advantage of being applicable to any true truss-form or any arrangement of loads. There is also less chance of making a mistake in the GRAPHIC METHOD than in the method of NUMERICAL COMPUTATION, as an error in the graphical analysis almost always becomes manifest. When the principles are understood, STRESS-DIAGRAMS can be very quickly drawn, without the aid of books or tables. For the forms of trusses in common use, the method of drawing the stress-diagrams is quite simple; and a careful study of the following examples, supplemented by a little practice in drawing the diagrams, should enable any architect, draughtsman, or builder to understand the principles involved in the GRAPHICAL ANALYSIS OF ROOF-TRUSSES.

Principles Upon Which the Graphic Method is Based. To thoroughly understand this method, a knowledge of the COMPOSITION AND RESOLUTION OF FORCES, as explained in Chapter VI, is essential; and before studying this subject the student should read carefully pages 288 and 289. The theorems stated and explained on these pages form the basis of GRAPHIC STATICS. In the GRAPHIC METHOD all forces, including the loads, are represented by straight lines, and the directions of the forces must be constantly kept in mind. Often it is of assistance to indicate the direction of a force by an arrow-head, as explained on page 289. The direction in which a force acts with reference to a body indicates, also, whether it is a PUSHING or a PULLING force, or whether the member on which the force or in which the stress acts is in COMPRESSION or TENSION. This is more fully explained in the following pages, and also in connection with several of the stress-diagrams.

Forces and Stresses which Act On and In a Truss. Every stress-diagram represents three sets of forces, viz., the external LOADS, the supporting forces or REACTIONS, and the STRESSES in the truss-members.

Supporting Forces or Reactions. For a truss to remain in place, two of the conditions for equilibrium are that the algebraic sums of the vertical and horizontal components of all the forces acting upon the truss must respectively equal zero. Then the horizontal and vertical components of the supporting forces or reactions, taken together, must respectively equal the horizontal and vertical components of the loads. The LOADS and REACTIONS are considered as the EXTERNAL FORCES acting on the truss and form part of the STRESS-DIAGRAM.

Symmetrical Loads. When the loads or vertical forces are symmetrical on each side of the middle of the span, the supporting forces are equal, and each is equal to one-half the total load on the truss.

Unsymmetrical Loads. When the loads are not symmetrical about the middle, either in regard to point of application or to magnitude, the supporting forces are unequal and in most cases must be determined before the stress-diagram can be drawn. The supporting forces for unsymmetrically loaded trusses may be computed by the method of the MOMENTS OF FORCES, explained on pages 322 to 324.

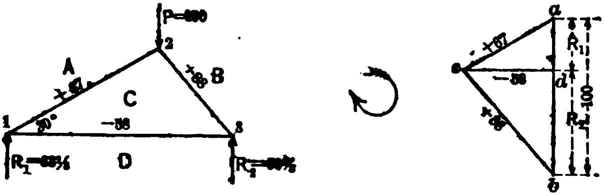
Stress-Diagrams for Vertical Loads. Before the stress-diagram for a truss can be drawn, it is necessary to make a skeleton drawing of the truss, representing the central or median lines of the members as explained on page 1058. This diagram, called the TRUSS-DIAGRAM, should be drawn on the same sheet of paper as the STRESS-DIAGRAM, for convenience in drawing the latter. The truss-diagram should also have all of the loads which come on the truss indicated by arrows and figures, as in the following examples.

Supporting Forces. The SUPPORTING FORCES, also, should be indicated on the TRUSS-DIAGRAM as in Fig. 10. These forces are determined as explained on pages 322 to 324.

Lettering the Truss-Diagram. After the truss-diagram is drawn, it is convenient to letter it according to the method known as Bow's NOTATION, which allows a ready comparison of the TRUSS-DIAGRAM and the STRESS-DIAGRAM, and also enables the student to readily draw the stress-diagram and to immediately determine the CHARACTER as well as the MAGNITUDE of the stresses. The essential principle of this method is the LETTERING of each space on each side of every external force and of every member of the truss, so that on the truss-diagram a truss-member or external force is denoted by the letters on each side of it. When the stress-diagram is drawn, it will be found that the same letters come at the ends of the lines representing the external forces and the stresses in the truss-members.

The Simple Triangular Frame is much used in building construction, and most forms of roof-trusses are combinations of such triangles. It is, therefore, worth while to show how easily the above principles may be used to determine the stresses in such a frame. Diagram 1, Fig. 6, represents the TRUSS-DIAGRAM of a triangular frame properly lettered. A load of 100 lb is applied at the apex. The weight of the frame is disregarded. In diagram 2, a vertical line *ab* is drawn, 1 in long (say to a scale of 100 lb to the inch), representing the force *AB*. From *b*, *bd* is drawn equal to R_2 and from *d*, *da* equal to R_1. These three lines represent the external forces acting on the truss, and the polygon *abda*, called the FORCE-POLYGON, is always a CLOSED FIGURE if the forces are in EQUILIBRIUM. Since the force *AB* is vertical and R_1 and R_2 are parallel to *AB*, the figure *abda* is a straight line, *bd* and *da* coinciding with *ab*. If the external forces form a CLOSED

POLYGON when laid off to scale, usually in order, the frame or truss upon which they act will not be moved either vertically or horizontally by the forces. The FORCE-POLYGON should always be drawn and closed before any attempt is made to determine the stresses in the members of the truss. The stresses in the members of the truss will now be found, beginning with those meeting at joint 1. Pieces *AC* and *CD* meet at this joint. The stresses in these two pieces and R_1 are in EQUILIBRIUM and, consequently, if laid off in order will form a CLOSED FIGURE as shown in Chapter VI. In diagram 2, *da* represents R_1 in MAGNITUDE and DIRECTION. From *a* draw a line parallel to *AC* and from *d* a line parallel to *CD* and prolong them until they intersect at *c*. *ac* is the stress in *AC*, and *cd* that in *CD*. *ac*, *cd* and *da*, or R_1, are in EQUILIBRIUM since they form a CLOSED FIGURE. Taking the forces in order, *da*, or R_1, is known to act towards the joint. The direction *ac* is also towards the joint and hence the stress is of the same character as the force R_1 and the piece *AC* is in COMPRESSION. *AC* pushes against the joint as R_1 does. Continuing around the stress-polygon *dac*, in the same direction, *cd* acts away from the joint and the stress in *CD* is opposite in character to the force R_1, or *CD* is in TENSION. *CD* pulls away from joint 1. At joint 2, the stresses in the pieces *BC* and *CA* and the force *AB* are in EQUILIBRIUM. The sides of the STRESS-POLYGON are *ab*, *bc* and *ca* (diagram 2). The force *ab* which represents the load of 100 lb acts down and towards the joint, *bc* and *ca* also act towards this joint, showing that the stresses in *BC* and *CA* are of the same character as the force *AB*, or that the pieces push against the joint and that each is in COMPRESSION. At joint 3, the two pieces meeting are *DC* and *CB*. The STRESS-POLYGON is *bdc*. Here *bd* acts towards the joint, *dc* away from the joint, and *cb* towards the joint. As found before, the stress in *DC* is TENSION and that in *CB*, COMPRESSION. Diagram 2 is made up of three STRESS-POLYGONS, one for each of the joints shown in diagram 1. Each of these polygons is considered independently when determining the MAGNITUDE and CHARACTER of the stresses or forces. This is important to remember when the STRESS-POLYGONS are combined as in diagram 2. In determining the CHARACTER of the stress in *AC*, for example, from the STRESS-POLYGON *dac* for joint 1, the force *ac* acts towards joint 1, while from the STRESS-POLYGON *abc* for joint 2, *ca* acts towards joint 2. In both cases the piece *AC* is pushing against the joints at its ends and is in COMPRESSION. If arrow-heads are used in indicating the directions of the forces in the STRESS-POLYGONS, they should be erased as soon as the characters of the stresses for the joint being considered have been found; otherwise, where polygons are combined as in diagram 2, each line will have two arrow-heads pointing in opposite directions, leading to confusion. Arrow-heads may be placed upon the TRUSS-DIAGRAM. Each piece will have two arrow-heads, one at each end, referring to the joint at the end. When the arrow-heads point



1. Truss-diagram 2. Stress-diagram

Fig. 6. Triangular Frame

away from each other the piece is in COMPRESSION, and when they point towards each other the piece is in tension.

It is important to keep in mind the direction in which the forces and stresses are considered in order, in going around the truss or around a joint. In Figs. 6 and 8 the curved arrows show that a clockwise direction has been chosen. This makes the stress-lines of the stress-diagram come on the left of the load-line. This direction has been taken for all the trusses in this chapter, except for a few diagrams for wind-loads. The stresses could have been determined just as well by taking a contra-clockwise direction.

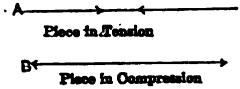
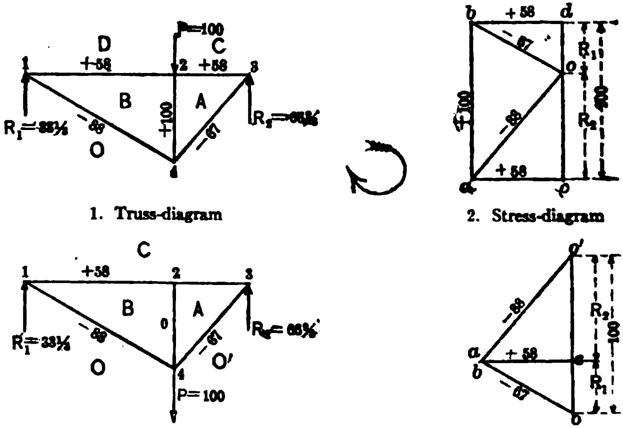


Fig. 7. Indication of Character of Stress

If two men pull on the two ends of a rope, exerting PULLING FORCES of equal intensity, the TENSIONAL STRESS in every cross-section of the rope is equal to the FORCE with which one man pulls; and each end of the rope pulls away from the man holding it, with a FORCE equal in magnitude to that which he exerts. Thus if each man exerts a FORCE of 100 lb the STRESS in the rope is 100 lb and each end of the rope pulls away with a FORCE of 100 lb. If the men push against the two ends of a piece of timber with a FORCE of 100 lb, the timber pushes against each man with a FORCE of 100 lb, although the entire COMPRESSIVE STRESS in every cross-section of the timber is but 100 lb. Consequently STRESS-LINES are sometimes drawn with arrow-heads pointing towards each other, as at *A*, Fig. 7, denoting TENSION; or with arrow-heads pointing in opposite directions, as at *B*, denoting COMPRESSION. It is better, however, to omit arrow-heads on STRESS-LINES, putting them on lines representing EXTERNAL FORCES only. The STRESS in any member of a truss acts in opposite directions at the two ends of the piece. This is an important truth to remember in drawing STRESS-DIAGRAMS.

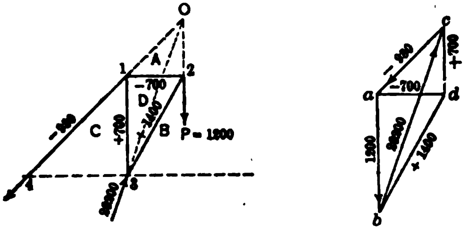


1. Truss-diagram 2. Stress-diagram

3. Truss-diagram 4. Stress-diagram

Fig. 8. Trussed Beam

The Trussed Beam. Fig. 8 shows a load supported by a beam, post or strut and two ties instead of by two struts and a tie. The effect on the rod forming the two ties is the same whether the load is applied as shown in diagram 1, or as shown in diagram 3. Considering the case shown in diagram 1: The FORCE-POLYGON is *dcod* (diagram 2); the sides of the STRESS-POLYGON for joint 1 are *od*, *db* and *bo*, the stress in *DB* being compression, and that in *BO*, tension. For joint 2 the sides of the stress-polygon are *dc*, *ca*, *ab* and *bd*, the stress in *CA* being compression; that in *AB*, compression; and that in *BD*, compression. For joint 3 the sides of the stress-polygon are *ac*, *co* and *oa*. The stress in *AC* is compression; and that in *OA*, tension. The condition shown in diagram 3, where the load is suspended from joint 4, leads to a different form of STRESS-DIAGRAM, but the method of construction remains the same. The stresses in the pieces are the same with the exception that the stress in the piece *AB* is zero for the case shown in diagram 3.



1. Truss-diagram 2. Stress-diagram

Fig. 9. Crane Truss

The Crane Truss. Fig. 9, diagram 1, shows the TRUSS-DIAGRAM of a CRANE carrying a vertical load at joint 2. The EXTERNAL FORCES acting on the frame are, the load at joint 2, the supporting force at joint 3, and the stress in the guy *CA*. Since the frame is in equilibrium under the action of these three forces, they meet in a point. This provides a ready method for determining the direction and magnitude of the supporting force at joint 3. Prolong the line *CA* and draw a vertical line through joint 2 until it intersects the line *CA*, prolonged, at *O*; then, since the supporting force must pass through joint 3, 3*O* is the direction of this force. The FORCE-POLYGON is now drawn. The sides of this polygon are *bc*, *ca* and *ab*. *ca* is the stress in the guy *CA* which is in tension. The stress-polygons for each joint can now be readily drawn and the stresses in the members of the frame determined (diagram 2).

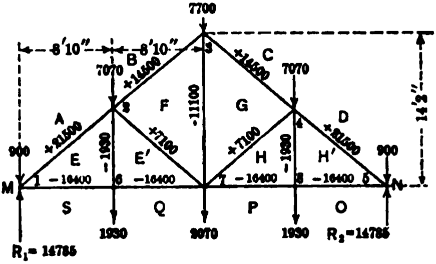


Fig. 10. King-rod Truss. Truss-diagram

The following EXAMPLES, worked out in detail and with considerable repetition, will enable the student to grasp the principles of the GRAPHIC METHOD for determining STRESSES IN FRAMED STRUCTURES.

King-Rod Truss. Example 1. Fig. 10 shows the TRUSS-DIAGRAM of the truss represented in Fig. 1, properly drawn, lettered and figured, ready for drawing the STRESS-DIAGRAM. The supporting force at the left is *SM*, the loa at joint 1 is *MA*, the bottom of the rafter is *AE*, the left portion of the tie-bea or bottom chord is *ES*, etc. The loads acting at joints 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 a designated as *MA*, *AB*, *BC*, *CD* and *DN* respectively, and those at joints 8, and 6 as *OP*, *PQ* and *QS* respectively. It makes no difference what lette are used, except that it is better to first letter the outside spaces consecutivel and then the inside spaces.

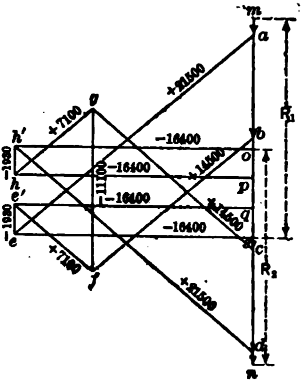


Fig. 10A. King-rod Truss. Stress-diagram

Force-Polygon. The FORCE-POLYGON is now constructed by laying off t scale (Fig. 10A) the external forces in order, beginning with the force *MA*, an following with *AB*, *BC*, *CD*, *DN* laid o downward, *NO* laid off upward, *OP*, *P* *QS* laid off downward, and *SM* laid o upward. If the work is correct, thes forces form a CLOSED FIGURE.

Stress-Diagrams. The STRESS-DI GRAM is drawn by taking the forces actin on the joints in consecutive order, com mencing at one of the supports. It i convenient to start with the support a the left, or at joint 1. In actual com putations it is not necessary to numbe the joints, but in order to refer to them in the description it is necessary to number them in the illustrations. Commencing at joint 1, the first step in drawin the STRESS-DIAGRAM is to draw a vertica line to a scale of POUNDS-TO-THE-INCH t represent the supporting force *SM*. Thi line is the line *sm* already drawn in constructing the FORCE-POLYGON (Fig. 10A) which might be drawn to the scale of 16 000 lb to the inch. It is best to use a scale as large as convenient in order to have a relatively small STRESS-DIAGRAM. An engineer's scale, one divided to 10ths, 20ths, 30ths, etc., of an inch, is found most convenient for these drawings. The small letter *s* is placed at the bottom of the line *sm*, and the letter *m* at the top. From *m* is laid off *ma* representing the load *MA*. A line is then drawn from *a*, parallel to the rafter *AE*, and a line from *s* parallel to the tie-beam *ES*. The two lines meet at *e*, and *ae* represents the stress in *AE* and *es* the stress in *ES*. The supporting force, represented by *sm*, acts upward, and the others follow in rotation, showing that *ae* acts towards joint 1 and that the member *AE* is in COMPRESSION, and showing that *es* acts from joint 1 and that the member *ES* is in TENSION. Consider next the stresses at joint 6. Commencing at the bottom of the joint and going around to the left, the first force that is known is the load *QS*, or 1 930 lb, which is measured to the scale used from *q* to *s*, downward, as the loads act downward. The point *s* was located in drawing the STRESS-POLYGON for joint 1, and *q* and *s* in constructing the FORCE-POLYGON for the external forces. The next stress that is known is the stress *se* which has just been determined. As this stress acts to the right from joint 1, it will act to the left from joint 6, as the stresses in the two ends of a strut or a tie act in opposite directions, as explained on page 1068. The stresses in *EE'* and *E'Q* are not known, so from *e* a line is drawn parallel to *EE'* and extended so that a line drawn from its extremity *e'* and parallel to *E'Q* closes on *q*. The lines *ee'* and *e'q* are thus found, which represent the stresses in *EE'* and *E'Q* respectively. Starting with *se*, the stress in

SE, known to be tension and acting from joint 6, and going around the diagram in rotation, *EE'* and *E'Q* are found to be in tension. At joint 2 the stresses in *E'E* and *EA* and the force or load *AB* are known, leaving the stresses in *BF* and *FE'* to be determined. From *a* lay off downward *ab* equal to the force or load *AB*. From *b* draw a line parallel to *BF*, and from *e'* a line parallel to *FE'*. Prolong these lines until they intersect at *f*; then *bf* is the stress in *BF* and *fe'* that in *FE'*. Both members are in compression. At joint 3, the unknown forces or stresses are the stresses in *CG* and *GF*. From *c* draw a line parallel to *CG*, and from *f* a line parallel to *GF*. The two lines intersect at *g*, and *cg* is the stress in *CG* and *gf* that in *GF*. *CG* is in compression and *GF* in tension. Since the truss is symmetrical and symmetrically loaded, the stresses in the members on the right of the middle are the same as in those on the left. The stresses in the members on the left of the middle have been determined so that it is not necessary to draw the stress-polygons for joints 4, 5, 8 and 7. It is good practice to complete the stress-diagram including the stresses for every joint in the truss. A closed symmetrical figure will result, unless some error is made in the construction, thus checking the work. The scale is now applied to the different lines of the stress-diagram and the magnitudes of the stresses obtained as indicated on the corresponding lines of the truss-diagram (Fig. 11). In practice the diagrams of Figs. 10 and 11 are combined in one drawing. They are shown separately here merely to indicate the successive steps in the drawing of the diagrams and in the determination of the stresses.

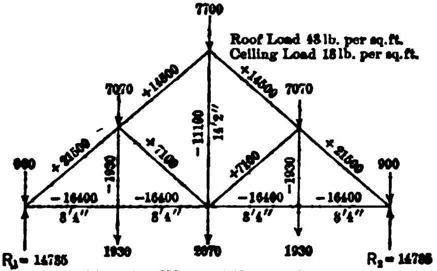


Fig. 11. King-rod Truss. Stresses

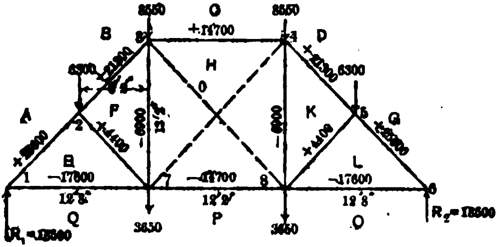


Fig. 12. Queen Truss. Truss-diagram. (See, also, Figs. 3, 53 and 54 and Chapter XXVIII, Fig. 1)

The Queen Truss. Example 2. The diagram in Fig. 12 represents the center lines of the members of the queen truss shown in Fig. 3; and the loads indicated are those found in example 2, page 1055. The middle braces in the middle panel are indicated by dotted lines in the truss-diagram, because under a symmetrical load there are no stresses in these members, and they are therefore not represented by lines in the stress-diagram. As the truss is symmetrically loaded, each supporting force or reaction is equal to one-half the total load, or 18 500 lb. There are no purlins at joints 1 and 6 to carry rafters and ceiling-joists, which are supported by the walls of the building, so there are no external loads at these joints as in the previous example. The very small dead load due to the truss itself is neglected. To draw the force-polygon, first draw the vertical line *qa* (Fig. 12A) equal in length, to some scale, to the magnitude of the left supporting force; then in rotation and at the same scale lay off the distances *ab*, *bc*, *cd* and *dg*, downward; *go*, equal to the right supporting force, upward; and *op* and *pq* downward, closing the figure at *q*. To construct the combined stress-diagram using the force-polygon just drawn, as a foundation, first consider joint 1. From *a* draw a line parallel to *AE* and from *q* a line parallel to *EQ*. The triangle *qae* represents the three forces in equilibrium, meeting in a point and acting at joint 1. As the supporting forces act upward, the arrow-head on *qa* points upward. Following the sides of the stress-polygon *qae* in rotation, *ae* acts towards the joint and *eq* from the joint, showing that *ae* is in compression and *eq* in tension. Next determine the stresses acting at joint 2. The stress in *EA* is now known and represented by the line *ea*, and as the stress at joint 2 acts in a direction opposite to that at joint 1, it now acts upward towards joint 2. The next force is the load, 6 300 lb, which acts downward. The point *b* has already been found by measuring from *a* a distance equal to 6 300 lb at the same scale as used in drawing *qa*. There now remain two stresses to be found for joint 2, those in *BF* and *FE*. Draw *bf* parallel to *BF*, and *fe* parallel to *FE*, the two lines intersecting at *f*. Then the sides of the polygon *abfe* represent respectively the magnitudes of the four forces acting at joint 2; and the character of the stresses is determined by the directions in which the stress-lines are drawn, in order, in going around the joint. In this case they all act toward the joint, and *EA*, *BF* and *FE* are in compression. The stresses acting at joint 3 or 7 may be determined next, as only two of them are unknown at either joint. Considering the external force and the three stresses acting at joint 3, the stress in *FB* has been determined and is represented by the line *fb*, which is drawn upward for this joint. The load or force *BC*, 8 550 lb, is known and is represented by *bc*. *ch* is drawn parallel to *CH*, and *hf* parallel to *HF*, closing the polygon. The length of *ch* determines the magnitude of the stress in *CH* and *hf* the stress in *HF*. The stresses in all the truss-members but *HP* are now determined. This stress is found by considering the force and stresses acting at joint 7. At this joint the force *PQ*, or 3 650 lb, and the stresses in *QE*, *EF* and *FH*, represented respectively by *pq*, *qe*, *ef* and *fh*, have been determined. The line *hp*, representing the stress in *HP*, completes the polygon for joint 7. Hence *hp* determines the stress in *HP*, and as *ho* is drawn from left to right, from the joint, *HP* is in tension. With reference to joint 3, the line *ch* is drawn towards joint 3 and hence *CH* is in compression. Scaling the lines in the stress-diagram (Fig. 12A) the figures shown by the side of the lines are obtained. They indicate the magnitude of each stress in pounds, the + sign denoting compression, and the − sign, tension. The two foregoing examples illustrate the method of drawing the stress-diagrams for simple symmetrical trusses, symmetrically loaded. The truss-diagrams should be drawn in accordance with the measurements given,

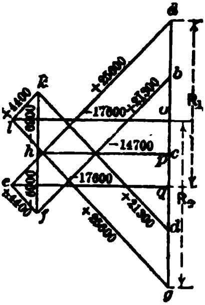


Fig. 12A. Queen Truss. Stress-diagram

but to a scale of not less than ⅛ in to the foot; and the stress-diagram should be drawn, line by line, in accordance with the foregoing directions and the results obtained and compared with those given in the figures. A variation of 100 or 200 lb for small stresses and less than 1% for large stresses may be expected, but a greater variation indicates either that sufficient care has not been exercised in drawing the stress-lines exactly parallel to the corresponding lines of the truss-diagram, or that an error has been made in drawing the truss-diagram, or in scaling the lines of the stress-diagram. After these two examples have been worked, a number of the following examples, also, should be solved, until the principles are fully understood.

Truss for Museum of Fine Arts, St. Louis, Mo. Example 3. Fig. 13 represents the truss-diagram of the truss shown in Fig. 11, Chapter XXVI,

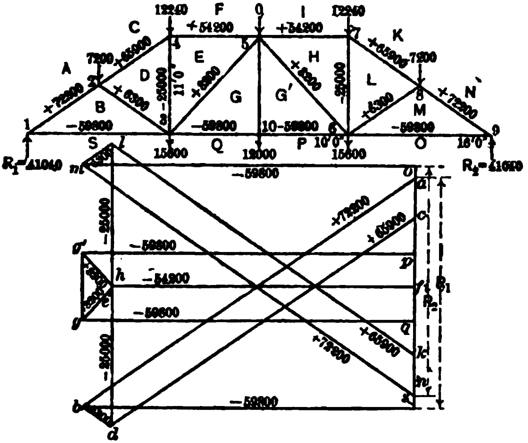


Fig. 13. Truss-diagram. Museum of Fine Arts, St. Louis, Mo.
Fig. 13A. Stress-diagram

the loads indicated being approximately those due to the roof and suspended floor below. The loads being symmetrically disposed, each supporting force is equal to one-half the total load, or 41 040 lb. . The counterbraces *CC*, shown in Chapter XXVI, are omitted from the truss because they have no stress when the truss is uniformly loaded. To draw the stress-diagram (Fig. 13A), first draw to scale the vertical line *sa*, equal to 41 040 lb, equal to R_1; and then *ab* and *bs* parallel respectively to *AB* and *BS* and representing the stresses acting at joint 1. At joint 2, the line *ba* represents the stress in *BA*; *ac*, equal to 7 200 lb, the load *AC*; *cd*, the stress in *CD*; and *db* the stress in *DB*. The polygon *bacdb* represents the forces in equilibrium acting at joint 2. At joint 3 there are three unknown forces; and as three unknown forces out of five in one polygon cannot be determined, joint 4, where *dc* and the load *CF* are known, is considered next. Measuring off the load *cf*, equal to 12 240 lb, the stresses in *FE* and *ED* only are to be determined. These are found by drawing *fe* parallel to *FE*, and *ed* parallel to *ED*, the two lines intersecting at *e*.. At joint 3, *sb*, *bd*, *de* and the force, *qs* are known, and *eg* and *gq* are drawn to close the polygon *sbdegs*. At joint 10 the force *pq*, equal to 12 000 lb, and *qg* are known; and *gg′* and *g′p* are drawn to close the polygon. At joint 5, *g′g*, *ge* and *ef* are known and *ik* and *kg′* are drawn to close the polygon. Since there is no load at joint 5, *f* and *i* fall at the same point in the stress-diagram. The stresses in pounds, in the various members of the truss, are given in numbers on the corresponding lines in the stress-diagram (Fig. 13A).

Triangular Pratt Truss. Example 4. Consider the skeleton triangular Pratt truss represented in Fig. 14 loaded as shown by the weight of the roof above and a ceiling below. To draw the stress-diagram, first draw to scale the supporting force *qj*, equal to 46 620 lb. Then lay off *jk* equal to 10 320 lb, *kl* equal to 10 320 lb, etc. Then draw the lines *ja* and *aq*, and the three forces at the left support are known. At joint *o*, *pq* and *qa* are known and *ab* and *bp* are drawn to close the polygon. At joint 1, *ba*, *aj* and *jk* are known and *kc* and *cb* are drawn to close the polygon. At joint 2, *op*, *pb* and *bc* are known and *cd* and *do* are drawn to close the polygon. At joint 3, *dc*, *ck* and *kl* are known and *le* and *ed* are drawn. At joint 4, *no*, *od* and *de* are known and *ef* and *fn* are

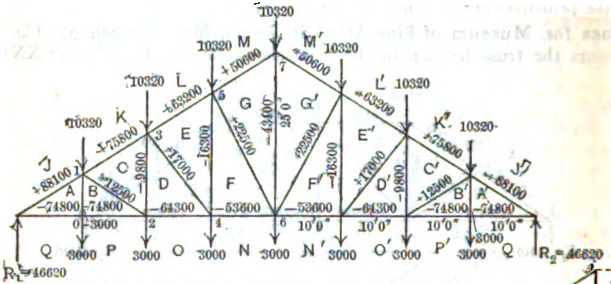


Fig. 14. Triangular Pratt Truss. Truss-diagram

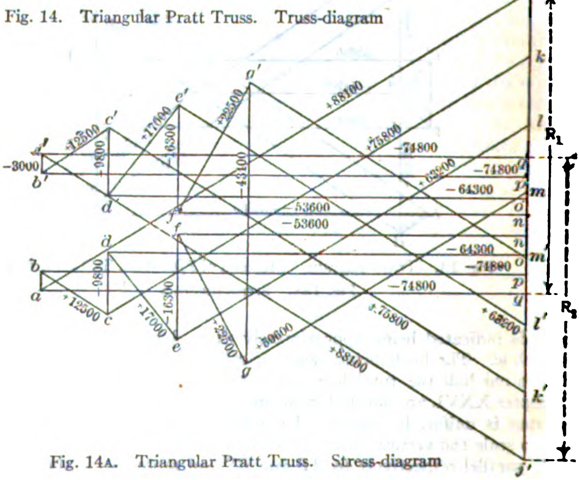


Fig. 14A. Triangular Pratt Truss. Stress-diagram

drawn to close the polygon. At joint 5, *fe*, *el* and *lm* are known and *mg* and *gf* are drawn. Joint 7 is considered next, for at joint 6 there are three unknown stresses; and by the graphic method three out of five forces, meeting in a point and in equilibrium, must be known in order to determine the other two. At joint 7, *gm* and *mm'* are known and *m'g'* and *g'g* are drawn to close the polygon. This completes the determination of the stresses in all the pieces for one-half of the truss and of course the stresses for each half are the same as the loading is symmetrical.

Eight-Panel Howe Truss. Example 5. For the next example a HOWE TRUSS is considered, whose center lines give the diagram shown in Fig. 15.

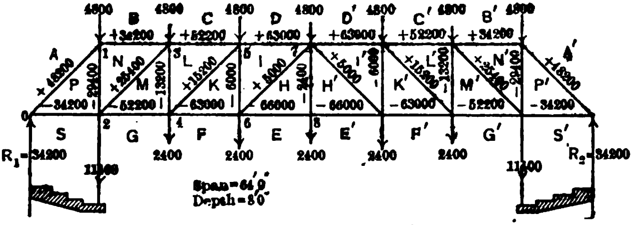


Fig. 15. Howe Truss. Truss-diagram

This truss is used for a span of 64 ft, and it supports, in addition to a flat roof, a plaster ceiling below the bottom chord and a gallery on each side. The loads at the different joints are about as indicated in Fig. 15. To draw the stress-diagram (Fig. 15A), first construct the force-polygon by laying off to scale in rotation the external forces, commencing with the left reaction 34 200 lb. Next, commencing at joint 0, the supporting force *sa* is known, the stress in the rafter is *ap*, and the stress in the tie *ps*, closing the polygon. At joint 1, *pa* and *ab* are known and *bn* and *np* are drawn, closing the polygon. At joint 2, *gs*, *sp* and *pn* are known and *nm* and *mg* are drawn. At joint 3, *mn*, *nb* and *bc* are known and *cl* and *lm* are drawn. The stresses at the remaining joints are found in the same way as those at 3 and 4. The stresses in pounds in the various members of the truss are noted in figures in the stress-diagram (Fig. 15A).

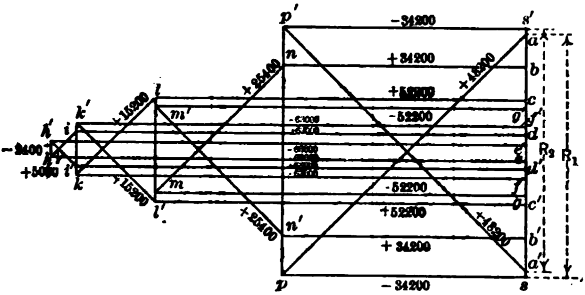


Fig. 15A. Howe Truss. Stress-diagram

Howe Truss Loaded at Alternate Joints. Example 6. (Fig. 16.) This example of a HOWE TRUSS is selected to show how to proceed when there is no load at one or more of the joints. Fig. 16 represents the center lines of a truss 50 ft in span and only 5 ft in height. In order to give the braces an inclination approximating 45°, the truss is divided into ten panels; but purlins are placed over every other joint, as in Fig. 16, Chapter XXVI. The loads from these purlins are about 5 000 lb. The stresses at joint 1 are found in the same manner as in the previous example, always starting with the supporting force. At joint 2 the stress-line *da* is already drawn; and as there is no load at this joint,

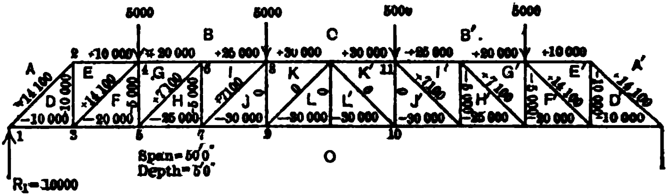


Fig. 16. Howe Truss. Truss-diagram

a line is drawn from *a* parallel to *AE* (*A* covers the entire space from joint 1 to joint 4), and a line from *d* parallel to *ED*, the two lines intersecting at *e*.

The force-lines and stress-lines are as follows:

At joint 3: *od*, *de*, *ef* and *fo*;
At joint 4: *fe*, *ea*, *ab*, *bg* and *gf*;
At joint 5: *of*, *fg*, *gh* and *ho*;
At joint 6: *hg*, *gb*, *bi* and *ih*;
At joint 7: *oh*, *hi*, *ij* and *jo*;
At joint 8: *ji*, *ib*, *bc* and *ck*;

the latter line extending to the point of beginning, *j*, showing that there is no stress in *kj*. At joint 9 the only stresses are *oj* and *lo*, for as there is no stress

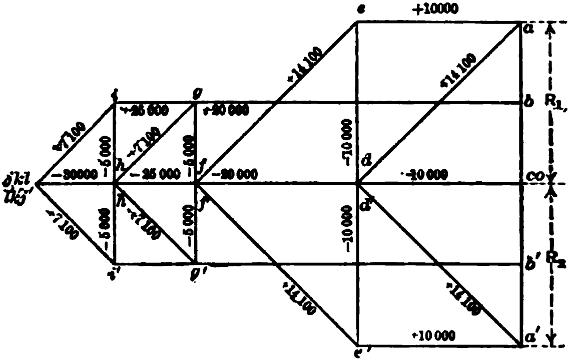


Fig. 16A. Howe Truss. Stress-diagram

in *JK*, for equilibrium there can be none in *KL*. There is, also, no stress in the middle rod. Although these members have no stress, it is advisable to insert them in the truss in order to stiffen the top and bottom chords. They may be made very light, say ½ in in diameter for the rods and 3 by 6 in in cross-section for the braces.

Howe Truss with Slanting Top Chord. Example 7. In order to give a slope to the roof it is often desirable to incline the top chord of a Howe truss as in Fig. 17, Chapter XXVI. Fig. 17 shows the truss-diagram for such a truss, and Fig. 17A the stress-diagram. The latter is drawn in the same way as the stress-diagram in Example 5, but because the top chord is not level, the stress-diagram is not symmetrical. When the stress-diagram is not symmetrical it is necessary to complete the entire diagram, so as to show the stress in every member of the truss. The stress-lines for joint 9 are *om*, *mn*, *nr* and *ro*. This leaves only the line *rf* to complete the diagram; and if the diagram has been correctly drawn, a line joining *r* and *f* will be exactly parallel to *RF*. There is no stress in the rod *IJ*.

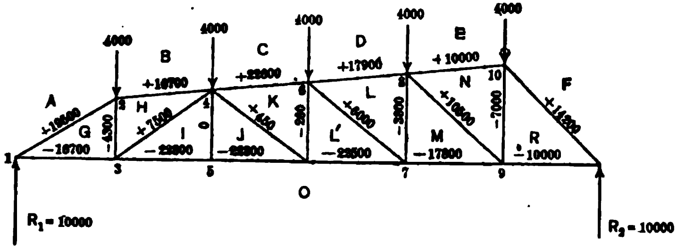


Fig. 17. Howe Truss with Slanting Top Chord. Truss-diagram

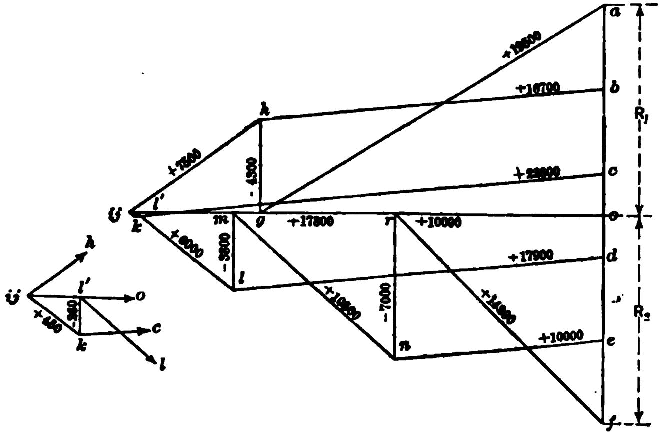


Fig. 17A. Howe Truss with Slanting Top Chord. Stress-diagram

Truss with Inclined Ties. Example 8. (Fig. 18.) This truss has the same dimensions as the truss shown in Fig. 14, but the diagonals incline in the opposite direction and are in tension, while the verticals, except the middle one, *LL′*, are in compression. This form of truss is sometimes used in wooden construction to avoid the long middle braces shown in Fig. 14. Long ties are, as a rule, more economical than long struts. The construction of the stress-diagram requires no additional explanation after that given for the stress-diagram in Fig. 14A. The student should compare the magnitude of the stresses scaled and marked in Fig. 18A with those in Fig. 14A, and note the effect of the change in the direction of the braces. The truss represented by Fig. 14 requires a very much larger rod in the middle than is required for *KL* and *K'L'* in the truss of Fig. 18. The middle rod for the truss shown in Fig. 18 may be made very light.

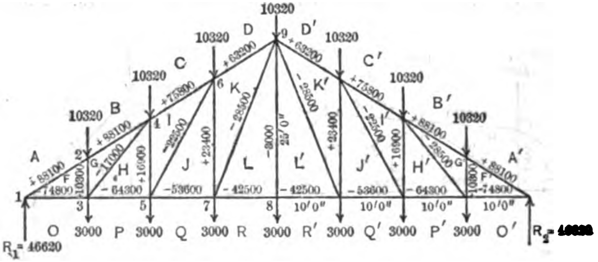


Fig. 18. Truss with Inclined Ties. Truss-diagram

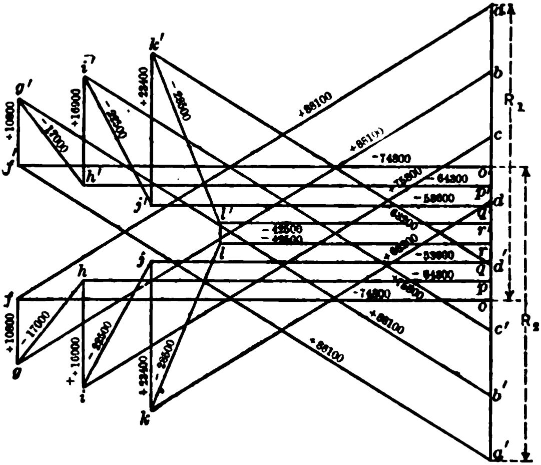


Fig. 18A. Truss with Inclined Ties. Stress-diagram

This truss, however, requires, for good construction, special cast-iron washers for the rods.

Simple Fan Truss. Example 9. (Fig. 19.) This figure shows the skeleton of a simple FAN TRUSS with rafters inclined 30° and divided into three equal panels, making the loads *AB*, *BC*, *CC'*, etc., equal. The stress-diagram is drawn according to the principle already explained and requires no special treatment. As the loads are equal, the stresses in this truss may be readily figured by means of Table X, and the student should compare the stresses thus determined with those obtained by scaling the stress-diagram.

Cambered Fink Truss. Example 10. (Fig. 20.) The inclination of the rafters is 30° and the distance between the trusses 20 ft. The loads are calculated for a slate roof on boards or on angle-iron purlins. Commence the stress-diagram by drawing a vertical line equal to the supporting force R_1, or 56 350 lb, and lettering the lower end of the line *o* and the upper end *a*, as these

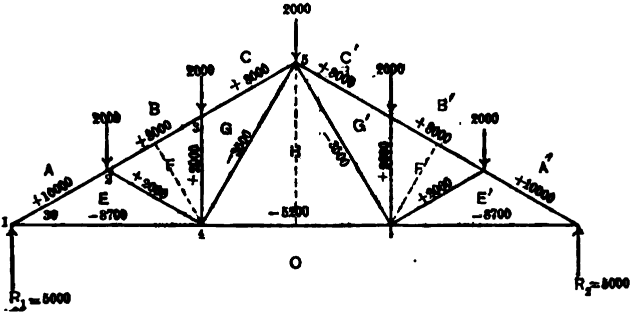


Fig. 19. Fan Truss. Truss-diagram.

are the letters on each side of the supporting force at joint 0. *an* and *no* are drawn parallel to *AN* and *NO*. For joint 1, *na* is drawn upward; *ab* is laid off equal to 16 100 lb and *bm* and *mn* are drawn parallel to *BM* and *MN*. At joint 2 *on* and *nm* are known, and *ml* is drawn parallel to *ML*, the sides of the stress-polygon being *on*, *nm*, *ml* and *lo*. At joint 3 a new condition is met, which is not found in any of the preceding examples and which is peculiar to this form of truss, viz., three apparently unknown forces. From a study of the truss-diagram, however, it is seen that *LM* and *IK* act as parts of BELLY-RODS, taking up the thrust from the lower ends of the struts at joints 2 and 5; and as the loads at joints 1 and 6 are equal and *NM* and *IH* are the same length, the stress in *IK* is the same as the stress in *LM*, which is already known. This reduces the number of unknown forces at joint 3 to two. The first force known at this joint is *lm*, the next *mb* and the next *bc*, equal to 16 100 lb. From *c* a line is drawn parallel to *CI* and from *l*, the initial point, a line parallel to *KL*. Between these two lines there must be a line, *ih*, parallel to *IK* and equal in length to *ml*; and this line is determined by means of the dividers and a parallel ruler and straight-edge. If correctly drawn, the joint *i* will fall in line with *nm*. The sides of the stress-polygon for joint 3 are, then, *lm*, *mb*, *bc*, *ci*, *ik* and *kl*.

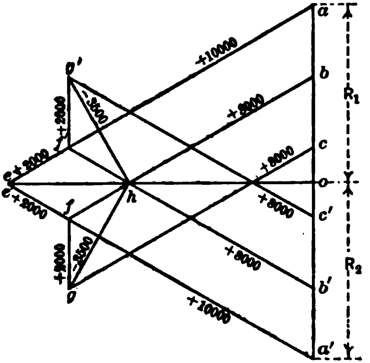


Fig. 19A. Fan Truss. Stress-diagram

At joint 4 the stress-lines are *ol*, *lk*, *kg* and *go*.
At joint 5 the stress-lines are *gk*, *ki*, *ih* and *hg*.
At joint 6 the stress-lines are *hi*, *ic*, *cd* and *dh*.
If the stress-diagram is accurately drawn, a line from *d* parallel to the rafte will pass through the point *h*. The vertical tie *GG'* (Fig. 20) has no stres and its only purpose is to prevent the horizontal tie from sagging.

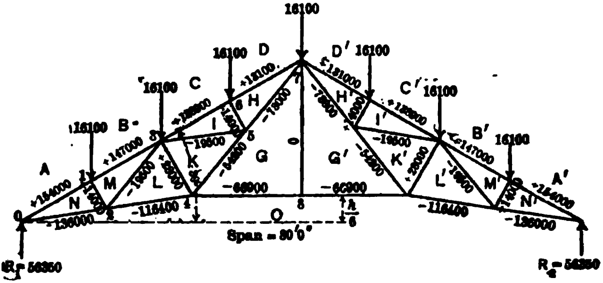


Fig. 20. Cambered Fink Truss. Truss-diagram

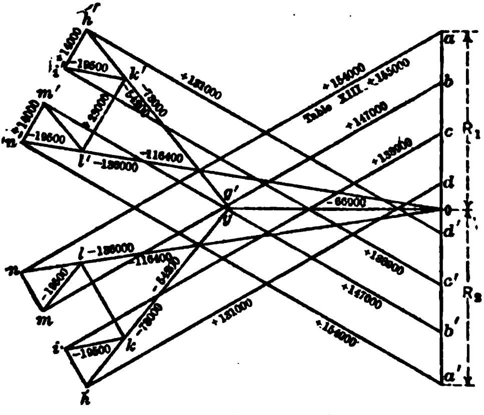


Fig. 20A. Cambered Fink Truss. Stress-diagram

Cambered Fink Truss. **Example** 11. (Fig. 21.) This is the truss shown in Fig. 20, with two additional loads. Steel trusses of this shape are often required to support loads from below. In Fig. 21 there are two loads of 4 tons each, supported at joints 5 and 9, in addition to the roof-loads. The stress-diagram is drawn in exactly the same way as in Fig. 20A, except that at joint 5 the first-known force *ro*, parallel to *RO*, 4 tons, is laid off, locating *r*. At this joint, then, *ro*, *ol* and *lk* are known and *kg* and *gr* are drawn to close the polygon. It should be noticed that the stresses in *NM*, *IH*, *ML*, *KI* and *LK* are the same as the stresses in the corresponding members of Fig. 20, as these are not affected by the ceiling-load. All of the other stresses, however, are increased because of the increase in the supporting forces, the greatest increase being in *KG* and *HG*.

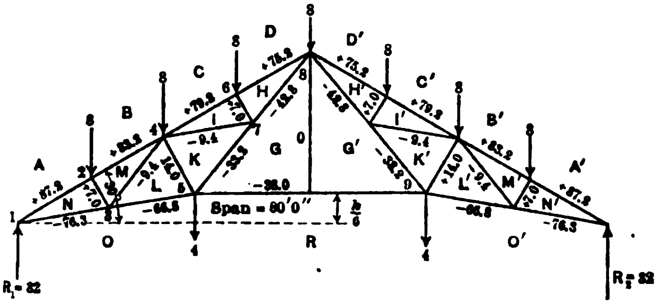


Fig. 21. Cambered Fink Truss. Truss-diagram

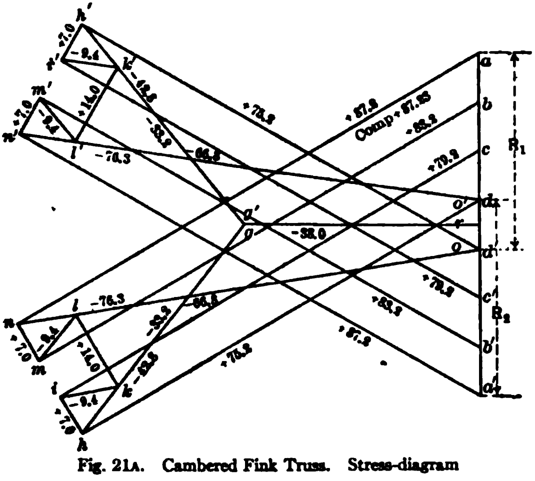


Fig. 21A. Cambered Fink Truss. Stress-diagram

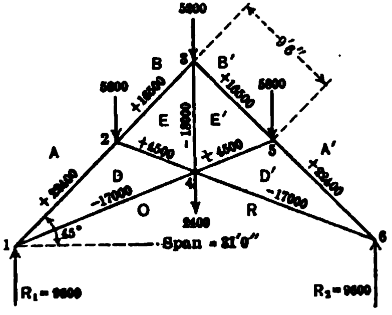


Fig. 22. Scissors Truss. Truss-diagram

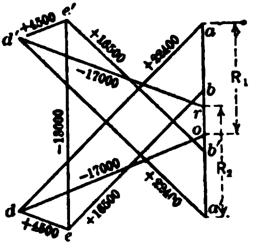


Fig. 22A. Scissors Truss. Stress-diagram

Simple Scissors Truss. Example 12. (Fig. 22.) This is the truss-diagram of the truss shown in Fig. 22, Chapter XXVI, which is the simplest form of the SCISSORS TRUSS. The truss-diagram is drawn by commencing with the line *oa* equal to the supporting force, 9 600 lb, and then in order the forces *ab*, *bb'*, *b'a'*, *a'r* and *ro*, forming the polygon of the external forces. At joint 1, *oa* is known and *ad* and *do* are drawn, closing the polygon. At joint 2, *da* and *ab* are known and *be* and *ed* are drawn, closing the polygon. At joint 3, *eb* and *bb'* are known and *b'e'* and *e'e* are drawn. This determines the stresses in one-half the truss. Those for the other half are, of course, of the same magnitude and character, but the stress-diagram should be continued for the second half of the truss as a check.

Scissors Truss. Example 13. Fig. 23 is the truss-diagram of the truss shown in Fig. 23, Chapter XXVI, with the loads figured about as they would be for a slate roof and wooden ceiling and for a spacing of 12 ft on centers. T stress-diagram is begun by drawing the line *oa* equal to the supporting fo at joint 1 (14 600 lb). The sides of the stress-polygons for the different joi are as follows:

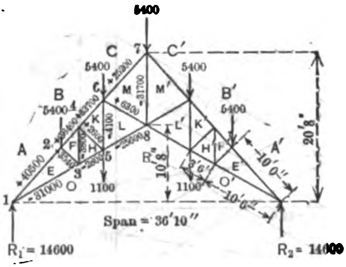


Fig. 23. Scissors Truss. Truss-diagram

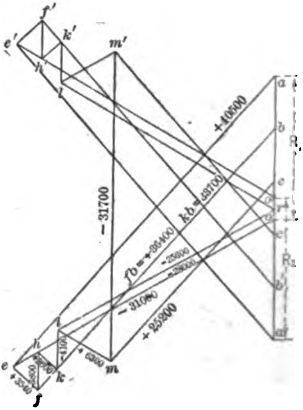


Fig. 23A. Scissors Truss. Stress-diagram

At joint 1: *oa*, *ae* and *eo*;
At joint 2: *ea*, *ab*, *bf* and *fe*;
At joint 3: *oe*, *ef*, *fh* and *ho*;
At joint 4: *hf*, *fb*, *bk* and *kh*;
At joint 5: *ro* (1 100 lb), *oh*, *hk*, *kl* and *lr*;
At joint 6: *lk*, *kb*, *bc* (5 400 lb), *cm* and *ml*;
At joint 7: *mc*, *cc'* (5 400 lb), *c'm'* and *m'm*.

The student should notice how much the stresses in the principal memb this truss exceed the supporting forces or loads, and particularly the great st in the middle rod. For these reasons this is not an economical type of tru spans exceeding 36 ft.

Scissors Truss. **Example 14.** Fig. 24 is the truss-diagram of the truss shown in Fig. 4, page 1056, and for which the roof and ceiling-loads are computed in Example 3, page 1055. The truss shown in Fig. 4 is built of planks spiked and bolted together, but the stresses are found in precisely the same way if the truss is made of heavy timbers and supports a greater roof-area. It should be remembered that only the shape of the truss and the loads, including their point of application, affect the stress-diagram. The stresses at joints 1 and 2 are readily found, commencing with *oa*, equal to R_1. At each of joints 3 and 4, however, there are three unknown forces. We cannot obtain the stresses at joint 4 until those acting at joint 3 have been determined. The known forces at 3 are the load *RO*, equal to 430 lb, and the stresses acting in *OE* and *EF*; and the unknown forces, those acting in *FH*, *HK* and *KR*. *HK* and *KR* are in tension and serve to hold joint 3 from falling down and outwards. Either one, but not both, may be omitted, and the greater the stress is in one the less it is in the other. The only way to complete the stress-polygon for joint 3 is to fix the amount of one of the unknown stresses arbitrarily. The most satisfactory analysis seems to be to make the stress in *HK* equal to that in *KR*. This is done as follows: The first known force at joint 3 is the load represented by *ro*, the point *r* being obtained by measuring upwards from *o*, 430 lb; next, the lines *oe* and *ef* are known. From *f* a line is drawn parallel to *FH* and from *r*, a line parallel to *KR*. These two lines must be connected by a third line parallel to *HK*. This line should be drawn so that its length is equal to *kr*, which can be done by means of dividers. Lettering the ends of this line *h* and *k* the sides of the completed stress-polygon for joint 3 are *ro*, *oe*, *ef*, *fh*, *hk* and *kr*. Knowing the stress in *HF*, there are but two unknown forces at joint 4, and these are readily found. The sides of the stress-polygon for joint 5 are *lc*, *cc'*, *c'l'* and *l'l*. Comparing this stress-diagram with that of Fig. 23A, it is seen that the stress in the middle rod is much less in proportion to the loads for the truss shown in Fig. 24 than for the one shown in Fig. 23, this reduction being due to the horizontal tie *RK*. For light trusses built of planks, spiked or bolted together, the form of truss shown in Fig. 24 is preferable to that shown in Fig. 23.

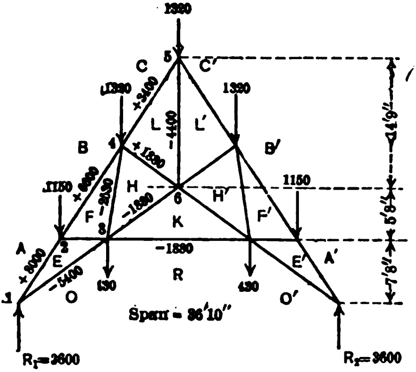


Fig. 24. Scissors Truss. Truss-diagram. (See, also, Fig. 4 and Chapter XXVIII, Fig. 2)

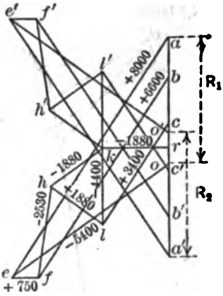


Fig. 24A. Scissors Truss. Stress-diagram

Scissors Truss. **Example 15.** Fig. 25 is the truss-diagram of the SCISSORS TRUSS shown in Fig. 27 of Chapter XXVI. The line *EF* in Fig. 25 does not

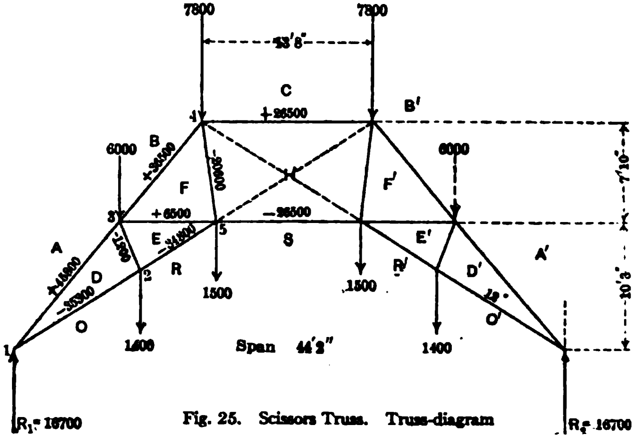


Fig. 25. Scissors Truss. Truss-diagram

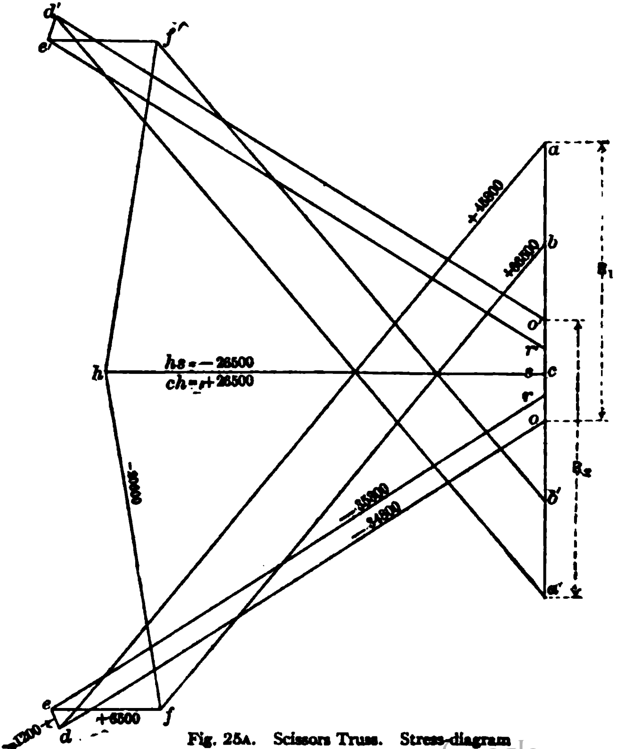


Fig. 25A. Scissors Truss. Stress-diagram

correspond with the center line of the strut in Fig. 27, because the inner end of this strut is dropped slightly on account of the detail of the joint; but in truss-diagrams all lines must go from joint to joint, otherwise the stress-diagram can not be drawn. There are no stresses in the middle diagonals under a symmetrical vertical load; hence they are shown by dotted lines in Fig. 25. As no complications arise in drawing the stress-diagram of this truss, a detailed description is unnecessary. The sides of the stress-polygons for the different joints are as follows:

For joint 1: *oa, ad, do*;
For joint 2: *ro, od, de, er*;
For joint 3: *ed, da, ab, bf, fe*;
For joint 4: *fb, bc, ch, hf*;
For joint 5: *sr, re, ef, fh, hs*.

ch and *hs* coincide, showing that the compression in *CH* is equal to the tension in *HS*. The plus and minus signs in Fig. 25, as in all the other diagrams, denote compression and tension respectively.

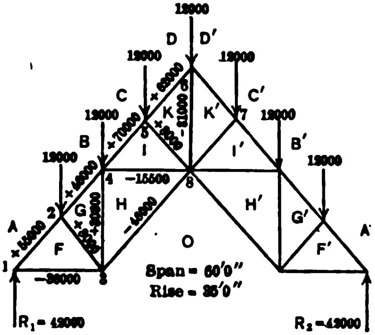


Fig. 26. Truss without Tie-beam. Truss-diagram

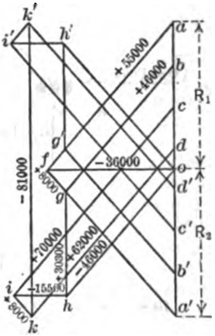


Fig. 26A. Truss without Tie-beam. Stress-diagram

Truss Without Tie-Beam. **Example 16.** Fig. 26 shows a truss which is neither a SCISSORS TRUSS nor a HAMMER-BEAM TRUSS, yet this form can be made to appear similar to the HAMMER-BEAM TRUSS by inserting a curved brace below joint 3, and replacing the pieces *OH* and *OH'* by curved members. There is no difficulty in drawing the stress-diagram shown in Fig. 26A.

The Horizontal Thrust of Scissors Trusses. In the examples just given it has been assumed that the reactions are vertical and consequently that there is no HORIZONTAL THRUST. This would be true if the materials composing the frames were absolutely rigid. This is not the case, however, and all trusses built along the geometrical lines of their shape change in shape after the full load is applied. In the SCISSORS TRUSS this changes the length of the span, making it longer and permitting the rafters to sag. If the trusses are constructed with a camber in the rafters and the span made a little short, the THRUST against the supports can be practically eliminated by fastening one end of the truss and providing for a movement at the other, so that when the full roof and ceiling-loads have been placed on the truss the span will have its correct length. In order to do this we must know HOW MUCH THE SPAN WILL CHANGE IN LENGTH under the full load. This can be determined in the manner shown in the following example and by referring to Fig. 26B. Let Diagram 1 represent a simple scissors truss loaded as shown with 1 000 pounds at each top-chord joint, and let the left end be assumed to rest upon rollers. Then both reactions will be vertical and the stresses in each member can be found from the usual stress-diagram shown in Diagram 2. Let S be the stress in any member as found from Diagram 2; u, the stress in any member produced by one pound acting horizontally at K and towards L as found from Diagram 3; A, the area of any member, in square inches; l, the length of any member, in inches; E, Young's modulus of elasticity of the material composing any member and D, the TOTAL CHANGE IN LENGTH OF SPAN when the truss is subjected to its full load. Then,

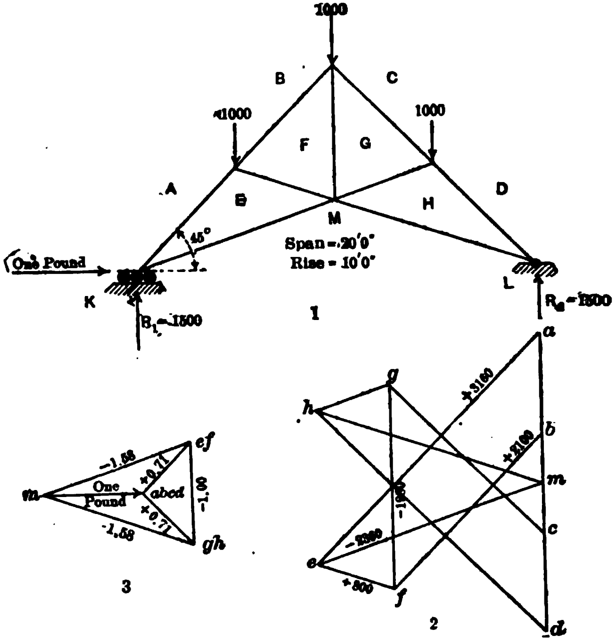


Fig. 26B. Simple Scissors Truss and Stress-diagrams

$$D = \sum \frac{Sul}{AE}\,^{*}$$

If H is the HORIZONTAL FORCE applied at K, which is necessary to make the value of $D = 0$

$$H = D + \sum \frac{u^2 l}{AE}$$

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* Theory and Practice of Modern Framed Structures, Johnson, Bryan and Turneaure (John Wiley & Sons); Roofs and Bridges, Merriman and Jacoby (John Wiley & Sons).

The detailed calculations for Fig. 26a are given in Table XVII, assuming that all members, excepting *FG*, are composed of 6 by 6-in white pine timbers with *E* at 1 000 000 lb per sq in, and that *FG* is an upset round steel rod having an area of 0.785 sq in with *E* equal to 30 000 000 * lb per sq in for steel.

Table XVII. Computations for *D* and *H* for a Particular Scissors Truss

(1) Member	(2) S, Diagram 2	(3) A	(4) $S+A$	(5) u, Diagram 3	(6) l	(7) $\frac{Sul}{AE}$	(8) $\frac{u^2l}{AE}$
AB.......	+3160	36	87.8	+0.71	84.8	0.00528	0.00000118
BF........	+2100	36	58.3	+0.71	84.8	0.00351	0.00000118
CG........	+2100	36	58.3	+0.71	84.8	0.00351	0.00000118
DH.......	+3160	36	87.8	+0.71	84.8	0.00528	0.00000118
EM.......	−2360	36	65.5	−1.58	126.5	0.01316	0.00000875
HM.......	−2360	36	65.5	−1.58	126.5	0.01316	0.00000875
EF........	+ 800	36	22.2	0	63.2	0.0	0.0
FG........	−1980	0.785	25.22	−1.00	80.0	0.00672	0.00000340
GH.......	+ 800	36	22.2	0	63.2	0.0	0.0
						0.05062	0.00002562

$D = 0.05062$ in and $H = 0.05062 \div 0.00002562 = 1975$, or, approximately, 2 000 lb. This shows that the span would lengthen about 1/20 in, if allowed free movement at one end; or, if fixed, there would be a HORIZONTAL FORCE of 2 000 lb tending to push the supports out. In column 4 it is seen that the stresses per square inch are only about one-tenth of those permissible. Assuming that the loads become 10 000 lb at each apex-joint, the HORIZONTAL DEFLECTION becomes about 1/5 in, and the HORIZONTAL THRUST becomes 20 000 lb. This shows conclusively that a large excess of material must be employed in the SCISSORS TRUSS, particularly in the members EM and HM which contribute over one-half the value of *D* as shown in column 7, if the HORIZONTAL DEFLECTION is to be made so small that its effect may be neglected. As stated before, if the truss is permitted to deflect horizontally until fully loaded, the walls or supports will have sensibly no HORIZONTAL THRUST to resist.

The Hammer-Beam Truss. As usually constructed the HAMMER-BEAM TRUSS is expected to exert more or less HORIZONTAL PRESSURE at the supports; and this is provided for by heavy walls and buttresses. The diagram of such a truss is shown in Fig. 27, in which the CURVED BRACES usually built in the middle part of the truss are not shown, as they are considered to be purely ornamental and for vertical loading have no stresses. The brace *OM* is drawn as though it were straight; but a curved brace may be used instead, without altering the diagram. The stress in the curved piece is that found from the stress-diagram, increased by the bending stress due to its curvature. To determine stresses in the members of this truss it is necessary to first find the HORIZONTAL THRUST of the truss against the wall. To do this all the truss-members from joint 0 to joint 4 are considered to form a FRAMED BRACE, or ASSEMBLAGE OF PIECES supporting the upper portion of the truss at joint 4, or a SINGLE BRACE, shown by the broken line 04, Fig. 27, is assumed to have the same effect on the wall as all the pieces put together in the FRAMED STRUT; that is, the truss is considered to have the same HORIZONTAL THRUST as the truss shown in Fig. 27A. The load at joint 4 is evidently: 12 000 lb, plus the load at joint 5, plus half the load at joint 6, plus half the load at joint 2; making in all, 36 000 lb. To draw the HORIZONTAL THRUST and the stresses the procedure is as follows: *ab* (Fig. 27B) is laid off equal to the load at joint 2, *bc* equal to the load at joint 4, *cd* equal to the load at joint 5, and *dd'* equal to the load at joint 6. Then the load at joint 4 (Fig. 27A) = ½ *ab* + *bc* + *cd* + ½ *dd'*; and if a horizontal line is drawn from *x* to the left, and from the center of *ab* a line parallel to the line 4–0 (Fig. 27A) these two lines will intersect at *m*, and *mx* is the MAGNITUDE OF THE HORIZONTAL THRUST exerted on the wall at the joint 0. Having obtained this thrust, it is easy to determine the stresses in the pieces. At joint 0 the four forces in equilibrium are the resistance to the thrust, *mx*, the vertical supporting force *mn* and the stresses *ao* and *om*, closing the polygon. At joint 1, *oa*, *af* and *fo* are the stresses in *OA*, *AF* and *FO*. At joint 3 the stresses are *mo*, *of*, *fg* and *gm*; at joint 2 they are *fa*, *ab*, *bg* and *gf*; at joint 4 the stresses are *mg*, *gb*, *bc* and *ci*,

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* If 29 000 000 lb per sq in is used for the value of *E* for steel the values of *D* and *H* will be slightly changed. See Table I, page 664.

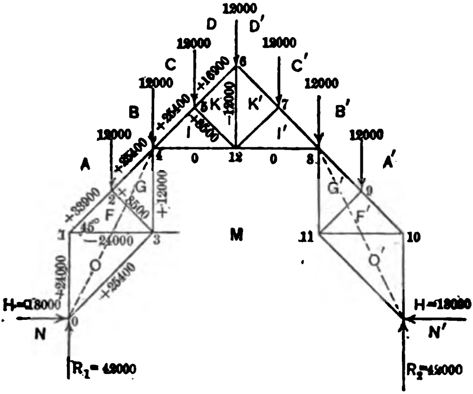

Fig. 27. Hammer-beam Truss. Truss-diagram

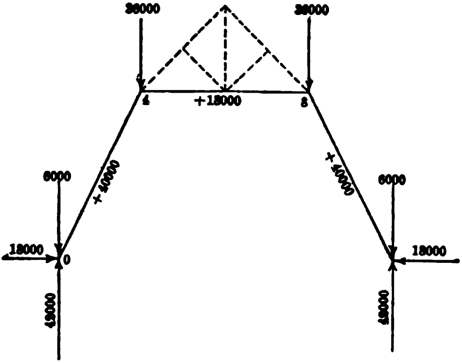

Fig. 27A. Hammer-beam Truss. Truss-diagram

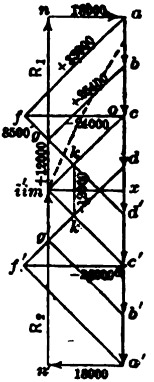

Fig. 27B. Hammer-beam Truss. Stress-diagram

closing the polygon. It will be noticed that the POLYGON CLOSES without al ing any line to be drawn parallel to *IM*; hence there is no stress in *IM*, v vertical loading. When there are wind-loads there is some compression in and this member is a necessary part of the truss. At joint 5 there are the stre *ic*, *cd*, *dk* and *ki*, and at joint 6. *kd*, *dd'*, *d'k'* and *k'k*, which complete the stresses one-half the truss, which are all that are needed. Comparing, now, the diag

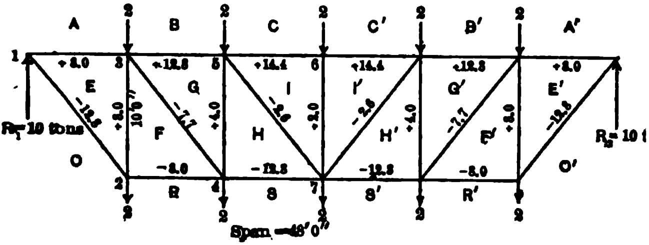

Fig. 28. Suspended Pratt Truss. Truss-diagram

of stresses, Fig. 27B, with Fig. 26A, it is seen that, in general, the MAGNITU OF THE STRESSES in the truss, Fig. 27, are much less than those of the stre in the truss, Fig. 26; while, on the other hand, the latter truss may be so c structed as not to exert the OUTWARD THRUST on the walls, exerted by the t shown in Fig. 27. If curved members are introduced between joints 3 12 and 11 and 12, they should be lightly secured at the ends or the stresses de mined in the manner outlined for the SCISSORS TRUSS.

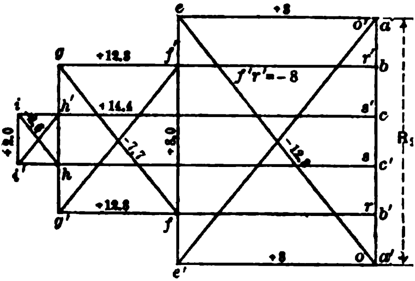

Fig. 28A. Suspended Pratt Truss. Stress-diagram

Suspended Pratt Truss. Example 17. Let Fig. 28 be the truss-diagram of a SUSPENDED PRATT TRUSS, uniformly loaded at top and bottom, with 2 tons at each joint. The stress-diagram is drawn in exactly the same way as for a HOWE TRUSS, except that the diagonals run in the opposite direction. The stresses should be drawn for the joints in the order in which tl are numbered. In this truss the verticals are in compression and the diagon in tension.

Warren Truss. Example 18. Fig. 29 is the truss-diagram of a light i WARREN TRUSS of 32-ft span, intended to support a tar-and-gravel roof, slope being at right-angles to the line of the trusses. The stress-diagram drawn as in the previous examples, taking the joints in the order in which tl are numbered.

Double Warren Truss, or Lattice Truss. Example 19. The truss- gram shown by Fig. 30 is best analyzed by considering it as built up of 1

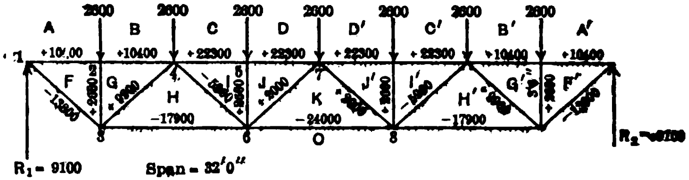

Fig. 29. Warren Truss. Truss-diagram

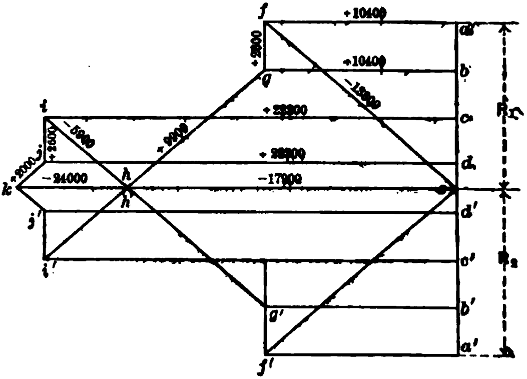

Fig. 29A. Warren Truss. Stress-diagram

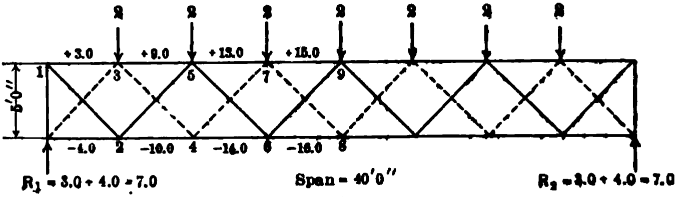

Fig. 30. Double Warren Truss. Truss-diagram

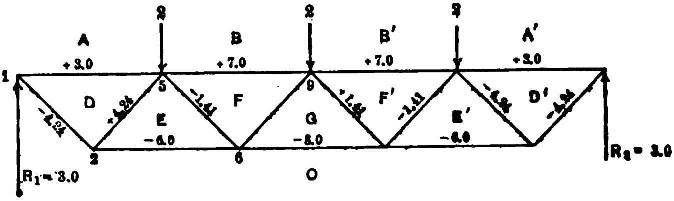

Fig. 31. Warren Truss. Truss-diagram

Warren trusses, laid one over the other, the full lines indicating a truss such as is shown in Fig. 31, and the dotted lines a truss as shown in Fig. 32. Three of the seven loads would come on the first truss and four on the second. The stresses are found for each truss separately and then combined for the top and bottom chords. Thus the stress in the top chord from 1 to 3, Fig. 30, would be that in *AD*, Fig. 31, or 3 tons; from 3 to 5 it would be equal to the stress in *AD*, Fig. 31, plus that in *BE*, Fig. 32, or 9 tons; from 5 to 7 it would be equal to the stress in *BF*, Fig. 31, plus the stress in *BE*, Fig. 32, or 13 tons, and so on, the stress in the bottom chord being found in the same way. The diagonal struts and ties act independently of each other, and the stresses are those indicated on the stress-diagrams. The plus signs denote compression and the minus signs tension. In Fig. 32 the sides of the stress-polygon for joint 7 are *fe*, *eb*, *bc*, and *ge*, which closes without any room for a line parallel to *GF*, showing that there is no stress in the two inner diagonals except that due to the weight of the bottom chord. This truss is usually constructed of steel angles. When wood is employed, three or four Warren trusses are combined forming the lattice truss shown in Fig. 19, page 1008. It is entirely unnecessary to use graphical methods in determining the stresses, as the chords and web-members are respectively uniform in size. For the chords the maximum bending moment divided by the distance, center to center, of the chords gives the designing-stress for the chords. The maximum vertical shear, usually the reaction, divided by the number of simple Warren trusses combined gives the vertical component for which the web-planks are designed. This, of course, leads to a waste of material as far as resisting stresses is concerned, but for stiffness and economy in labor, the extra material is well used. This truss can be extended indefinitely by giving it sufficient height for the span. (See, also, pages 1008 and 1009.)

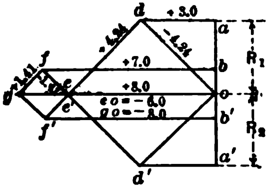

Fig. 31a. Warren Truss. Stress-diagram

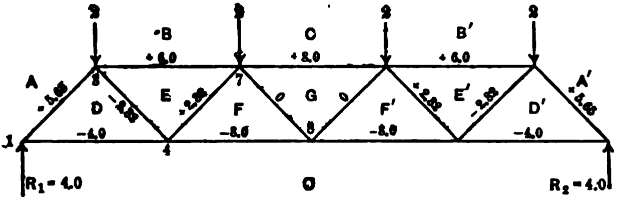

Fig. 32. Warren Truss. Truss-diagram

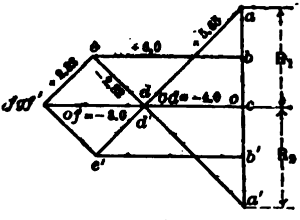

Fig. 32a. Warren Truss. Stress-diagram

Quadrangular Truss. Example 20. Fig. 33 is the truss-diagram of a truss similar to that shown in Fig. 59, Chapter XXVI, the panel-loads being taken at 2 tons each, and the analysis being the same for any other loads. The stress-

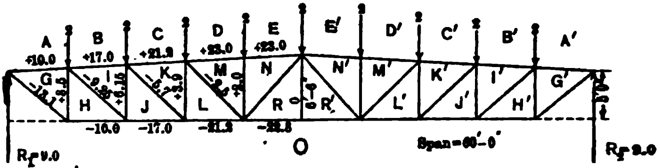

Fig. 33. Quadrangular Truss. Truss-diagram

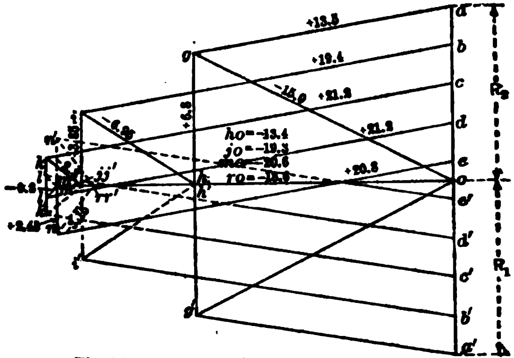

Fig. 33A. Quadrangular Truss. Stress-diagram

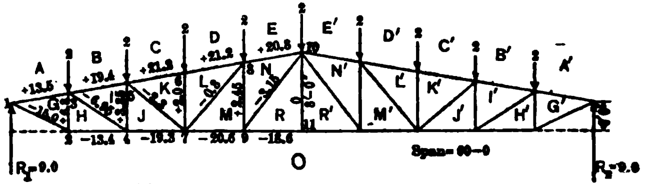

Fig. 34. Quadrangular Truss. Truss-diagram

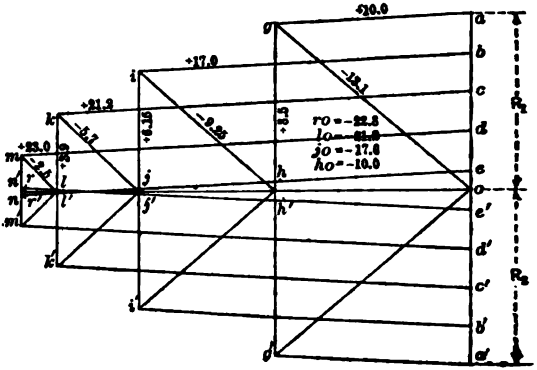

Fig. 34A. Quadrangular Truss. Stress-diagram

diagram is drawn exactly as in the previous examples, commencing with the supporting force *oa* and considering the joints in the order in which they are numbered. In this truss the diagonal web-members are all in tension and the verticals in compression. It will be noticed that the inclination of the diagonals in the two panels nearest the middle of the truss is opposite to that of the diagonals in the outer panels. This is due to the inclination of the top chord, which causes compressive stresses in the inner diagonals when they incline the other way. The stress in *LM*, however, is so small that a single steel angle resists either a compressive or tensile stress. The truss shown in Fig. 34 is very similar to that shown in Fig. 33, the principal difference being that the slope of the top chord is less in the former than in the latter. In Fig. 34, the diagonals in the two middle panels only incline from the top of the middle vertical, and the stress in these diagonals is very small. With a still less inclination to the top chord, the stress in *NR* becomes zero; and with a horizontal top chord the character of the stress in *NR* is reversed. To keep it in tension, its direction should be changed, as in the Pratt truss, Fig. 28. Comparing the stresses in these two trusses, it is seen that while the stresses in the end-panels are less in Fig. 34A than in Fig. 33A, the stresses in the chords at the middle are considerably greater. As a rule, the less the height of a truss in proportion to the span, the greater the stresses in the chords, especially at the middle of the truss.

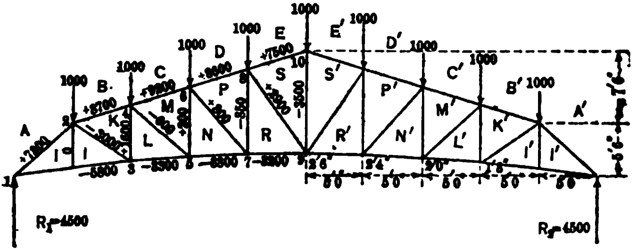

Fig. 35. Quadrangular Truss. Truss-diagram

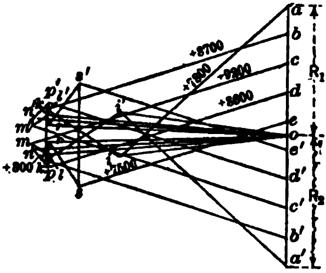

Fig. 35A. Quadrangular Truss. Stress-diagram

Quadrangular Truss. Example 21. Fig. 35 is a truss-diagram similar to the truss shown in Fig. 66, Chapter XXVI. The truss-diagram is drawn as in the previous examples, except that in this case, as the bottom chord has different inclinations in the different panels, the stress-lines do not lie over each other, but radiate from *o*, the lines in the stress-diagram being parallel to the corresponding lines in the truss-diagram. In this truss the character of the stresses in the diagonal web-members is reversed in the two panels nearest the middle. Thus the sides of the stress-polygon for joint 4 are *lk*, *kb*, *bc*, *cm* and *ml*, the stress *ml* acting from the joint and hence denoting tension. At joint 8 the sides of the stress-polygon are *rp*, *pd*, *de*, *es* and *sr*, the latter line acting towards the joint, and hence denoting compression. Under irregular loading, the character of the stress in *SR* would probably be reversed, so that the piece would be in tension instead of in compression. The stresses in members of trusses like Figs. 33, 34 and 35 should, therefore, always be computed for snow on one-half of the truss only and also for wind-pressure.

Quadrangular Truss. Example 22. In Fig. 36 is shown the diagram of the truss illustrated in Fig. 65, Chapter XXVI. This truss is similar to that shown in Fig. 34, except for the secondary bracing in the panels and for the curved bottom chord. The stress-diagram presents no difficulties. In drawing the lines from *o* parallel to the members of the bottom chord the latter should be considered as made up of straight lines connecting the joints. Thus *om* is drawn parallel to an imaginary straight line connecting joints 8 and 4. As there is no load over the center of the two panels next to the middle of the truss, there are no stresses in the truss-members between *X* and *I* and *I* and *II*. When the bottom chord is straight, as in Fig. 34, there is no stress in *YY'*; but when the chord is curved, a tensional stress develops, in *YY'*, the magnitude of this stress being indicated by *yy'* (Fig. 36A). When the diagram is completed for the entire truss, it is symmetrical about a horizontal line drawn through *o*.

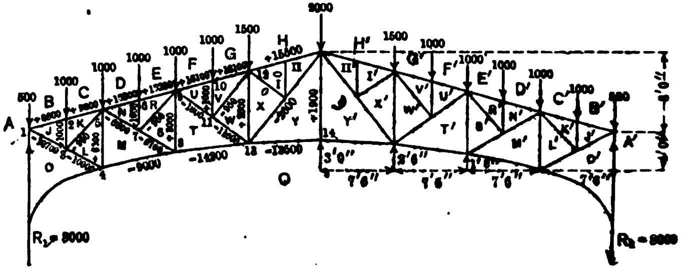

Fig. 36. Quadrangular Truss. Truss-diagram

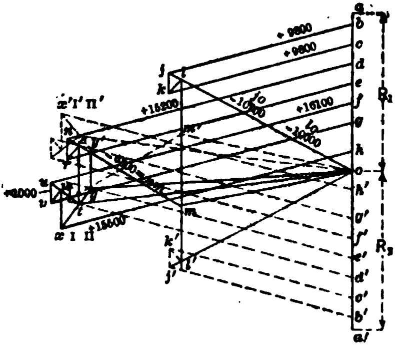

Fig. 36A. Quadrangular Truss. Stress-diagram

Bowstring Truss. Example 23. The span of this truss is 90 ft; the distance between trusses from centers, 20 ft; and the rise of the arched rafter or upper chord, 20 ft. The form of truss represented in Fig. 37 is one of the most economical for very great spans. In trusses similar to the one explained in this example, the top chord is curved and is the only piece that is in compression. All the other members are in tension. Under a steady load only, such as the weight of the roof itself, the diagonals drawn with solid lines and placed as shown in Fig. 37 are all that are needed; but when there is a severe wind-pressure on one side of the roof only, it is necessary to have the additional set of diagonals shown by the dotted lines. These COUNTERBRACES, as they are called, forming the additional set, are not stressed when there is a vertical load only and they are omitted in drawing the stress-diagram. To draw the stress-diagram, the loads are laid off on a vertical line, as in all the previous examples, the point *o* being half-way between *e* and *e′* (Fig. 37A). *oa* is the supporting force at joint 1. In drawing the stresses at the different joints, those at joint 1 are first drawn and then those at joints 2, 3, 4, 5, etc., in the order in which they are numbered (Fig. 37). In the stress diagram, *oa*, equal to the supporting force at joint 1, is known and from *a* a line is drawn parallel to *AG*, and from *o* a line parallel to *GO*. These two lines intersect at *g*. The lines representing the stresses in the curved members of the truss are drawn parallel to straight lines connecting the two ends of each curved piece. Thus *ag* is drawn parallel to 1–3 and *og* parallel to 1–2. At joint 2, *og* is known, *gh* is drawn parallel to *GH* and *ho* parallel to *HO*. At joint 3, *hg* and *ga* have been drawn, the load *ab* is known and *bi* and *ih* are drawn. At joint 4, *oh* and *hi* have been drawn, and *ik* and *ko* are next drawn to close the polygon. The stress-lines for joints 6 and 8 are drawn in a similar way, and those for 5, 7 and 9 similarly to those at joint 3. After drawing the stress-lines for joint 9, joint 10 is next considered; and after the stress-lines for that joint are determined the stresses in all the members of the truss are known. The stresses in this particular example are given in pounds on the respective lines in the stress-diagram. It will be

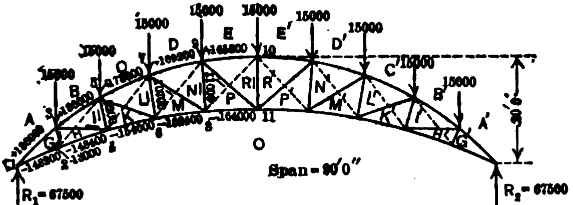

Fig. 37. Bowstring Truss. Truss-diagram

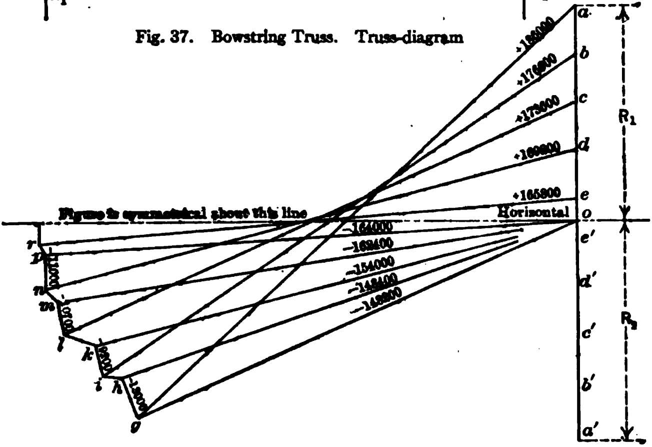

Fig. 37A. Bowstring Truss. Stress-diagram

noticed that the stresses are very great in the top and bottom chords, but very small in the bracing. The latter stresses are, in fact, so small that it is just as well to make all the diagonal braces the same size and of dimensions sufficient to resist the stress in *IH*, which has the greatest stress; or *IH* and *KL* may be made the same size and *MN* and *PR* a smaller size. The verticals or radiating pieces may all have a sectional area sufficiently large to safely resist the stress in *NP*. The great advantage of this truss lies in the fact that all its parts are in tension excepting the upper chord, which, of course, is in compression. The manner in which stresses act may be described in general by saying that the upper chord carries all the load, like an ARCH, and is prevented from spreading out at the ends by the lower tie; and that the object of the bracing and the vertical pieces is only to keep the bottom chord in its curved position.

Trusses Unsymmetrically Loaded. Now that the principles have been explained according to which the stress-diagrams may be drawn for several

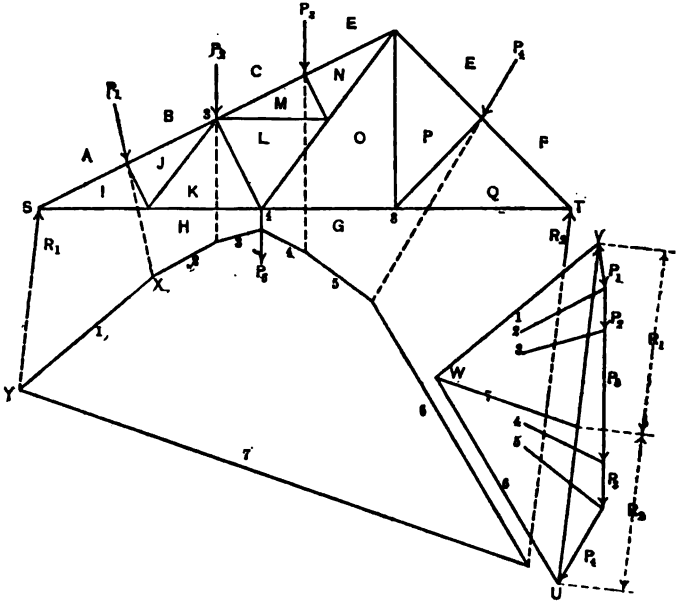

Fig. 38. Unsymmetrical Truss. Truss-diagram

Fig. 38A. Unsymmetrical Truss. Force-polygon

forms of trusses SYMMETRICALLY LOADED, it may be well to consider the subject in a more general manner. It will now be assumed that there are no restrictions as to SYMMETRY in the form of the truss and its loading; and, furthermore, it will not be assumed that all of the loads act as VERTICAL FORCES as in the problems just solved. Fig. 38 shows an UNSYMMETRICAL TRUSS UNSYMMETRICALLY LOADED and with loads or forces which are not parallel. In the previous problems the supporting forces or REACTIONS have been equal and each equal to one-half the load. In this problem such is not the case. The first step, then, is the DETER-

MINATION OF THE REACTIONS. If the truss remains in position it follows that all the forces acting upon the truss, such as the LOADS and REACTIONS, must be in EQUILIBRIUM; also since by definition a TRUSS must act as a BEAM, the truss may be replaced by a BEAM in considering the OUTSIDE FORCES. In Fig. 38, prolong the lines representing the direction of the forces, as shown, until they cut the line *ST* and assume *ST* to be a simple beam loaded with the forces *AB*, *BC*, etc. Beginning with *AB*, to some convenient scale lay off the forces in order as shown in Fig. 38A. The broken line *VU* represents the forces in magnitude and direction. For equilibrium, forces equivalent to *UV* are required. This is evident when we remember that the algebraic sum of the vertical and horizontal components of all the forces acting must respectively equal zero. Assuming that the supports at *S* and *T*, Fig. 38 are similar in every respect we may assume that the reactions R_1 and R_2 act in the same direction and that they are parallel to *UV*. This does not determine the magnitudes of R_1 and R_2. These may be found as follows: In Fig. 38A, assume any point *W* and draw the lines 1, 2, 3, etc. In Fig. 38, starting at any point on R_1 draw the line 1 parallel to the line 1 in Fig. 38A, and extend it until it cuts the direction or line of action of the force *AB* as shown; from this point draw a line parallel to 2 in Fig. 38A, and extend it until it cuts the direction of *BC* as shown, and so continue until line 6 is drawn cutting R_2. Draw line 7 in Fig. 38 and then in Fig. 38A draw a line parallel to this from *W* until it cuts *UV*. This point divides *UV* into two parts, the upper being the magnitude of R_1 and the lower the magnitude of R_2. No trouble will be experienced in applying the above method if the following rule is obeyed to the letter. In Fig. 38, the parallels to any three lines in Fig. 38A which form a triangle must meet in a point. For example, in Fig. 38A lines 1, 2, and P_1, or *ab* form a triangle, and in Fig. 38, their parallels meet in the point *X*. In this method it is not necessary that the forces *AB*, *BC*, etc., be used in order in Fig. 38A, but considering them in order, on a simple beam, makes the graphical construction in Fig. 38 less complex and avoids many chances of error. The method outlined above is general and can be used for forces acting in any direction. If the forces are parallel then the load-line *ab*, *bc*, *ce*, etc., in Fig. 38A, and the line *UV* will coincide; but the method of procedure remains unchanged. Now that all the FORCES acting upon the truss have been determined, for convenience, they will be shown in character, in Fig. 38B, and the STRESSES in the members composing the truss will be found. First lay off the forces in exact order to see that they form a CLOSED FIGURE, which must be the case if they are in equilibrium. The lines with arrow-heads in Fig. 38C show this construction,

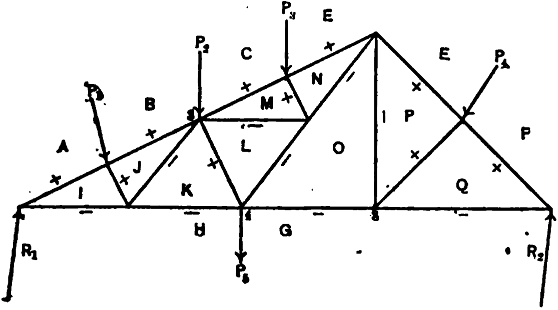

Fig. 38B. Unsymmetrical Truss. Truss-diagram

which checks the values of R_1 and R_2 obtained above. This figure remains the same regardless of the interior arrangement of the truss. The construction of the stress-diagram follows the methods given in the previous examples until point 3 is reached. Here there are three UNKNOWNS, *CM*, *ML* and *LK*, and it cannot be assumed that *ML* is the same as *JK*, as was done in examples 10 and 11. Let the truss be cut as shown in Fig. 38D, and the actual stresses in the cut pieces assumed to act against the cut ends, then the frame shown in Fig. 38D and the forces R_1, *AB*, *BC*, *CE*, *EN*, *NO*, *OG* and *GH* will be in equilibrium.

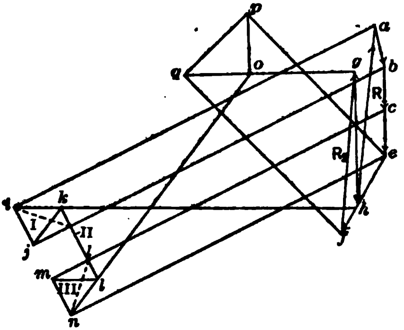

Fig. 38C. Unsymmetrical Truss. Stress-diagram

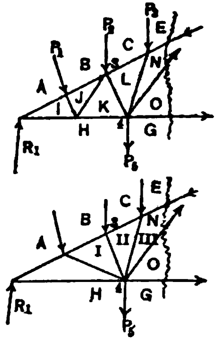

Fig. 38D. Unsymmetrical Truss. Truss-diagrams

The frame may be of any form as long as it is rigid so the bracing may be changed as shown in Fig. 38D and the stress-diagram proceeded with as in Fig. 38C, until the stresses in *EN*, *NO* and *OG* have been found. This will locate the point *O*. Returning to Fig. 38B, it is found that at joint 4 all the stresses but *KL* and *LO* are known; hence these can be found in the usual manner. Joint 3 is next considered and so on until the diagram is complete. The line *qf* in Fig. 38C will pass through *f* if the work is correct. Although the method for determining the CHARACTER OF THE STRESSES has been explained, it will be repeated here in a more general manner. Take, for example, joint 8, in Fig. 38B, which is in equilibrium under the action of the stresses *go*, *op*, *pq* and *qg*, as indicated in Fig. 38E. The stress-diagram for this joint is shown in Fig. 38F, separated from Fig. 38C. It is assumed that the stress in *GO* is tension. Then in Fig. 38F, starting at *g* we lay off *go*, *op*, *pq* and *qg*, placing the arrow-heads as shown. Transferring these arrow-heads to the ends of the cut pieces in Fig. 38E indicates at once the KIND OF STRESS. The following examples illustrate the above methods.

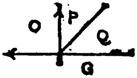

Fig. 38E. Unsymmetrical Truss. Forces at Joint 8

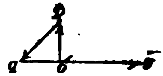

Fig. 38F. Unsymmetrical Truss. Stress-polygon

Unsymmetrically-loaded Truss. Example 24. Fig. 39 represents the diagram of a truss similar to that shown in Fig. 1, but of a greater span and having a gallery supported from it at one side only. The approximate roof and ceiling-loads are indicated by the figures near the arrows, and the weight coming on one truss from the gallery would be about 9 000 lb. The first step towards drawing the stress-diagram is to determine the reactions at the two ends of the truss, which will give the supporting forces. This is readily done in this example by the METHOD OF MOMENTS explained on pages 322 to 324. Moments are first taken about joint 1. As the loads at joints 2 and 3 have the same arm, they are added together before multiplying by the arm. The loads at joints 4 and 5 and at joints 6 and 7 are treated the same way. The moments about joint 1 will then be:

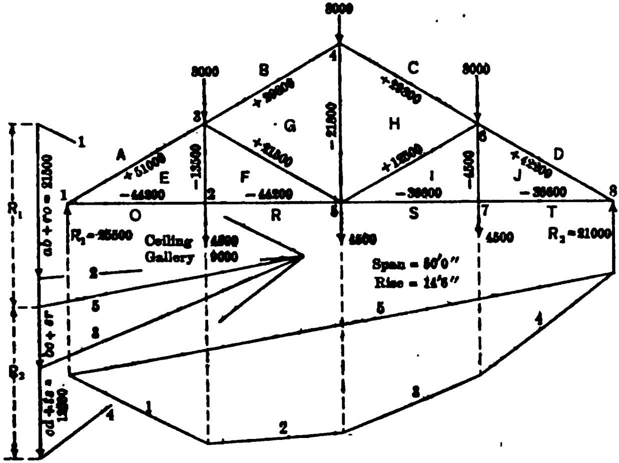

Fig. 39. King-rod Truss. Truss-diagram and Equilibrium-polygon

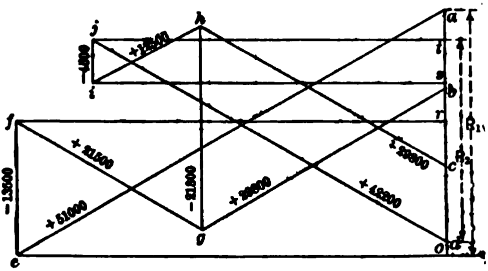

Fig. 39A. King-rod Truss. Stress-diagram

[(8 000 + 4 500 + 9 000) = 21 500] lb × 12½ ft = 268 750 ft-lb
[(8 000 + 4 500) = 12 500] lb × 25 ft = 312 500 ft-lb
[(8 000 + 4 500) = 12 500] lb × 37½ ft = 468 750 ft-lb

The sum of the moments = 1 050 000 ft-lb

The sum of these CLOCKWISE MOMENTS about joint 1 must be balanced by the CONTRA-CLOCKWISE MOMENT of R_2, the LEVER-ARM of which, with reference to joint 1, is 50 ft. Knowing the arm, 50 ft, the force R_2 is obtained by dividing the sum of the moments of the loads by the span. Dividing 1 050 000 ft-lb by

50 ft, the result is 21 000 lb, which is the reaction or supporting force at joint 8; and R_1 must equal the difference between the sum of the loads and R_2. The sum of the loads is 46 500 lb and subtracting from this 21 000 lb, the remainder, 25 500 lb, is the value of R_1. The stress-diagram (Fig. 39A) may now be drawn. First draw a vertical line *oa* equal to R_1, 25 500 lb. From *a* and *o* draw lines parallel respectively to *AE* and *EO*, locating the point *e*. For the stress-lines at joint 2 measure up from *o* a distance equal to the load at that joint, 13 500 lb, which gives the point *r*, and from *e* and *r* draw lines parallel to *EF* and *FR*, which intersect at *f*. At joint 3, the sides of the stress-polygon are *fe*, *ea*, *ab*, *bg* and *gf*. Draw the stress-polygons for joints 4, 5, and 6 in the order in which they are numbered. At joint 6 the sides of the stress-polygon are *ik*, *kc*, *cd*, *dj* and *ji*. If the diagram has been correctly drawn, the line *ij* will be just equal to the load at joint 7. The sides of the stress-polygon for joint 7 are *ts* equal to 4 500 lb, *si*, *ij* and *jt*, the only line to be drawn being *jt*, which must be parallel to *JT*. Consequently *j* must be exactly opposite *t*, or the polygon will not close. The distance *dt* should be equal to R_2.

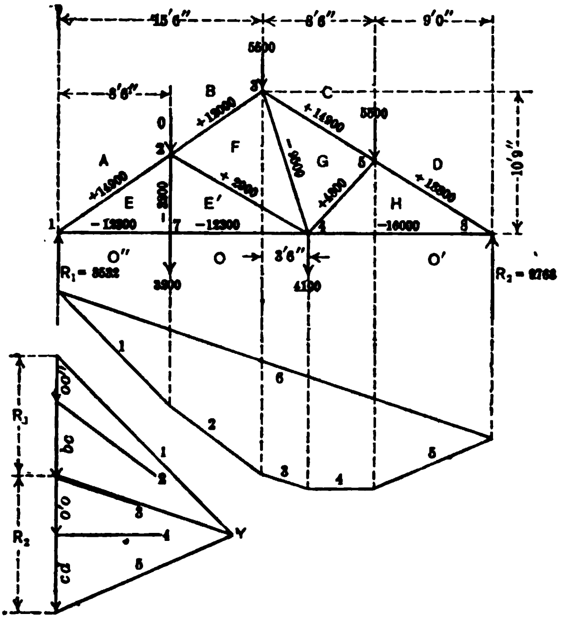

Fig. 40. Unsymmetrical Truss. Truss-diagram and Equilibrium-polygon

Unsymmetrically-loaded Truss. **Example 25.** Fig. 40 is the diagram of a wooden roof-truss. The actual loads were about as given on the diagram. There were purlins at joints 3 and 5 only, and the ceiling below was suspended by rods from joints 4 and 7, joint 4 being fixed by the framing of the ceiling. The moments of the loads about joint 1 are:

3 200 lb ×	8½ ft =	27 200 ft-lb
5 500 lb ×	15½ ft =	85 250 ft-lb
4 100 lb ×	19 ft =	77 900 ft-lb
5 500 lb ×	24 ft =	132 000 ft-lb
Sum of moments	=	322 350 ft-lb

Dividing the sum of the moments by the distance between the supporting forces, there results 9 768 lb as the value of R_2. The sum of the loads is 18 300 lb. Subtracting 9 768 lb, 8 532 remains as the value of R_1. To draw the stress-diagram, start with *o″a* equal to 8 532 lb equal to R_1 and draw *ae* and *eo″*. The sides of the stress-polygon for joint 2 are *ea*, *ab*, *bf*, *fe′* and *ee′*. At joint 3, *fb* is known and *bc* is measured down and made equal to 5 500 lb. *cg* and *gf* are then drawn. At joint 4, start by measuring upwards from *o*, 4 100 lb, locating point *o′* and draw *gh* and *ho′*. At joint 5, *hg* and *gc* are now known, *cd* equals 5 500 lb and a line from *d* is drawn parallel to *DH*. This should pass through *h*, completing the diagram. The stress in rod 2–7 is the load at joint 7.

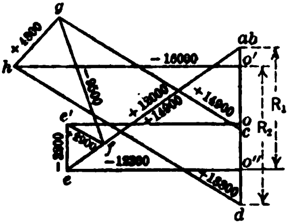

Fig. 40A. Unsymmetrical Truss. Stress-diagram

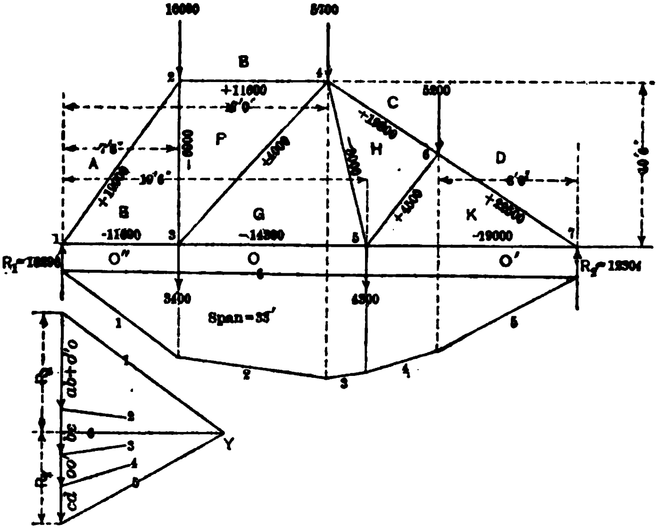

Fig. 41. Unsymmetrical Truss. Truss-diagram and Equilibrium-polygon

Unsymmetrically-loaded Truss. Example 26. Fig. 41 is the truss-diagram of another truss in the same building in which the truss shown in Fig. 40 was used. Taking moments about joint 1, there results, for the sum of the moments, 406 050 ft-lb; and dividing this by 33 ft gives 12 304 lb as the value of R_2. The sum of the loads is 28 600 lb, which leaves 16 296 lb for the value of R_1. The stress-diagram Fig. 41A, is drawn in the same manner as in Fig. 40. Starting with $o''a$ equal to R_1, ab is drawn equal to the load at joint 2, and the actual stress in *EF* is 6 000 lb, or the length of the line *ef*. If the stress-diagram is correctly drawn, a line through *d* parallel to *KD* will pass through the point *k*, previously determined. The CHARACTER OF THE STRESSES is indicated by the PLUS AND MINUS SIGNS in Fig. 41, plus denoting compression. If the stress-diagrams in the last three examples are compared with those for symmetrically loaded trusses of similar shape it is found that while the stress-diagrams, Figs. 39A, 40A and 41A, are unsymmetrical, they are of the same general character, and the stresses are all of the same kind as when the supporting forces are equal. This condition holds true for most triangular trusses, but for trusses with horizontal or curved chords, unsymmetrical loading usually causes a REVERSAL OF THE STRESS IN KIND in one or more of the diagonals or verticals; and if the truss contains any four-sided panels, an additional diagonal is generally required. This is particularly true of the HOWE TRUSS; and as this truss is very extensively used by architects and builders, it will now be considered at some length with special reference to the effect of UNSYMMETRICAL LOADING.

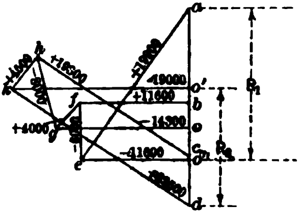

Fig. 41A. Unsymmetrical Truss. Stress-diagram

Howe Trusses, Unsymmetrically Loaded. When a HOWE TRUSS is loaded symmetrically on each side of the middle, all of the braces incline downward from the center, as in Figs. 14 to 17, Chapter XXVI; and if there is an ODD NUMBER OF PANELS, the middle panel needs no brace. When a load of much magnitude is placed on one side of a truss having an ODD NUMBER OF PANELS without a corresponding load on the other side, a brace is always required in the middle panel and the brace should incline downward from the side which is most heavily loaded.

Howe Truss with Even Number of Panels. When the truss has an EVEN NUMBER OF PANELS, an unsymmetrical load causes a greater stress in the braces on one side of the truss than on the other; and if there is a sufficient difference in the loads on the two sides of the truss, it causes compressive stresses in one or more of the rods and tensile stresses in one or more of the braces. As this truss is especially designed with the idea of having the BRACES IN COMPRESSION and the VERTICALS IN TENSION, whenever the loading causes tension in a brace, or compression in a rod, the direction of the brace should be reversed, causing it to be in compression again. Consider, for example, the truss shown in Fig. 42, divided into 6 panels of equal width and loaded with 4 tons at each of the upper joints and 9 tons at the second lower joint from the left. Without the bottom load of 9 tons, the brace in the third panel should incline downward from the middle joint, as shown by dotted line at *B*; but when the load of 9 tons is added, it causes a tensile stress in *B* and a compressive stress in *R*. To

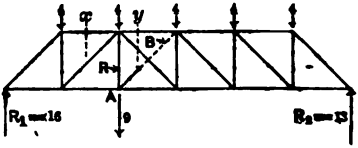

Fig. 42. Howe Truss. Truss-diagram

avoid this, the DIRECTION OF THE BRACE IS REVERSED, as shown by the full line. It is then in compression and the vertical *R* has no stress except that caused by the direct load of 9 tons. There are the same results when the load of 9 tons is applied at the joint directly above, instead of at the lower joint, although in this case there is no stress at all in *R* except that due to the weight of the tie-beam. When the load of 9 tons is reduced to 6 tons, no brace is required in the third panel; and when the bottom load is less than 6 tons, a brace in the normal direction is required, as shown in Fig. 43. (See page 1006.)

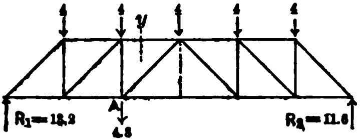

Fig. 43. Howe Truss. Truss-diagram

Howe Truss with Uneven Number of Panels. In the five-panel truss, shown in Fig. 44, a load of 7.5 tons at *A* requires the arrangement of braces shown by the full lines, and when the load at *A* is increased to more than 15 tons, the brace *R* needs to be reversed, as shown by the dotted line. The stress-diagram always shows in which direction any brace should be placed to be in compression; but this may be determined also by the following rule. When the sum of the loads to the left of any section, taken between R_1 and the middle, is greater than the reaction R_1, the direction of the brace cut by that section must be reversed from its normal direction. When the sum of the loads is less than R_1 the brace should be in its normal position. When the sum of the loads, to the left of the section, is just equal to R_1, no brace is required. For example, consider a section at *x*, Fig. 44. Here the sum of the loads to the left is 10.5 tons, which sum is less than R_1; hence the brace should be in its normal direction. If the section is at *y*, the sum of the loads to the left is 13.5 tons, which sum is greater than R_1; hence a brace is required, slanting downward from the more heavily loaded side. When the section is at *x*, Fig. 42, the load to the left is 4 tons, an amount less than R_1; hence the brace in that panel should be in its normal position. When the section is at *y*, the sum of the loads is greater than R_1; hence the brace in that panel must be reversed. When the section is at *y*, Fig. 43, the sum of the loads to the left is less than R_1; hence the brace should be in its normal position. By this rule the proper direction of the brace in any panel is indicated, regardless of the complication of the loading and of the width of the panels; but in applying the rule, it is first necessary to determine the supporting forces, which can be found either by the METHOD OF MOMENTS, as explained in Example 24, or by the GRAPHICAL METHOD.

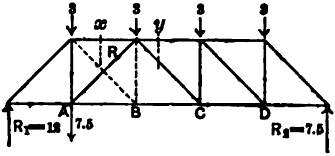

Fig. 44. Howe Truss. Truss-diagram

Unsymmetrical Howe Truss. Example 27. As an example of an unsymmetrical HOWE TRUSS unsymmetrically loaded, the truss represented in Fig. 45 is considered. This truss is supposed to support a flat roof and a wooden tower located as shown. The position of the tower necessitates a division of the panels as indicated, so that the truss is quite unsymmetrical. It is assumed that the weight of the roof, snow, and tower constitute the loads in pounds at the upper joints, indicated by the figures. The graphical determination of the reactions and stresses is clearly shown in Figs. 45 and 45A. The only panels of this truss in which there is any question as to the direction of the braces are the third and fourth. Taking a section at *x*, the sum of the loads to the left is greater than R_1; hence the brace should be placed as drawn. A section taken through *C* makes the sum of the loads to the left less than R_1; and hence the brace should be in its normal position. The stress-diagram of this truss is readily drawn, starting with *wa* equal to R_1, and going from joint to joint as in previous examples. The completed stress-diagram is shown in Fig. 45A.

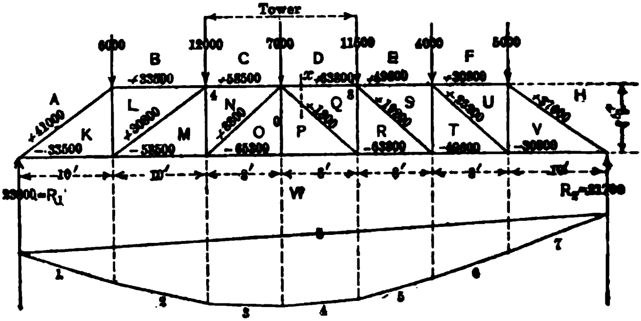

Fig. 45. Howe Truss. Truss-diagram

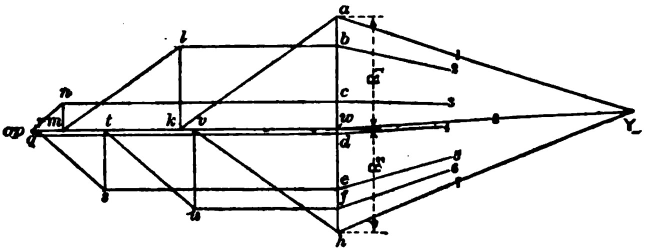

Fig. 45A. Howe Truss. Stress-diagram

Counterbraces. These are EXTRA BRACES that are put in a truss when stresses are REVERSED IN CHARACTER by a load which may be applied for a time and then removed. For illustration, consider the truss represented in Figs. 42 and 43. Here it has already been shown that when the load at *A* is less than 6, the brace in the third panel should be in the position shown in Fig. 43; while, when the load is greater than 6, the brace should be in the position shown by the full line, Fig. 42. Now, if the load at *A* represents the weight of a crowded gallery or a hoist raising a heavy load, or in fact if it represents any live load, it is evident that when this live load is absent the brace in the third panel should be in its normal position; and that when this maximum load is present a brace is needed in the opposite direction. As it is not practicable to move the brace to suit the changing conditions of the loading, it is necessary to put in two braces, only one of which, however, is in action at a time. The stresses in a HOWE TRUSS, therefore, which is subject to a variable and unsymmetrical loading, should be computed for at least TWO CONDITIONS OF LOADING: first, for the condition resulting from the APPLICATION OF THE MAXIMUM LOAD; and secondly, for the condition resulting from the removal of the variable load. The truss should be designed to resist both conditions. Snow is a variable load, to which such trusses are often subjected; but as it is nearly uniformly distributed over the roof, it does not change the character of the stresses in any of the members. If a truss, therefore, is designed for a maximum snow-load, it is more than strong enough when there is no snow. Moreover, the transverse strength of the chords is usually sufficient to resist any slight inequality in the loading. The principal variable vertical loads, therefore, to which a roof-truss may be subjected and which require counterbraces, are those due to the weight of people, merchandise, etc., these loads being either suspended from the truss by rods or brought upon the truss by a floor supported by the bottom chord. The truss shown in Fig. 45, also, is an instance of such loading. The weights given by the figures indicate merely the combined dead loads and snow-loads. During a high wind the weight on the leeward side of the tower is much increased and on the windward side decreased, so that when the wind blows from the right, the load at 4 is greater and at 8 less than indicated; while when the wind blows from the left the load is increased at 8 and decreased at 4. This requires counterbraces in both the third and fourth panels. As counterbraces do no harm, even if never brought into action, it is always well to use them in the middle panels wherever the loads are at all variable.

Cantilever Trusses. These trusses may be considered as unsymmetrically loaded trusses, for although the loads may be symmetrical in relation to the truss, they are usually unsymmetrical in relation to the supports. The method of computing the supporting forces and drawing the stress-diagrams is shown by the following examples:

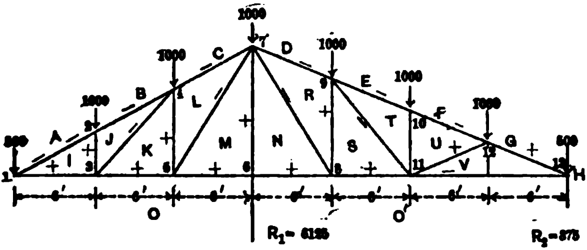

Fig. 46. Cantilever Truss. Truss-diagram

Cantilever Truss. Example 28. Fig. 46 is the diagram of a cantilever truss such as might be used to support the roof over a grand stand or railway-station platform and may be constructed either of wood or steel, steel being preferable. The first step towards determining the stresses is to find the supporting forces. For this purpose the panel-loads have been made 1 000 lb each, all panels being of equal width. These assumed loads simplify the problem and serve as well as the actual loads to explain the method of procedure. In cantilever trusses the loads at the ends of the trusses, as well as the intermediate loads, should be taken into account. These end-loads are each equal to one-half of the panel-loads. To find the supporting forces moments are taken about joint 13. The sum of the moments of the external vertical forces is 147 000 ft-lb. These moments must be resisted by the moment of the force R_1, which acts in a contrary direction with reference to the same point and with a lever-arm of 24 ft. Dividing 147 000 ft-lb by 24 ft, there results 6 125 lb as the value of R_1:

and as the total load is 7 000 lb, R_2 must be 875 lb. The stress-diagram may be commenced either with the forces at joint 1 or with those at joint 13; but as the external loads were laid off from left to right in the preceding examples, the same order is used here. Commencing then with joint 1, lay off on a vertical line the load *oa* equal to 500 lb, which acts down, and draw *ai* and *io* parallel respectively to *AI* and *IO*. The forces act from *o* to *a*, from *a* to *i* (from the joint) and from *i* to *o* (towards the joint), showing that *AI* is in tension and *IO* in compression, a REVERSAL OF THE CHARACTER OF THE STRESSES developed in the corresponding members of a truss supported at both ends. Next, at joint 2, the stress *ia* is now known, and *ab* equal to 1 000 lb is laid off; then *bj* and *ji* are drawn, *BJ* being in tension and *JI* in compression. The forces at joint 3 are next drawn and then those for the remaining joints, in the order in which they are numbered. At joint 6, the first force known is the supporting force R_1, represented by *o'o* laid off equal to 6 125 lb and acting upward. The sides of the polygon of forces for joint 6 are *o'o*, *om*, *mn* and *no'*. The stress in *MN* is equal to the supporting force *o'o*, which is evident from the truss-diagram. In practice, R_1 would probably be a COLUMN continued to the apex of the truss. At joint 12 the stresses already determined are *vu*, *uf*, and *fg* equal to 1 000 lb. *gv* must close the polygon. It will be noticed that *gv* acts toward joint 12; hence the rafter in the end-panel is in compression. If a line drawn from *g*, parallel to the rafter, passes through *v*, the stress-diagram is correct; if it does not pass through *v*, then either the stress-diagram has not been drawn with sufficient accuracy or an error has been made in computing the supporting forces. In drawing the stress-diagram for CANTILEVER TRUSSES, it is important to keep in mind THE DIRECTION IN WHICH THE FORCES ACT, in order to determine which members are in compression and which in tension.

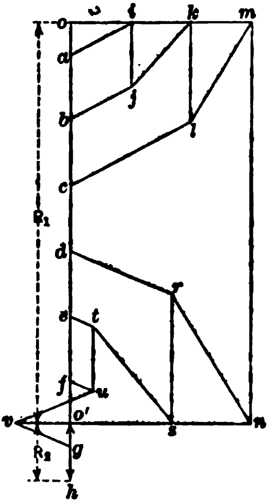

Fig. 46A. Cantilever Truss. Stress-diagram

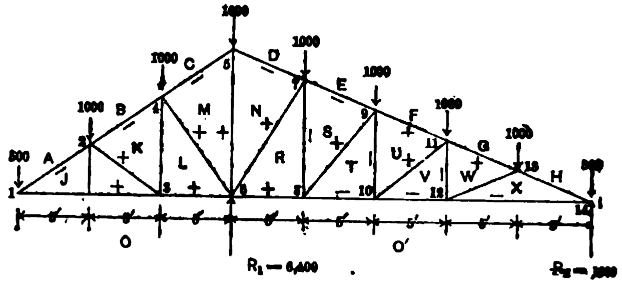

Fig. 47. Cantilever Truss. Truss-diagram

Cantilever Truss. **Example 29.** Fig. 47 is the diagram of a truss similar in outline to that shown in Fig. 46, but with the DIAGONAL BRACES INCLINED IN THE OPPOSITE DIRECTION, so as to cause them to be in compression and the verticals in tension. The supporting forces are found by the same methods used in Example 28, and the stress-diagram, also, is drawn by the methods used for Fig. 46A. In this truss, however, the stress in the vertical post *MN* is considerably less than the reaction R_1 because a large portion of the loads is transmitted to joint 6 by the struts *LM* and *NR*. In this truss three sections of the rafter on the right side are in compression and three sections of the bottom chord are in tension. This is because in this truss the projection of the overhang in proportion to the anchor-span is less than it is in Fig. 46. When the stress-lines pass to the left of the load-line (Fig. 47A), the STRESSES ARE REVERSED IN KIND. This truss is better adapted to wooden construction with vertical rods than is the truss shown in Fig. 46.

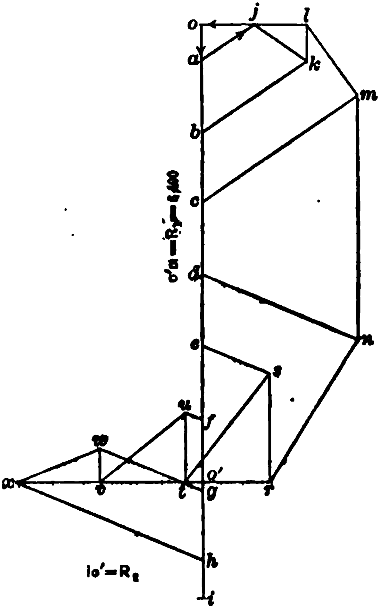

Fig. 47A. Cantilever Truss. Stress-diagram

Anchored Cantilever Truss. **Example 30.** In this example, Fig. 48, is shown a truss with an ANCHORAGE at the outer end to hold it down, so that R_1 acts downward. To determine the magnitude and character of the supporting forces moments are taken about joint 6 as follows:

Sum of moments of loads to the right of joint 7, the figures on the force-arrows of the truss-diagram indicating thousands of pounds:

$$(5 \times 8) + (5 \times 16) + (5 \times 24) + (12.5 \times 32) = 640\,000 \text{ ft-lb}$$

Sum of moments of loads to the left of joint 7:

$$(2.5 \times 24) + (5 \times 16) + (5 \times 8) = 180\,000 \text{ ft-lb}$$

As these moments act in opposite direction with reference to the center of moments, joint 6, the smaller sum, is subtracted from the larger, leaving an unbalanced moment of 640 000 ft-lb − 180 000 ft-lb = 460 000 ft-lb, tending to turn the truss down on the right of R_2 at joint 6 and to lift it up on the left. This moment must be resisted by the moment of the reaction R_1, which has an arm of 24 ft. Dividing 460 000 ft-lb by 24 ft, 19 250 lb results as the reaction R_1. That is, it requires a downward force of this magnitude to maintain the truss in equilibrium. As the support at 6 must resist this downward pull as well as the loads, R_2 will equal the sum of the loads plus the pull R_1, or 45 000 lb

+ 19 250 lb = 64 250 lb. Having obtained the value of the supporting forces the stress-diagram is drawn by laying off on a vertical line *oa* downward, equal to 19 250 lb equal to R_1. The next force is the load of 2 500 lb, which also acts down, and which locates the point *b*. From *b* a line parallel to *BI* is drawn and from *o* a line parallel to *IO*, locating the point *i*. *bi* acts from joint 1 and *io* towards it, showing that *BI* is in tension and *IO* in compression. The remainder of the stress-diagram is drawn by the same methods employed for the diagrams of Figs. 46A and 47A. At joint 6 the force-polygon is begun with the force R_2 or *o'o*, which acts upward, and the upper end of which must be at *o*. Consequently *o'* is located by measuring downward from *o*, 64 250 lb. The sides of the stress-polygon for this joint are *o'o*, *om*, *mn* and *no'*. After *gh*, the load at joint 13 is laid off, the remaining distance *ho'* should be just equal to the load at joint 14, or 12 500 lb. If R_1 and R_2 have been correctly computed and the stress-diagram accurately drawn, the points *s*, *u* and *w* will fall in the line *no'*.

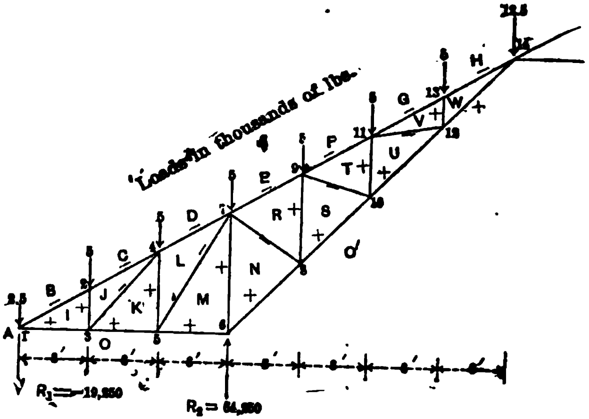

Fig. 48. Cantilever Truss. Truss-diagram

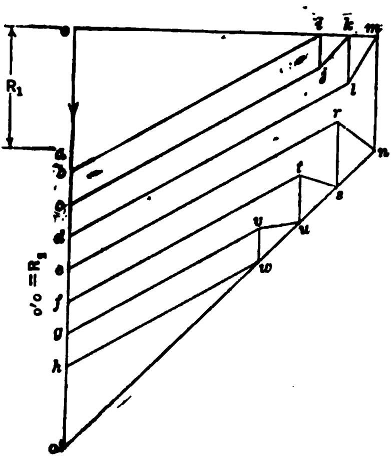

Fig. 48A. Cantilever Truss. Stress-diagram

6. Determination of Wind-Load Stresses

Wind-Loads. Thus far the stresses due to VERTICAL LOADS only have been considered, the pressure of the WIND being combined with the DEAD LOAD and considered as acting vertically. For TRIANGULAR and FINK TRUSSES this method is sufficiently accurate, as the wind-pressure never causes a maximum stress in excess of that obtained by the method explained in connection with the foregoing examples. For TRUSSES WITH CURVED CHORDS and in fact for almost all forms of STEEL TRUSSES except those of the FINK and FAN TYPES, it is not safe to consider wind-pressure as acting vertically, because the wind acts generally in a direction at right-angles to the roof-surface, and upon but one side of the roof at a given time, thus loading the truss unsymmetrically and often causing stresses of an opposite kind from those produced by a vertical loading. Braces which are inactive under a vertical load may therefore be necessary to resist the force of the wind, or the total stress due to wind and vertical load combined may be greater than it would be if the wind-pressure were considered as a vertical load. To design a roof-truss correctly, therefore, it is necessary to determine the stresses due to VERTICAL LOADS and WIND-LOADS separately and then combine them so as to get the GREATEST STRESS that may be produced under any probable conditions.

Curved Chords. In the calculation of trusses with CURVED CHORDS it is the usual practice to find the stresses for the following different loadings and then combine them to obtain the maximum stress: Stresses due to the wind on the side of the truss nearer the expansion-end; stresses due to the wind on the side of the truss nearer the fixed end; stresses due to the permanent dead loads; stresses due to snow covering the entire roof or only one-half of the roof; and, in special cases, stresses due to snow covering only a small area of the roof on one side.

Wind and Snow. It is generally assumed that the maximum wind-pressure and the snow-load can not act on the same half of the truss at the same time. For trusses with straight rafters it will generally be sufficient to find the stresses due to the permanent dead load, and to the wind from both directions, disregarding the snow-load when the pitch of the roof is 45° or greater. For the Northern states, when the pitch is less than 30°, it is well to consider that a heavy sleet may be on both sides of the roof at the time of a heavy wind and to add about 10 lb per sq ft of roof-surface to the dead load to allow for it. In localities where heavy snowfalls may be expected, the stresses due to the full snow-load should also be found, as these combined with the permanent dead load may exceed those due to dead load, sleet and wind-pressure.

Wind Stress-Diagrams. These are affected by the manner in which the truss is supported. If both ends of the truss are fixed, the WIND-REACTIONS are parallel to the resultant wind-load; if one end is free to move horizontally, that is, on ROLLERS or supported on a ROCKER, the reaction at the roller-end is vertical and that at the fixed end inclined. "If one end be fixed and the other merely supported upon a smooth IRON PLATE, the reaction at the free end may have a horizontal component equal to the vertical component multiplied by the COEFFICIENT OF FRICTION, which is about one-third."

Fixed and Free Ends of Trusses. Wooden trusses may be considered as FIXED at the ends. STEEL TRUSSES, when supported on masonry walls, should have one end FIXED and the other FREE to move; and when the span exceeds 70 ft the free end should be supported on ROLLERS to permit of expansion or contraction. When steel trusses are supported by steel columns, as in steel mill-buildings, the trusses are RIGIDLY ATTACHED to the columns and no provision is made for expansion. In such buildings the wind-pressure causes a BENDING STRESS in the columns, which must be provided for.

Truss with Fixed Ends. Example 31. Wind-pressure is usually assumed to be applied uniformly over one side of the roof and to act at right-angles to the surface of the roof. The joint-loads or panel-loads, therefore, are proportional to the roof-areas supported. When the joints divide the rafter into panels of equal length, the joint-loads are uniform, except for the joints at the edges of the roof. The actual wind-pressure is obtained by multiplying the roof-surface by the values given in Table IX, page 1053. For this example the triangular truss shown in outline by Fig. 49 is considered and it is assumed that the span and spacing of the truss are such as will give a load of 1 000 lb at joints 2 and 4. The loads at joints 1 and 5 are only one-half of those at 2 or 4. To find the supporting forces or reactions, draw a line representing the resultant of the loads, cutting the bottom chord at *X*. As the loads are symmetrical the resultant acts at the middle of the rafter and at right-angles to it. The reactions R_1 and R_2 are inversely proportional to the two segments into which a horizontal line joining the points of support is divided by the resultant, or in this case to *X*–7 and 1–*X*, the greater reaction being at joint 1. The sum of the reactions are equal to the sum of the loads. To find the reactions graphically, draw a line from joint 1, at any angle, say from 30° to 45°, and measure off a distance equal to the total load. In Fig. 49 the line 1–8 represents 3 000 lb. Join 7 and 8, and from *X* draw a line parallel to 7–8, intersecting 1–8 at *X′*. Then 8–*X′* is the reaction at joint 1 and *X′*–1 the reaction at joint 7. To draw the stress-diagram, Fig. 49A, first draw the load-line *ae* equal to the sum of the loads, in this case 3 000 lb, and perpendicular to the rafter 1–5, and divide it so that *ao* is equal to *X′*–8. Then, at joint 1, *oa* is the supporting force, *ab* is 500 lb and *bf* and *fo* are drawn parallel respectively to *BF* and *FO*, intersecting at *f*. The external forces and stresses act in the direction *oa*, *ab*, *bf* and *fo*, showing that *BF* is in compression and *FO* in tension. At joint 2 the stress-lines are *fb*, *bc* equal to 1 000 lb, *cg* and *gf*. The stress-lines at joint 3 are *of*, *fg*, *gh* and *ho;* at joint 4, *hg*, *gc*, *cd*, *di* and *ih;* and at joint 5, *id*, *de*, *ek* and *ki*. If the load-line has been correctly divided at *o*, and the stress-lines have been drawn exactly parallel to the lines of the truss, the point *h* will fall vertically above the point *i*. At joint 6 the stress-lines are *oh*, *hi*, *ih* and *ko*. As the figure must close by a horizontal line through *o*, it is evident that the

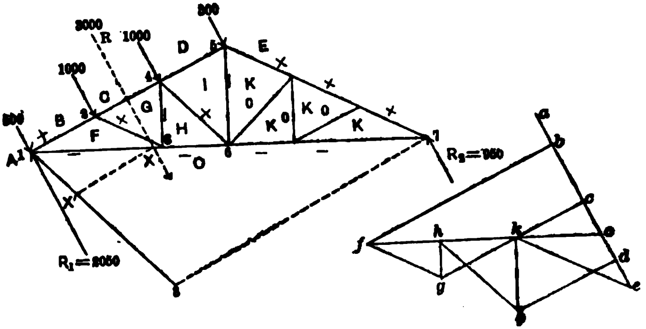

Fig. 49. Triangular Truss. Truss-diagram

Fig. 49A. Triangular Truss. Stress-diagram

line *KK* of the truss-diagram cannot be represented, and therefore there can be no stress in this member when the wind is from the left. At joint 7 the reaction *eo* is known, acting up, and *ok* and *ke* must close the figure, showing that the line *ke* represents the stress in the entire length of the right rafter, and that there is no stress in the bracing on that side of the truss when the wind is from the left. When, however, either the lower chord or the rafter is not straight, some of the braces on that side come into action. By noting the character of the stresses in Fig. 49A, it is seen that the different members of the truss have the same kind of stress as is produced by vertical loads. As the wind may blow from either direction, it is evident that both sides of the truss must be made alike. This example illustrates the method of drawing the stress-diagram for any truss with a straight rafter when both ends of the truss are fixed.

Truss on Rollers. Example 32. When one end of the truss is FREE TO MOVE, the reaction at that end must always be practically vertical, and this condition gives a considerable variation of stress when the wind is on different sides of the roof; so that it is necessary to draw two wind-stress diagrams, one for WIND FROM THE LEFT, marked W.L, and one for WIND FROM THE RIGHT, marked W.R. It is customary with authors when writing on this subject to consider that the ROLLERS are always under the right-hand support, and this custom is followed here. In practice the ROLLERS may be placed under either end, as both sides of the truss are usually proportioned to the maximum stresses. For this example we will take the same truss-diagram that was used in Fig. 49, illustrating it again in Fig. 50, which is drawn to show WIND FROM THE LEFT. Lay off the load-line 1–8 and divide it at *X'*, as in example 31. Draw a line *ae*, perpendicular to the rafter and equal to 1–8 in length, and divide it into two segments of the same proportions. Through *x'* on *ae* draw a horizontal line, and through *e* a vertical line, the two intersecting at *o*. Then *eo* represents the vertical reaction at joint 7 and *oa* the reaction at joint 1. The stress-lines at joint 1 are: *oa*, *ab* equal to 500 lb, *bf* and *fo*. At joint 2: *fb*, *bc*, *cg* and *gf*. The remainder of the diagram W.L. is completed exactly as described for Fig. 49A, the only difference between the two being the location of point *o*, which gives increased stresses in the bottom chord for the truss of Fig. 50. Fig. 51 represents the same truss with WIND FROM THE RIGHT. To draw the stress-diagram W.R. start with *id*, perpendicular to the rafter and equal to the total load, 3 000 lb. Divide the line at *x'* into two segments of the same proportions as the segments

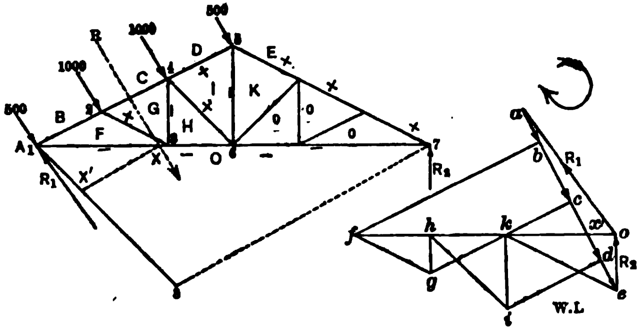

Fig. 50. Triangular Truss. Truss-diagram and Stress-diagram, Wind Left

of the line 1–8, Fig. 50, the longer segment being at the top. To find the reactions draw a horizontal line through x' and a vertical line through *t*, the two lines intersecting at *o*. Then *do* is the reaction at joint 1, and *ot* the reaction at joint 10. For this diagram it is better to start with joint 10 and take the forces in the reverse order from that in which they were taken before. The stress-lines at joint 10 are *ot*, *ts* equal to 500 lb, *sn* and *no*; at joint 9, *ns*, *sr*, *rm* and *mn*; at joint 8: *on*, *nm*, *ml* and *lo*; at joint 7, *lm*, *mr*, *re*, *ek* and *kl*; and at joint 5, *ke*, *ed*, *di* and *ik*. If the diagrams have been correctly drawn the point *i* will fall vertically above the point *k*. On comparing the two diagrams for W.L. and W.R. it is seen that the stress-lines for the rafters and braces are of the same length and that the stresses are of the same character in both, but that the stress in the bottom chord is considerably less when the wind is from the right. This condition does not apply to all trusses, however, so that it is best to draw the two stress-diagrams for wind from both directions.

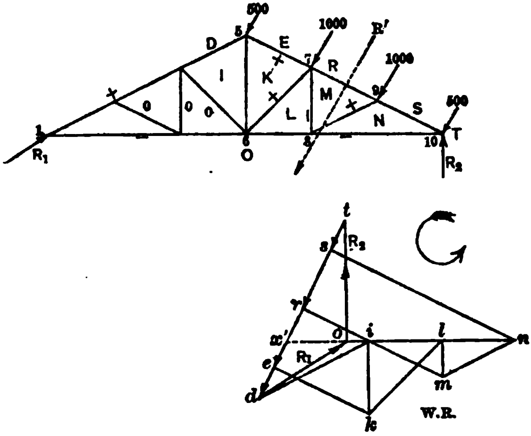

Fig. 51. Triangular Truss. Truss-diagram and Stress-diagram, Wind Right

Queen Truss. Example 33. Fig. 52 represents the outline of a QUEEN-ROD TRUSS for a roof having a rise of 14½ in in 12 in. As the truss is of wood the supports are considered fixed. Joint 2 divides the rafter into two equal parts, consequently the wind-load at this joint is twice that at joint 1 or 4. For convenience it is assumed that the wind-load at joint 2 is 1 000 lb and at joints 1 and 4, 500 lb. The resultant is 2 000 lb acting through joint 2 and intersects the tie-beam at X. To find the supporting forces, draw the line 1–8 equal to 2 000 lb and connect 7 and 8. From X draw a line parallel to 7–8 intersecting 1–8 at X'. Then 8–X' is R_1 or the supporting force at joint 1 and X'–1 or R_2 the supporting force at joint 7. Begin the stress-diagram (Fig. 52A) by drawing the line *ad* at right-angles to the rafter 1–4, and equal in length to 1–8 or 2 000 lb. By means of dividers locate the point *o* so that *oa* equals 8–X'. Then the stress-lines for joint 1 are *oa*, *ab*, *be* and *eo*; at joint 2, *eb*, *bc*, *cf* and *fe*; at joint 3, *oe*, *ef*, *fh* and *ho*; and at joint 4, *hf*, *fc*, *cd*, *dk* and *kh*. It is seen that the force-polygon at joint 4 will not close without the brace KH, because the initial point in drawing the polygon is at *k*, and a horizontal line through *d* does not pass through *k*. A QUEEN-ROD TRUSS, therefore, requires braces in the middle panel to resist the wind-stress. With the wind from the right, a brace is required from joint 3 to joint 6. At joint 5 the stress-lines are *oh*, *hk*, *kl* and *lo*. It should be noticed that *lo* acts towards the joint, showing that *LO* is in compression. At first it would seem as though this could not be true, but if we glance at joint 7 we see that R_2 is thrusting in on the joint, and that a strut is required to keep the joint in position. This condition is true only when the inclination of the rafter is greater than 45°. When the inclination of the rafter is exactly 45°, there is no stress in *LO*, and when the inclination is less than 45°, *LO* is in tension. The stress-lines for joint 6 are *lk*, *kd* and *dl*. If no errors are made, a line through *d* parallel to *DL* passes through the point *l*, previously obtained. A very slight inaccuracy in locating the point *X'*, or in drawing the stress-diagram,

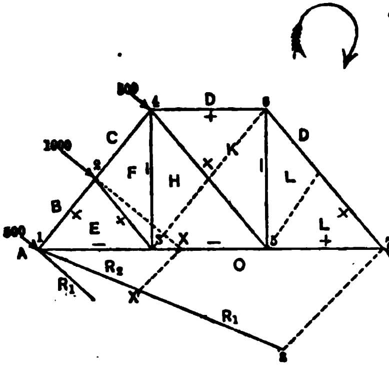

Fig. 52. Queen Truss. Truss-diagram

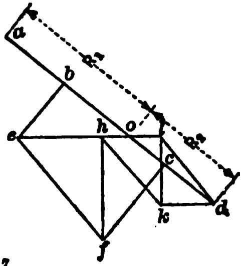

Fig. 52A. Queen Truss. Stress-diagram, Wind Left

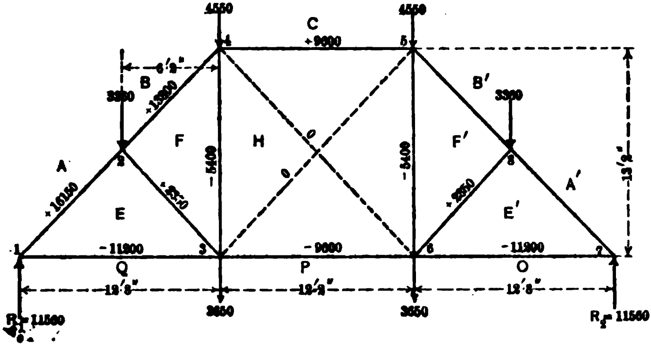

Fig. 53. Queen Truss. Truss-diagram. (See, also, Figs. 3, 12 and 54 and Chapter XXVIII, Fig. 1)

however, causes the line through *d* to pass to one side or the other of point *l*; and if this happens, it shows that there has been some inaccuracy somewhere. In practice, a slight divergence does not materially affect the stress. At joint 7 the sides of the stress-polygon are *ol*, *ld* and *do* = R_2, the lines being already drawn.

Combination of Stresses. Example 34. For the purpose of showing how the stresses due to wind and vertical loads are COMBINED, the truss-diagrams in Figs. 53 and 54 are shown, being the same as in Fig. 12, and representing the truss shown in Fig. 3. The stresses first determined are those due to the weight of the roof and ceiling and to an allowance of 10 lb per sq ft for sleet. On page 1055 the roof-area supported at joint 2 was found to be 147½ sq ft and at joint 3, 200 sq ft. On page 1055 the weight of the roof was estimated at 12¾ lb per sq ft, and allowing 10 lb for sleet, there results 22¾ lb as the greatest dead load under a heavy wind. This gives 3 360 lb for the load at joint 2 and 4 550 lb for the load at joint 3. The ceiling-loads will, of course, be the same as in Fig. 12. Fig. 53 shows the loads due to weight of materials and sleet, as computed above, and the ceiling-loads. Fig. 53A is the stress-diagram for these loads, with the stresses indicated by figures. This diagram is drawn exactly in the same way as the stress-diagram in Fig. 12, page 1071.

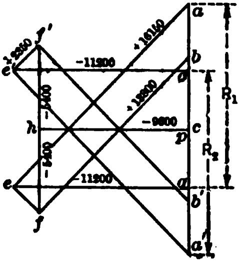

Fig. 53A. Queen Truss. Stress-diagram

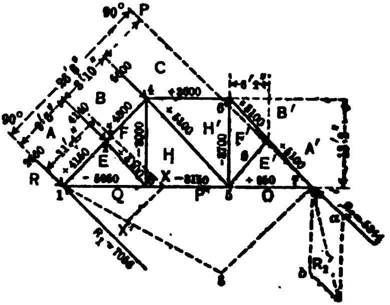

Fig. 54. Queen Truss. Truss-diagram. (See, also, Figs. 3, 12 and 53 and Chapter XXVIII, Fig. 1)

Wind-Stresses. The inclination of the roof is very close to 45°, and from Table IX, page 1053, the normal wind-pressure for that angle is found to be 28 lb. Multiplying the roof-area at joints 2 and 3 by 28, the wind-loads indicated in Fig. 54 are obtained. The wind-load at joint 1, also, must be found. The roof-area supported at this joint, allowing 17 in for eave-projection (Fig. 3) is 6¼ by 15 ft, or 95 sq ft, which makes the wind-load 2 660 lb. The next step is to find the point at which the resultant of these loads cuts the rafter. As the loads are not symmetrical or uniform on the rafter, the point through which the resultant acts must be determined by means of moments about joint 1. The arms of the loads at joints 2 and 4 are figured on the truss-diagram (Fig. 54). The moments are

$$\begin{aligned} 4\,140 \text{ lb} \times 9\tfrac{5}{12} \text{ ft} &= 38\,985 \text{ ft-lb} \\ 5\,600 \text{ lb} \times 18\tfrac{1}{4} \text{ ft} &= \underline{102\,200 \text{ ft-lb}} \\ \text{The sum of the moments} &= 141\,185 \text{ ft-lb} \end{aligned}$$

The resultant is the sum of all the loads. or 12 400 lb, and the distance of its point of application from 1 is found by dividing the sum of the moments by the resultant force, or 141 185 ft-lb divided by 12 400 lb = 11.4 ft. Measuring off 11.4 ft on the rafter from joint 1 and drawing a line at right-angles to it intersecting the tie-beam, the point *X* is determined. From 1 the line 1–8 is drawn at any angle and equal in length to the sum of the loads, 12 400 lb, and 7–8 is drawn. From *X* a line is drawn parallel to 7–8, intersecting 1–8 at *X'*. Then 8–*X'* is R_1 or the supporting force at joint 1 and *X'*–1 is R_2 or the supporting force at joint 7.

Supporting Forces Computed by Moments. The supporting forces may also be computed by moments. The moments of the loads about joint 1 tend to rotate the truss from left to right. To prevent this rotation there is the moment of the supporting force R_2 acting at joint 7 to rotate the truss from right to left. To maintain equilibrium, the moment of R_2 about joint 1 must just equal the sum of the moments of the loads about the same point. This sum was found above to be 141 185 ft-lb. The arm of R_2 is the perpendicular distance between its line of action and joint 1. Continuing R_2 above the truss until it intersects the dotted line at *P*, the distance from 1 to *P* is 26.5 ft. Knowing the arm, the value of R_2 is obtained by dividing the sum of the moments of the loads, 141 185, by the arm, or 26.5 ft. This gives 5 344 lb. As the sum of R_1 and R_2 must equal the total load, R_1 equals 12 400 less 5 344 lb, or 7 056 lb. The distance 8–*X'* and *X'*–1 should scale reasonably close to these figures. Knowing the supporting forces, the stress-diagram, Fig. 54A, is drawn exactly as described for Fig. 52A. As the inclination of the rafters is a little greater than 45°, *OE'* is in compression, but the stress is very small. The figures on Fig. 54A indicate the stresses in pounds. The stresses may now be tabulated and should be arranged as in the following table. In tabulating the wind-stresses, it should be remembered that the wind may blow against either side of the truss, and the greatest stress liable to occur should be put in the table.

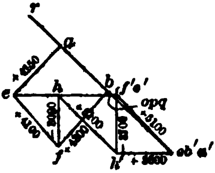

Fig. 54A. Queen Truss. Stress-diagram, Wind Left

Table XVIII. Stresses for the Trusses Shown in Figs. 12, 53 and 54

Members	Dead weights and sleet	Wind-stresses	Totals	Stresses (Fig. 12)
AE	+16 150	+5 100	+21 250	+25 600
BF	+13 800	+5 100	+18 900	+21 300
CH'	+ 9 600	+3 600	+13 200	+14 700
EF	+ 2 350	+4 100	+ 6 450	+ 4 400
HH'	0	+5 100	+ 5 100	0
FH	− 5 410	−3 700	− 9 110	− 6 900
EQ	−11 200	−5 950	−17 150	−17 600
HP	− 9 600	−3 150	−12 750	−14 700

The truss-members are lettered as in Fig. 54. Thus the stress in the rafter *F'B'* is greater than in the rafter on the other side, and this stress acts through the entire length of the rafter; hence the stress for *AE* and *BF* should be entered as 5 100 lb, the stress in *F'B'*. In the same way the stress in the rod *H'F'* is greater than in *FH*; hence the stress in *H'F'* should be tabulated. The stress in *OE'* slightly reduces the tension due to the dead load, but as the stress in *EQ* increases it, the stresses in *EQ* and *HP* should be tabulated. Both sides of the truss should of course be made alike, and two braces should be inserted in the middle panel. In the fifth column of the table are given the stresses due to the ceiling-load and a vertical load on the roof of 42¾ lb per sq ft, as obtained from the stress-diagram, Fig. 12. Comparing the stresses in the fourth and fifth columns, it is seen that except for the brace *EF*, and for the two rods, the stresses obtained by combining snow and wind and adding to the dead weight are greater than the totals due to wind, dead weight and sleet. Vertical loads, of course, cause no stresses in the braces of the middle panel, and unless the wind-stresses are drawn, it is necessary to estimate the sizes of these braces. The stresses in these braces, however, are so small that large pieces of timber are not required. The stresses given in the fourth column are unquestionably nearer what the real stresses are likely to be than those in the fifth column. If the roof is erected in a warm climate where there is no sleet, these stresses may be further reduced by omitting the 10 lb per sq ft added for sleet. If, on the other hand, the inclination of the roof is less than 30°, the stresses produced by a heavy fall of snow without wind generally exceed the sum of those due to dead weight, sleet and wind; and for such roofs the stresses due to the maximum snow-load should always be computed.

Reactions. The reactions, or supporting forces of the truss shown in Fig. 54, are very much inclined from the vertical. As the dead load, however, is always acting on the truss, the inclination of the real reaction is never so great, but more nearly vertical; and when there is no wind the reactions are exactly vertical. The theoretical reaction, due to both wind-load and dead load, is the diagonal of a parallelogram, the two adjacent sides of which are the reactions for the dead load and wind-load drawn to the same scale. Thus if *a*–7, Fig. 54, represents the reaction due to the wind and *b*–7 the vertical reaction, due to the dead load and drawn to the same scale, then R'_1 is the resultant reaction, modified somewhat, however, by friction. Examples 31, 32 and 33 serve to show the general method of drawing WIND STRESS-DIAGRAMS, and are sufficient to enable the student to draw those diagrams for most trusses with straight rafters. For trusses with curved rafters the diagrams become more complicated, and the reader is referred to Graphical Analysis of Roof Trusses, by Charles E. Greene and to other standard handbooks on the subject.

7. Trusses with Knee-Braces

Knee-Braces are generally used to give greater stability to the structure as a whole when roof-trusses are supported by COLUMNS. Under the action of vertical loads the stresses in these members are usually assumed as zero, which would be true if the materials composing the TRUSS, KNEE-BRACES and COLUMNS were rigid. This discussion will deal, however, with the effect of wind blowing against one side of the building and roof. The ACTUAL STRESSES in the knee-braces, columns and truss-members will probably never be known exactly, as there are so many VARIABLE FACTORS entering into the problem. In the usual construction, in which columns are bolted to masonry pedestals at the bottom, either riveted or bolted to the trusses at the top, and in which the knee-braces are riveted at both ends, the degree to which these connections may be considered FIXED is a question leading to many arguments and differences of opinion. This will not be discussed at all; but it will be shown how the stresses in all members of the framework can be found under given assumptions. Assume, for example, that the bottoms of the columns are sufficiently FIXED, so that a point of no-

MOMENT is midway between the bottom of the knee-brace and the masonry pedestal (equivalent to assuming a PIN at this point), and so that the top attachments and those of the knee-braces may be considered as PIN-CONNECTIONS. Taking the truss and loading shown in Fig. 55, it is clear that the outside forces must be in equilibrium, and, unless the points *M* and *N* are unlike in some particular, the reactions at these points will be parallel to the direction of the resultant of the wind-forces. Lay off to any convenient scale the wind-forces in order, as shown in Fig. 55A. Then *XY* is the direction and magnitude of the resultant wind-pressure and also the direction of R_1 and R_2. The magnitudes of R_1 and R_2 are found by means of the equilibrium polygon explained on page 1097. R_1 is equal to *SX* and R_2 to *YS*. These reactions are correct in direction and magnitude unless some condition is imposed to change them. If there are no moments at *M* and *N* and these points are RESTRAINED from moving vertically, the vertical components of R_1 and R_2 must remain constant, even in the extreme case where *M* may be assumed as a PIN-CONNECTION and *N* as resting on ROLLERS. Any assumption may be made as to the magnitudes of the horizontal components at these points as long as the sum of the two equals the sum of the horizontal components of R_1 and R_2. It is customary to assume these as equal. In this case the reactions at *M* and *N* are *TX* and *YT*, respectively. The next step is to find the effect of these reactions at the points *O*, *Q*, *P* and *R*. The vertical components V_1 and V_2 act as vertical forces at *O* and *P*. The horizontal components produce bending moments at *O* and *P*, and, in effect, horizontal forces at *O*, *P*, *Q* and *R*. Taking the left column, the 8 100 lb acting towards the left would move the column to the left if not prevented by the joints at *O* and *Q*.

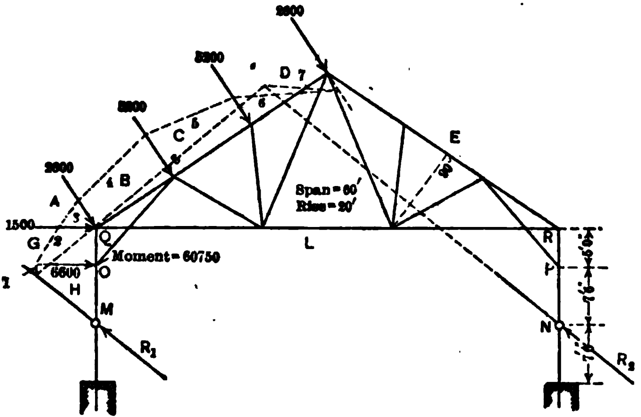

Fig. 55. Truss with Knee-braces. Truss-diagram

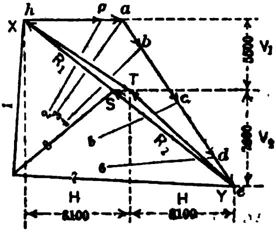

Fig. 55A. Truss with Knee-braces. Force-polygon

If the member *MQ* is considered to act as a lever with a fulcrum at *O*, a horizontal force of 8 100 lb acting towards the left at *M* will produce a pressure, or a force acting from left to right at *Q* which equals, by the method of moments, the center of moments being at *O*, 8 100 lb × 7.5 ft ÷ 5 ft = 12 150 lb. At *O*, in like manner, taking the center of moments at *Q*, 8 100 lb × 12.5 ft ÷ 5 ft = 20 250 lb

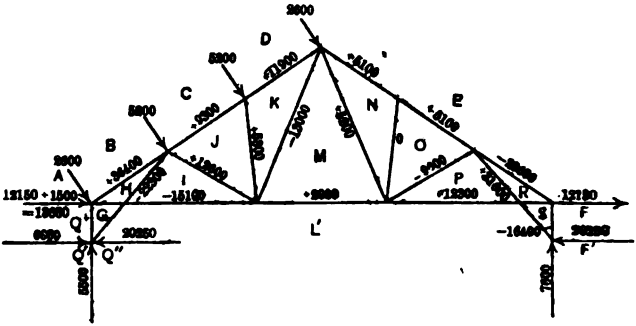

Fig. 56. Truss with Knee-braces. Truss-diagram

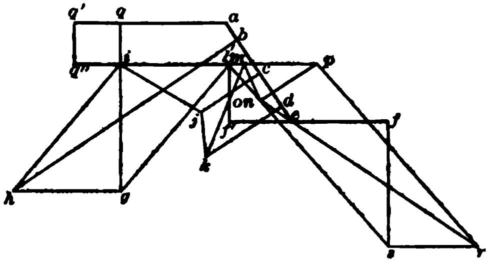

Fig. 57. Truss with Knee-braces. Stress-diagram

is produced, acting from right to left. These forces are shown in Fig. 56. When combined with those shown in Fig. 55 they give the forces acting at *O*, *Q*, *R* and *P* which are used in constructing the stress-diagram shown in Fig. 57.

8. Arched Trusses

An Arched Truss is one which has the FORM OF AN ARCH and which is so supported at the ends that the reactions produced by vertical forces are vertical. This is usually accomplished by placing PIN-CONNECTIONS at the supports and providing ROLLERS at one end to permit horizontal movement.

Stresses in an Arched Truss. The determination of the stresses in the members of an ARCHED TRUSS is readily accomplished by following the methods given in the previous examples.

Arched Truss with Roller-Support. Example 35. In Fig. 58 is shown the left half of an ARCHED TRUSS and the ROLLER-SUPPORT. This truss has the shape and dimensions of a truss in the Live Stock Pavilion, Union Stock-Yard and Transit Company, Chicago, Ill. It is discussed in the Engineering News of June 28, 1906. The loading shown is symmetrical about the middle of the span and hence each reaction equals one-half the total load. Fig. 58A shows

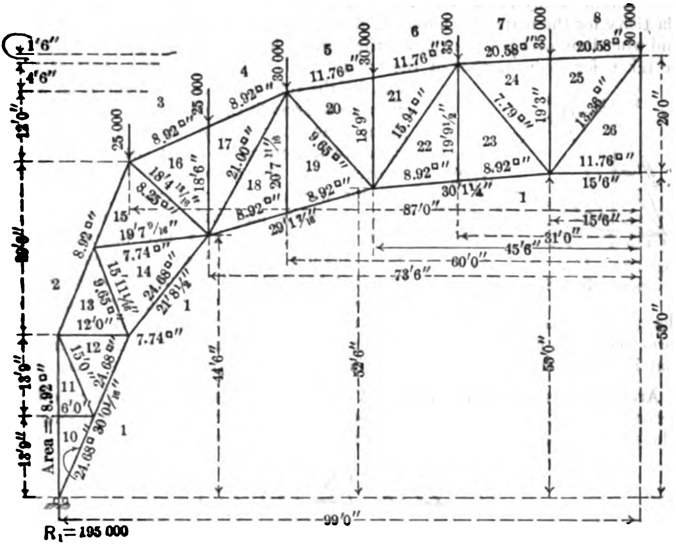

Fig. 58. Live Stock Pavilion, Chicago, Ill. Truss-diagram

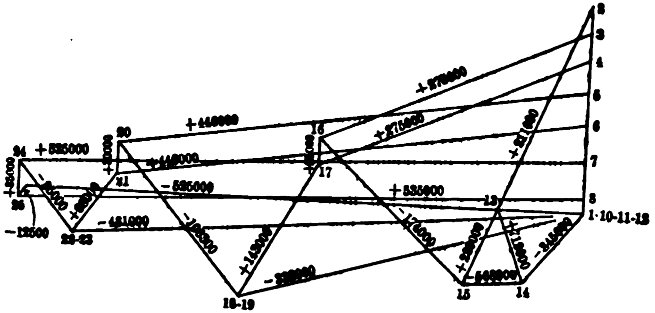

Fig. 58A. Live Stock Pavilion, Chicago, Ill. Stress-diagram for Truss

the stress-diagram for one-half of the truss. The stresses upon the right of the middle are the same as those upon the left.

The HORIZONTAL DEFLECTION of this truss is measured by the movement of the ROLLER-END. This movement is computed in the manner explained for the SCISSORS TRUSS, pages 1085–7, by the formula $D = \Sigma(Sul \div AE)$. Where D is the

HORIZONTAL MOVEMENT, S the stress in any member as given by the stress-diagram shown in Fig. 58A, u the stress in any member produced by the unit load applied at the roller end of the truss and acting in a horizontal direction (Fig. 58B). l the length of any member, A the area of any member, E Young's modulus of elasticity for the material composing any member and Σ the sign of summation, and when limits are not designated, the formula indicates that $\Sigma(Sul \div AE)$ is to be taken for each member of the truss. For the loads and areas indicated in Fig. 58, the rollers will move about 10 in when E is 30 000 000 lb per sq in. In order that a given span may obtain under a given load, each tension-member must be constructed shorter than its geometrical length by an amount which it is lengthened by the stress which it resists, and each compression-member must be lengthened in a like manner. Any other loading will produce a change in the length of the span. To reduce the HORIZONTAL DEFLECTION without changing the lengths of the members they would have to be made excessively heavy. A truss of the form shown in Fig. 58 is not economical as an ARCHED TRUSS on rollers but may be satisfactorily used by connecting the two end-pins by a TIE-ROD.

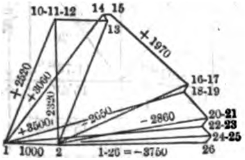

Fig. 58B. Live Stock Pavilion, Chicago, Ill. Stress-diagram

Arched Truss with Tie-Rod. When a TIE-ROD is employed the members become much lighter and can be built according to their geometrical lengths. The stress in the TIE-ROD may be found from the formula

$$S_t = \sum \frac{Sul}{AE} \div \left\{ \sum \frac{u^2 l}{AE} + \frac{l'}{A'E'} \right\}$$

in which S_t is the stress in the tie-rod, A' the area of the tie-rod, l' the length of the tie-rod and E' Young's modulus of elasticity for the material composing the tie-rod. The other symbols have the significance given above for the expression for D. Since the stress and area of the tie-rod appear in the above equation it is necessary to assume an area and then compute the value of S_t. If this produces a unit stress in the tie-rod differing greatly from the allowable value, a new trial must be made. Having found the stress in the tie-rod, the resulting stresses in the truss-members can be found graphically from a stress-diagram which will be of the form shown in Fig. 58B, which was constructed for a horizontal force of 1 000 lb. The stresses can be found, also, by multiplying the stresses produced by one pound by the value of S_t. The stresses produced by S_t combined algebraically with those obtained from Fig. 58A give the final stresses. These stresses differ but little from those which obtain for a TWO-HINGED ARCH of the form shown in Fig. 58, and such structures with the TIE-ROD are often classed as TWO-HINGED ARCHES.

Assumption of Areas. Since the DEFLECTION of the truss shown in Fig. 58 depends upon the AREAS of the members, it is evident that they must be either known or assumed before the formulas for D or S_t can be applied. For a new structure the AREAS are of course unknown and the problem of determining the stresses becomes one which is sometimes classed as CUT-AND-TRY. For the first trial, the areas may be assumed as unity and the corresponding value of S_t found and then the combined stresses. The members may now be designed as to area and a new trial made with these areas. Usually the second trial is sufficient, as a slight change in areas does not materially affect the values of S_t.

9. Trussed Arches

Symmetrical Trussed Arches. The THREE-HINGED ARCH is the simplest form of TRUSSED ARCH, and, as used in buildings, it is usually symmetrical in form, consisting of two trusses connected by a pin over the middle of the span and resting on a pin at each support. The stresses in the truss-members are found by the ordinary graphical methods after the reactions have been determined.

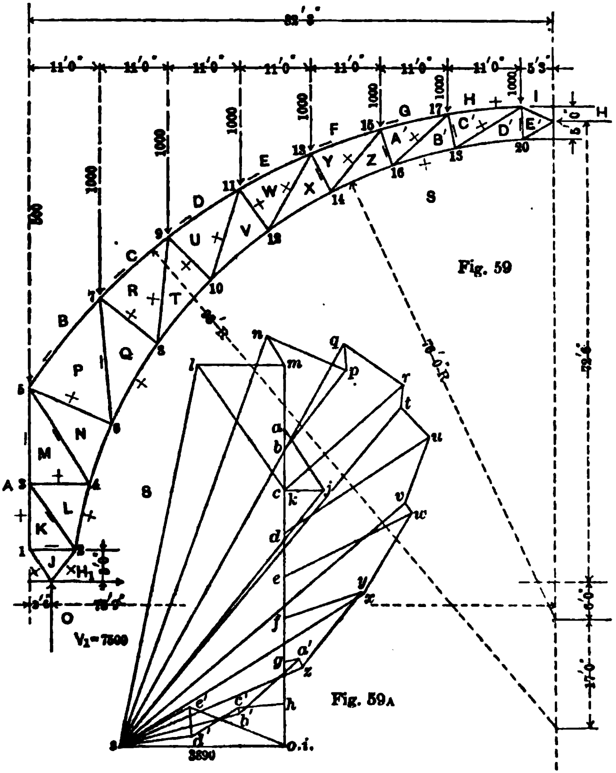

Fig. 59. Three-hinged Arch. Truss-diagram
Fig. 59A. Stress-diagram

The SUPPORTING FORCES are inclined and may be resolved into two components, one vertical and the other horizontal. For symmetrical loading the two reactions are equal in magnitude. The vertical components are each equal to one-half the vertical loading. The horizontal components are equal in magnitude and opposite in character. The following examples illustrate the methods to be followed in the determination of the stresses.

Trussed Three-hinged Arch. **Example 36.** Fig. 59 shows one-half of a TRUSSED THREE-HINGED ARCH with a vertical load of 1 000 lb per top-chord joint. Fig. 59A shows the stress-diagram for this loading; but before it can be drawn, the vertical and horizontal reactions at the left support must be determined. The vertical reaction is (7 × 1 000) + 500 = 7 500 lb or one-half the vertical load. The horizontal component or the HORIZONTAL THRUST of the arch may be found by moments. The center of moments will be taken at the middle pin at the crown as at this point the moment is zero. The equation of moments is $H_1 \times 72.5 + 1\,000\,(5.25 + 16.25 + 27.25 + 38.25 + 49.25 + 60.25 + 71.25)$

$$+ 500 \times 82.25 - 7\,500 \times 78.75 = 0,$$

or

$$H_1 = 281\,750 \div 72.5 = 3\,886 \text{ lb}$$

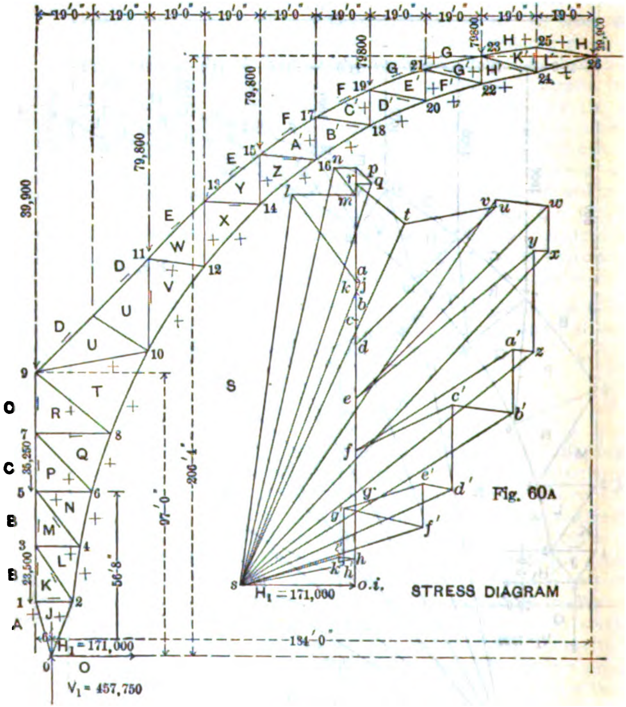

Fig. 60. Liberal Arts Building, Chicago, Ill. Truss-diagram
Fig. 60A. Stress-diagram

Having determined V_1 and H_1, the stress-diagram shown in Fig. 59A can be readily constructed. Since the arch is symmetrical, it is necessary to draw but one-half the stress-diagram. If the right half of the arch is removed and in its place a horizontal force applied at the middle pin, the magnitude of this force is equal to the HORIZONTAL THRUST H_1, since, for equilibrium, the algebraic sum of the horizontal forces is zero.

Trussed Three-hinged Arch. **Example 37.** Fig. 60 represents one-half of a TRUSSED THREE-HINGED ARCH used in the Liberal Arts Building of the Columbian Exposition, Chicago, Ill., 1893. (See Engineering Record, July 9, 1892.) Fig. 60A is the stress-diagram for the loading shown in Fig. 60.

Combination of Stresses. In Examples 35 and 36 only the effect of vertical loads has been considered. Where THREE-HINGED ARCHES are employed they must be designed to carry dead, snow and wind-loads. The dead and snow-loads are vertical loads but the snow-load is not symmetrical in all cases. The wind-load is usually considered as acting normal to the roof. In order to be sure that the maximum stresses are obtained, the stresses for the following conditions of loading must be found and combined.

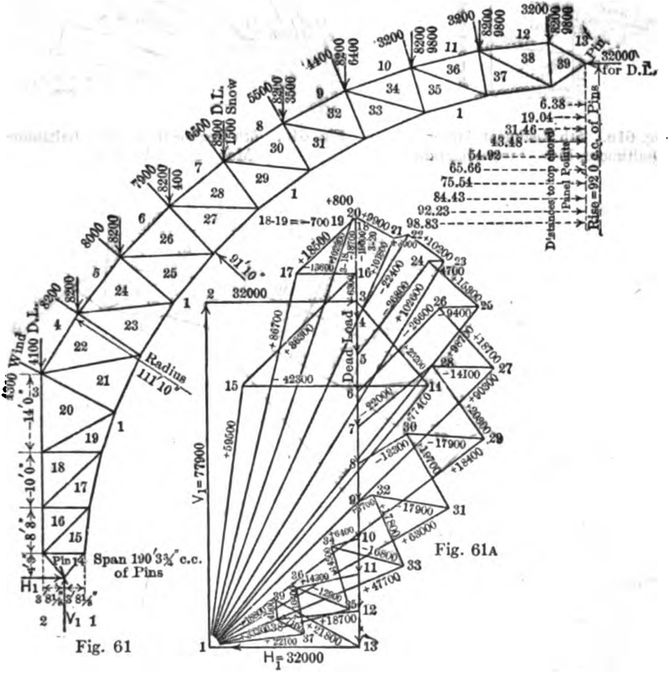

Fig. 61. 5th Regiment Armory, Baltimore, Md. Truss-diagram
Fig. 61A. Stress-diagram

(a) For DEAD LOAD only,
(b) For SNOW-LOAD covering left half of roof,
(c) For SNOW-LOAD covering right half of roof,
(d) For WIND-LOAD acting normal to roof on left of center,
(e) For WIND-LOAD acting normal to roof on right of center.

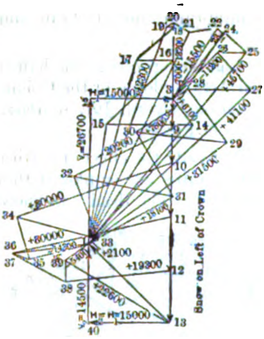

Fig. 61B. 5th Regiment Armory, Baltimore, Md. Stress-diagram

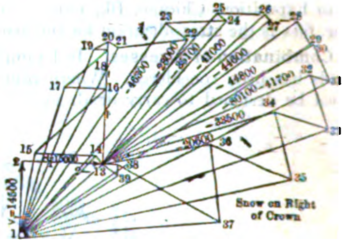

Fig. 61C. 5th Regiment Armory, Baltimore, Md. Stress-diagram

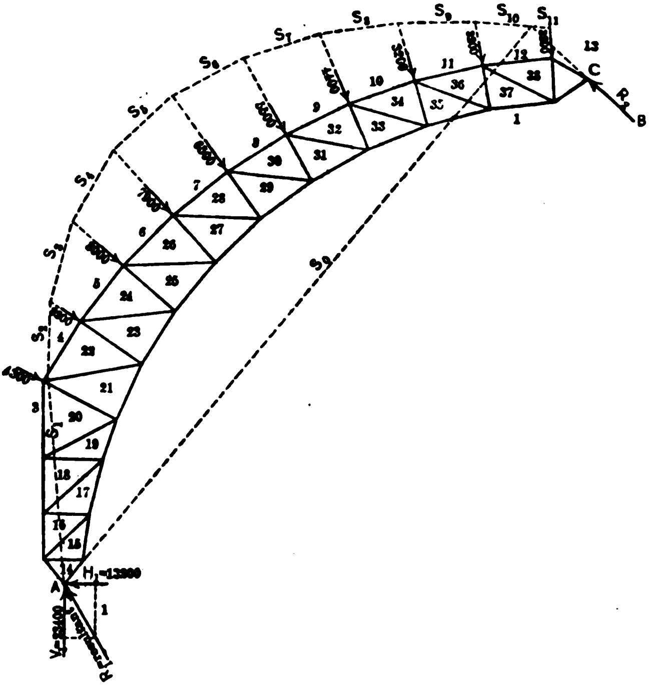

Fig. 61D. 5th Regiment Armory, Baltimore, Md. Truss-diagram

The stresses for the above conditions of loading are to be found for one-half of the arch. In combining the stresses those which occur at the same time are to be used in determining maximums. Many engineers do not consider snow and wind-loads acting on the same portion of the roof simultaneously.

Trussed Three-hinged Arch. Example 38. Fig. 61 shows one-half of a TRUSSED THREE-HINGED ARCH with the dead, snow and wind-loads indicated at each of the upper-chord joints. This form of truss supports the roof of the 5th Regiment Armory, Baltimore, Md., described in the Engineering Record of May 14, 1904. The stresses for the loadings specified above will be determined and it will be shown how these are to be combined.

Dead-Load Stresses. The reactions are obtained by the method used in Example 35. V_1 is 77 900 lb and H_1 32 000 lb. Fig. 61A is the stress-diagram for the members shown in Fig. 61.

Snow on Left Half of Span. Assuming that the snow covers the portion of the arch shown in Fig. 61 and taking the center of moments at the middle pin, it is found by moments that V_1 is equal to 26 700 lb and H_1 is equal to 15 000 lb. Beginning at the support the stress-diagram shown in Fig. 61B is readily drawn.

Snow on Right Half of Span. With the snow on the right of the crown, the portion of the span shown in Fig. 61 is unloaded. The total snow-load is 41 200 lb and it has just been found that the vertical reaction at the support adjacent to the loading is 26 700 lb; hence the vertical reaction at the other support is 41 200 less 26 700 lb or 14 500 lb or V_1 for the case considered. Since the moment at the middle pin is zero, V_1 (half the span) less H_1 (rise of the arch) equals zero, or $14\,500 \times 95.16 - H_1 \times 92.0 = 0$; and $H_1 = (14\,500 \times 95.16) \div 92 = 15\,000$ lb which is the same as found above. As before, beginning at the left support, the stress-diagram is constructed as shown in Fig. 61C.

Snow Covering Entire Span. The algebraic sum of the stresses found from the two cases above for snow-loads will give the stresses produced by a snow-load covering the entire span.

Wind-Load on Left of Crown. Here no two of the loads are parallel. This condition increases the labor in finding the reactions. These may be computed by moments, but a graphical method is found more convenient. The direction and magnitude of the resultant of the wind-forces are first found by graphics. As shown in Fig. 61E, the wind-loads are laid off in order. Then 3–13 is the direction and magnitude of the resultant. Next, from any point O draw the strings S_1, S_2, S_3, etc., and construct the equilibrium polygon shown in Fig. 61D, beginning by drawing string S_1 from A, and so on until string S_{11} cuts the line BC passing through the middle pin and the pin at the right support. This is the direction of the reaction at the right support. In Fig. 61E, from 13 draw a line parallel to BC and from O a line parallel to S_6 in Fig. 61B, and prolong them until they meet at 1. Then 1–3 is the reaction at A and 13–1 that at the right support. Resolving these into vertical and horizontal components, V_1 equals 23 400 lb, H_1 equals 13 200 lb, V_2 equals 18 000 lb and H_2 equals 18 600 lb. Fig. 61F shows the stress-diagram from the left support up to the crown.

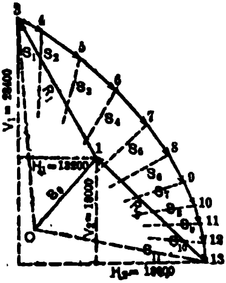

Fig. 61E. 5th Regiment Armory, Baltimore, Md. Force-polygon

Wind-Load on Right of Crown. Since the reaction at A, Fig. 61D, produced by this load, must pass through the hinges, or pins A and C, the stress-diagram will be exactly similar in shape to that shown in Fig. 61c; but the values of V_2 and H_2 will be 18 000 lb and 18 600 lb respectively. The stresses will bear a direct proportion to the stresses found from Fig. 61c, and hence a new diagram is not necessary.

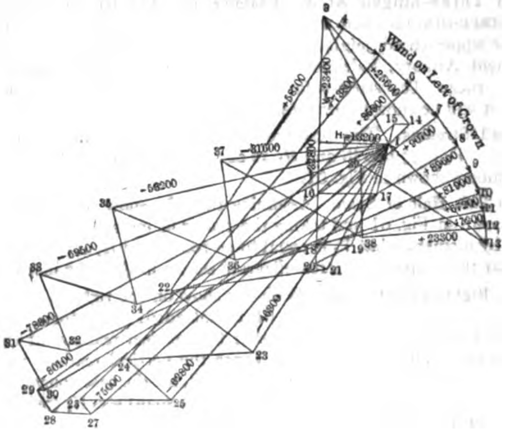

Fig. 61f. 5th Regiment Armory, Baltimore, Md. Stress-diagram

Combination of Stresses. The maximum stresses may now be determined. To illustrate the method, consider the lower chord 1–37.

	lb
(*a*) DEAD-LOAD stress,	+ 22 100
(*b*) SNOW on left of crown,	− 14 300
(*c*) SNOW on right of crown,	+ 37 800
(*d*) WIND-LOAD on left of crown,	− 31 600
(*e*) WIND-LOAD on right of crown,	+ 46 900
(*f*) SNOW over all,	+ 23 500
Total stress without wind,	+ 59 900
(*a*) + (*e*),	+ 69 000
(*a*) + (*d*),	− 9 500

The maximum stresses are 69 000 lb compression and 9 500 lb tension, assuming that the wind and snow-loads are not considered to act on the same side of the crown. If no such restriction is made, the maximum stresses are 106 800 lb compression and 23 800 lb tension. In a like manner the maximum stress in each member of the truss is determined. Tables XIX and XX give the MAXIMUM STRESS for the members shown in Fig. 61.

Stress-Diagrams for Three-hinged Arches. The STRESS-DIAGRAMS in the above cases are very difficult to construct owing to the great number of lines and the difficulty in drawing them exactly parallel to the lines of the truss-diagram. One or more members should be computed as a check on the graphical work.

Three-hinged Arch with Tie-Rod. The introduction of a TIE-ROD connecting the end-pins of a THREE-HINGED ARCH and placing ROLLERS under one end practically changes the ARCH into a SIMPLE TRUSS composed of three members, two trussed rafters and a horizontal tie. Under vertical loading, the supporting forces are vertical, but for wind-loads the supporting force at the end without rollers is inclined. The stresses in the truss-members are the same as found above for the THREE-HINGED ARCH. The stress in the tie-rod equals the horizontal thrust found above at the roller-end for the given loading. The support at the roller-end is designed for vertical forces only, while the support at the other end must resist the vertical reaction and the total horizontal component of the forces acting on the structure, or for roofs the horizontal component of the wind-forces. This is very much smaller than the horizontal force which must be resisted when the structure is without a tie-rod or a true THREE-HINGED ARCH.

Table XIX. Three-hinged Arch. Chord-Stresses

Thousand pounds

Member, Fig. 61	Dead load, Fig. 61A	Snow on left of crown, Fig. 61B	Snow on right of crown, Fig. 61C	Snow over all the roof	Wind on left of crown, Fig. 61F	Wind on right of crown,* Fig. 61G	Max. stresses	
							Tension	Compression
3-14	+ 25.2	+ 6.1	− 2.1	+ 4.0	+25.6	− 2.6	....	50.8
3-16	− 6.3	− 7.0	−14.0	− 21.0	+32.8	−17.4	30.7	26.5
3-18	− 18.7	−13.2	−21.4	− 34.6	+42.6	−26.5	58.4	23.9
3-20	− 19.0	−13.9	−22.8	− 36.7	+45.8	−28.3	61.2	26.8
4-22	− 22.4	−15.5	−28.0	− 43.5	+58.7	−34.7	72.6	36.3
5-24	− 26.8	−15.8	−35.1	− 50.9	+73.8	−43.5	86.1	47.0
6-26	− 26.6	−11.2	−41.0	− 42.2	+85.3	−50.8	88.6	58.7
7-28	− 22.0	− 3.9	−44.6	− 48.5	+90.7	−55.3	81.2	68.7
8-30	− 13.3	+ 7.8	−44.8	− 37.0	+89.6	−55.6	68.9	76.3
9-32	− 3.7	+20.2	−41.7	− 21.5	+81,9	−51.7	55.4	78.2
10-34	+ 6.4	+30.0	−33.5	− 3.5	+67,2	−41.5	35.1	73.6
11-36	+ 14.3	+30.0	−20.6	+ 9.4	+47,2	−25.5	11.2	61.5
12-38	+ 18.7	+19,3	− 2.8	+ 16.5	+23.3	− 3.5	....	42.0
13-39	+ 21.8	+22,6	− 3.3	+ 19.3	+27,8	− 4.1	....	49.6
1-39	+ 18.8	− 5,4	+21.9	+ 16.5	− 6,7	+27.2	....	46.0
1-37	+ 22.1	−14.3	+37.8	+ 23.5	−31.6	+46.9	9.5	69.0
1-35	+ 33.3	−11.3	+51.9	+ 40.6	−53.2	+66.0	19.9	99.3
1-33	+ 47.7	+ 2.1	+61.0	+ 63.1	−69.5	+75.6	21,8	125,4
1-31	+ 63.0	+18.1	+64.8	+ 82.9	−78.3	+80.4	15.3	161.5
1-29	+ 18,4	+31.5	+65.1	+ 96.6	−80.1	+80.7	61.7	130.6
1-27	+ 99,3	+41.7	+61.8	+102.9	−75,0	+76.6	....	208.0
1-25	+ 98.7	+45,7	+55.8	+101.5	−63.8	+69.2	....	213.6
1-23	+102.6	+46.0	+48.5	+ 94.5	−46.3	+60.1	....	208.7
1-21	+101.8	+42.9	+40.0	+ 82.9	−26.0	+49.6	....	194.3
1-19	+102.3	+42.3	+37.9	+ 80.2	−20.3	+47.0	....	191.6
1-17	+ 86.7	+34.8	+29.3	+ 67.7	− 9.6	+36.3	....	157.8
1-15	+ 59.5	+22.4	+16.4	+ 38.6	+ 3.9	+20.1	....	102.0
1-14	+ 77.4	+29.2	+21.0	+ 50.2	+ 5.2	+26.0	....	132.6

* By proportion, 18 600 : 15 000.

Tie-Rod and no Rollers. If the ROLLERS are omitted and a TIE-ROD is used, the stress in the tie-rod and the reactions are indeterminate. They depend upon the relative rigidities of the tie-rod and the material composing the supports. If the tie-rod is made very heavy so that its stretch will be very small when stressed, the stresses in all members of the structure may be taken the same as found for the condition where rollers are used, and the horizontal component of the wind-load equally divided between the supports.

Table XX. Three-hinged Arch. Web-Stresses

Thousand pounds

Member, Fig. 61	Dead load, Fig. 61A	Snow on left of crown, Fig. 61B	Snow on right of crown, Fig. 61C	Snow over all the roof	Wind on left of crown, Fig. 61F	Wind on right of crown,* Fig. 61C	Max. stresses	
							Tension	Compression
39-38	− 4.9	− 3.8	+ 2.1	− 1.7	−13.7	+ 2.6	16.5	....
36-37	+10.4	+ 0.3	+14.5	+14.8	−18.5	+18.0	8.1	28.7
34-35	+14.5	+ 8.3	+13.0	+21.3	−18.6	+16.1	4.1	38.9
32-33	+17.8	+12.7	+10.6	+23.3	−15.4	+13.1	....	43.6
30-31	+19.7	+13.8	+ 7.6	+21.4	−10.7	+ 9.4	....	42.9
28-29	+20.3	+12.3	+ 4.7	+17.0	− 4.9	+ 5.8	....	38.4
26-27	+18.7	+ 9.3	+ 1.2	+10.5	+ 3.4	+ 1.5	....	29.5
24-25	+15.3	+ 5.4	− 1.8	+ 3.6	+10.8	− 2.2	....	26.1
22-23	+10.2	+ 1.5	− 5.1	− 3.6	+19.0	− 6.3	....	29.2
20-21	+ 9.9	+ 3.5	+ 2.0	+ 5.5	+ 2.4	+ 2.5	....	15.9
18-19	− 0.7	− 9.3	− 2.7	−12.0	+ 6.6	− 3.3	13.3	5.9
16-17	−13.6	− 6.8	− 8.1	−14.9	+10.9	−10.0	30.4	....
14-15	−42.3	−15.9	−11.4	−27.3	+ 2.8	−14.1	72.3	....
37-38	− 7.1	+11.2	−22.0	−10.8	+29.8	−27.3	23.2	22.7
35-36	−12.9	− 3.5	−16.3	−19.8	+24.9	−20.2	36.6	12.0
33-34	−16.8	−15.8	−10.4	−26.2	+18.8	−12.9	45.5	2.0
31-32	−17 9	−19.2	− 4.2	−23.4	+10.0	− 5.2	42.3	....
29-30	−17.9	−17.0	+ 0.6	−16.4	+ 1.4	+ 0.7	34.9	....
27-28	−14.1	−11.6	+ 5.0	− 6.6	− 7.4	+ 6.2	25.7	....
25-26	− 9.4	− 5.3	+ 8.7	+ 3.4	−17.0	+10.8	26.4	1.4
23-24	− 4.7	+ 0.4	+11.0	+11.4	−23.3	+13.6	28.0	9.3
21-22	+ 3.0	+ 5.2	+13.1	+18.3	−29.5	+16.2	26.5	24.4
19-20	+ 0.8	+ 1.6	+ 3.1	+ 4.7	− 7.4	+ 3.8	6.6	6.2
17-18	+18.5	+ 9.2	+10.9	+20.1	−14.8	+13.5	....	41.2
15-16	+36.3	+16.8	+17.8	+34.6	−19.1	+22.1	....	75.2

* By proportion, 18 600 : 15 000.

Changes in Temperature do not seriously affect the stresses in the members of a TRUE THREE-HINGED ARCH, or one with a tie-rod and rollers at one end, as the change in geometrical shape is quite small. For the arch with a tie-rod and no rollers, the effect of changes in temperature may affect the supporting forces if the tie-rod is not so protected that it will change but little from its average temperature. In most structures this is the case as the tie-rod is in or under the floor of the building.

The Two-hinged Arch differs essentially in construction from the THREE-HINGED ARCH in having only two pins or hinges which are placed at the supports. Fig. 62 shows the form of truss which will be used in explaining the method for finding the stresses in the members of the truss.

Supporting Forces. The SUPPORTING FORCES are inclined but can be resolved into vertical and horizontal components. The vertical components are readily found as they are the same as for a simple truss on two supports. The horizontal components depend upon the AREAS of the members and their MODULI OF ELASTICITY when the dimensions of the truss and the loading are known.

Horizontal Thrust for Vertical Loads. This can be found from the formula

$$H_1 = \sum \frac{Sul}{AE} \div \sum \frac{u^2 l}{AE}$$

where the symbols have the significance given on page 1086. But this contains the unknown area A for each piece. For a preliminary trial the procedure is as follows: In the truss shown in Fig. 62, divide the span into twenty equal parts and at the centers of the divisions erect verticals. Through the points on these verticals, midway between the chords of the truss, draw a smooth curve as shown. This line will be designated the AXIS OF THE ARCH. Number the points designated above, 1, 2, 3, etc., as shown in Fig. 62, and let x and y be their coördinates with the left support as the origin. Scale the length of the curve between the centers of the divisions so that y is practically the ordinate of the center of the short length of curve, and call this length of the curve δs. On a radial line at each point numbered 1, 2, 3, etc., scale the distances between the upper and lower chords, calling the distance h and compute $\frac{1}{2} h^2 = I$, which expresses, approximately, the MOMENT OF INERTIA of the section when the chord-areas are unity and the web-members are neglected. Let M represent the BENDING MOMENT at any point having the abscissa x, of the loads, considering the truss as a simple beam on two supports; or, for a single load P, $M = Rx - P(x - a)$, x being greater than a, where a is the distance of the load P from the left support. Then if $\delta s \div EI$ is represented by ϕ the HORIZONTAL THRUST can be found from the formula,

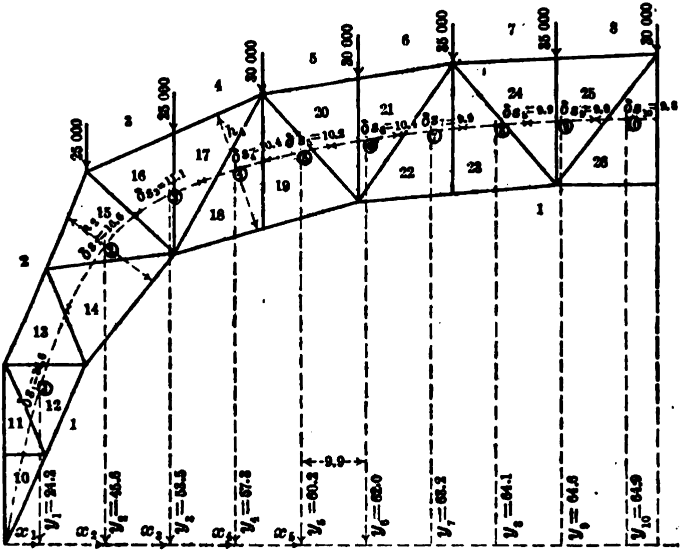

Fig. 62. Two-hinged Arch. Truss-diagram

$$H_1 = \Sigma My\phi \div \Sigma y^2\phi$$

For the vertical loading shown in Fig. 62, the value of H_1 is 108 000 lb, and V_1, being one-half the total load, is 195 000 lb. The stresses in the members of the truss can now be found by the usual graphical method. The snow-load, if any, must be treated in a like manner. The computations are considerably shorter, since $\Sigma y^2\phi$ remains unchanged, regardless of the loading.

Wind-Loads. For WIND-LOADS the process is not changed very much. The value of M is the moment of the wind-loads, assuming the truss as HINGED at the right support and on ROLLERS at the left support. The value of V_1, which is vertical, is found by taking the sum of the moments of the wind-loads about the hinge at the right support and dividing this by the length of the span. The value of H_1 is found from the formula given above, and then the stresses are found by the ordinary stress-diagram. The MAXIMUM STRESSES are now found and the proper AREAS of the members determined.

The True Horizontal Thrust. The method just given is a close approximation to determine the AREAS of the pieces so that the correct formula for H_1 can be applied. This formula is

$$H_1 = \sum \frac{Sul}{AE} \div \sum \frac{u^2l}{AE}$$

where the symbols have the meaning already given. Applying this formula for the dead load shown in Fig. 62 and AREAS shown in Fig. 58, the value of H_1 is 110 600 lb, which is but little different from the value found by the approximate method.

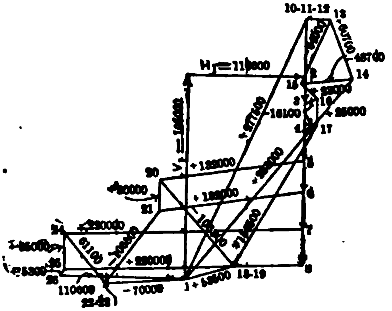

Fig. 62A. Two-hinged Arch. Stress-diagram

Dead-Load Stresses. The stress-diagram for the DEAD LOAD is shown in Fig. 62A. Considerable care must be exercised in drawing the stress-diagrams, and their correctness should be checked by computing the stresses in one or more pieces. Compare Fig. 62A with Fig. 58A.

Changes in Temperature. Unlike the THREE-HINGED ARCH the TWO-HINGED ARCH is affected by CHANGES IN TEMPERATURE and the stresses which are produced by such changes must be provided for. $V_1 = O$ and H_1 is determined from the formula

$$H_1 = et^\circ L \div \sum \frac{u^2l}{AE}$$

where e is the COEFFICIENT OF EXPANSION for the material composing the truss, t° the number of degrees CHANGE IN TEMPERATURE and L the SPAN of the truss. The other symbols have the significance already given. The above formula assumes that the truss-members are of the same kind of material. After H_1 has been found, the stresses can be determined by constructing the stress-diagram which will be of the shape shown in Fig 58B.

Tie-Rod. If a TIE-ROD connects the two supports of a TWO-HINGED ARCH the remarks made concerning such an arrangement for the THREE-HINGED ARCH apply here.

The Fixed Arch has no hinges and is a type which is seldom employed by architects in the truss-form. The rigid analysis of a TRUSSED FIXED ARCH is very long and tedious, so a few formulas will be given, necessary for the solution of ARCHES WITH SOLID WEBS, such as PLATE-GIRDER ARCHES. These formulas may be applied to truss-forms, where the chords are approximately parallel, without serious error. Midway between the top and bottom chords draw a smooth curve, called the ARCH-AXIS, and designate the distance between its ends as L or the SPAN OF THE AXIS. Divide the span into n equal parts and at the centers of these divisions draw perpendiculars until they cut the arch-axis.

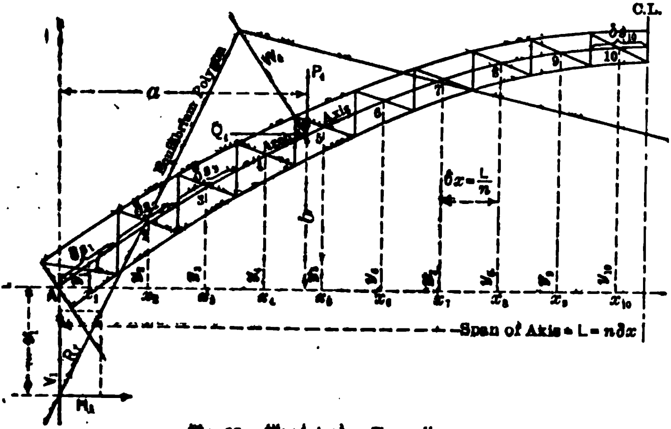

Fig. 63. Fixed Arch. Truss-diagram

Number the points 1, 2, 3, etc., as shown by Fig. 63, which also indicates the nomenclature employed.

Determination of H_1, V_1 and H_1y_1. The equilibrium-polygon for a single inclined load is shown in Fig. 63, in its true position with reference to the arch-axis. This locates the point of application of H_1. The following formulas are very close approximations for arches having a rise greater than one-eighth the span.

$$H_1 = \Sigma m_x A'' \div \Sigma y A''$$

$$A'' = K\left\{y - \frac{\Sigma yK}{\Sigma K}\right\} \qquad K = \frac{\delta s}{EI}$$

$$\left.\begin{matrix} H_1y_1 \\ H_2y_2 \end{matrix}\right\} = H_1\frac{\Sigma yK}{\Sigma K} - \left\{\frac{\Sigma m_xK}{\Sigma K} \pm \frac{\Sigma m_xK\,(z-n)}{n^2\Sigma K - \Sigma z^2K}\,n\right\}$$

$$V_1 = \frac{H_1y_1 - H_2y_2}{L} + r_1 \qquad y_1 = \frac{H_1y_1}{H_1}$$

y_1 is measured down from A when H_1y_1 is negative. Σ is the sum of quantities it governs for each point on the arch-axis numbered 1, 2, 3, . . . n. For example

$$\Sigma K = \left(\frac{\delta s}{EI}\right)_1 + \left(\frac{\delta s}{EI}\right)_2 + \left(\frac{\delta s}{EI}\right)_3 + \text{etc.}$$

I is the moment of inertia of the chords about an axis midway between them. The sections of the chords are to be taken on radial lines passing through points 1, 2, 3, etc. x and y are the coördinates of the points 1, 2, 3, etc, in Fig. 63

$$x = z\frac{\delta x}{2} = z\frac{L}{2n}$$

m_x is the moment at the point on the arch-axis having the abscissa x, assuming that the given loading is supported by the axis hinged at the right end and on rollers at the left end. r_1 is the reaction at the left support under the conditions specified for m_x. In the above formulas the only terms which depend upon the loading are those containing m_x and r_1, the others being constant for any given arch. While but one load has been used, any number may be used by considering m_x and r_1 as the sum of the respective quantities for each load.

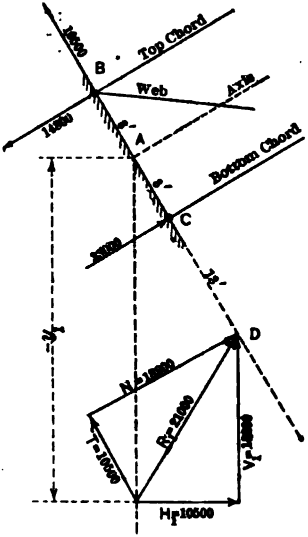

Fig. 64. Fixed Arch. Reactions

Stresses. The STRESSES in the truss-members can be found by the ordinary graphical methods when H_1, V_1 and H_1y_1 are known. For example, assume the numerical values shown in Fig. 64. The resultant of V_1 and H_1 is resolved into two components parallel and perpendicular to the bottom-chord member at the support. Then T must act at the upper-chord joint as shown. The two reactions parallel to the bottom chord are found by moments. The stress-diagram can now be drawn beginning with these forces and proceeding until the right support is reached.

Symmetrical Loading. When the loading is symmetrical, $H_1y_1 = H_2y_2$ and hence $V_1 = r_1$. Also

$$H_1y_1 = H_1\frac{\Sigma yK}{\Sigma K} - \frac{\Sigma m_xK}{\Sigma K}$$

Changes of Temperature. For temperature-changes,

$$H_t = et^\circ L + \Sigma yA''$$

$$H_1y_1 = H_2y_2 = H_t\frac{\Sigma yK}{\Sigma K}$$

$$y_1 = \frac{\Sigma yK}{\Sigma K} \qquad V_1 = 0$$

10. Arches with Solid Ribs

Arches with Solid Ribs. While this chapter considers TRUSSES only, it may not be out of place to briefly consider ARCHES HAVING SOLID RIBS. The computations for V_1, H_1 and H_1y_1 remain unchanged, excepting that I now is the moment of inertia of the radial section of the rib at points 1, 2, 3, etc.

Fiber-Stresses. If x and y are the coördinates of any point on the gravity-axis of the rib, which should coincide with the arch-axis, the bending moment at this point is, for each load,

$$M_x = H_1y_1 + V_1x - H_1y - P\overset{x>a}{(x-a)} - Q\overset{x>b}{(y-b)}$$

H_1y_1 is negative when y_1 is measured below A in Fig. 64.

$$S = \frac{M_xc}{I}$$

where c is the distance from the gravity-axis to the outermost fiber. For the TWO and THREE-HINGED ARCHES, $H_1y_1 = 0$.

Radial Shear. Let H_x be the algebraic sum of all the horizontal components on the left of the section, V_x the algebraic sum of all the vertical components on the left of the section and θ the angle which the radial section, upon which the shear is wanted, makes with the vertical. Then $T_x = V_x \cos\theta - H_x \sin\theta$.

Two-hinged Parabolic Arch. If the center line of the SOLID RIB is a PARABOLA, when $EI \cos\theta$ is a constant, the following simple formulas give the values of V_1 and H_1:

$$V_1 = P(1-k) - Q\frac{4f}{L}k(1-k)$$

$$H_1 = \frac{5}{8}\frac{L}{f}P[k(1-2k^2+k^3)] - Q\left\{1 - \frac{k}{2}[5(1-k-2k^2+4k^3) - 8k^4]\right\}$$

and

$$H_t = \frac{15}{8f^2}EI_0et^\circ$$

in which $k = a + L$ (Fig. 63), f is the rise of the axis, P is the vertical load acting down, Q is the horizontal load acting from left to right and I_0 is the moment of inertia of the section of the rib at the crown.

Fixed Parabolic Arch. In like manner the following formulas apply for the arch without hinges:

$$V = P(1-k)^2(1+2k) - \frac{12f}{L}Q(k-k^2)^2$$

$$H_1 = \frac{15L}{4f}Pk^2(1-k)^2 - Q\left\{1 + k^2(-15 + 50k - 60k^2 + 24k^3)\right\}$$

$$H_1y_1 = \frac{L}{2}Pk(1-k)^2(5k-2) - fQ\left\{2k(1-k)^2(2-7k+8k^2)\right\}$$

$$H_t = \frac{45}{4f}EI_0et^\circ \qquad H_ty_1 = \frac{15}{2f}EI_0et^\circ$$

The values of the factors containing k in the above formulas are given in tabular form in A Treatise on Arches.*

Circular Arches, with solid ribs of constant cross-section and the center line an arc of a circle, may be considered by using formulas somewhat similar to those given for PARABOLIC ARCHES but very much longer and more complex. Formulas and tables for their solution are given in the treatise on arches referred to above.

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* A Treatise on Arches, by Malverd A. Howe, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York.

11, Influence-Lines for Simple Beams and Trusses

An Influence-Line is a line showing the variation in any function at any section of a beam or for any member of a truss, caused by a single load moving across the span. For convenience the LOAD is usually considered as UNITY.

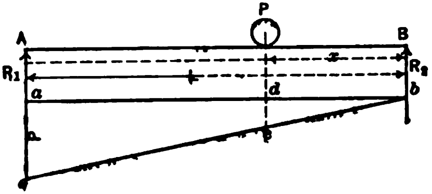

Fig. 65. Influence-lines. Reactions for Beams

Reaction for a Single Load. If the load P, Fig. 65, moves from A towards B, the left reaction, when P is distant x from B, is expressed algebraically by $R_1 = Px + L$, which is an equation of a straight line. If $x = 0$, $R_1 = 0$, and if $x = L$, $R_1 = P$. If we make $ac = P$ and draw the two straight lines ab and cb, the ordinate de immediately below P is the value of R_1 for this position of P. If ac = unity, then $R_1 = P$ (de).

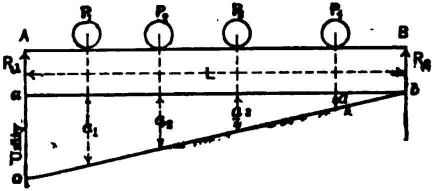

Fig. 66. Influence-lines. Reactions for Beams

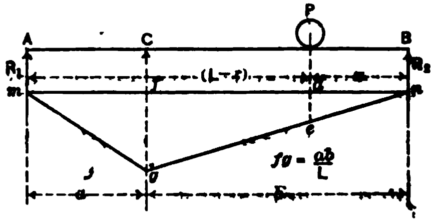

Fig. 67. Influence-lines. Moments for Beams

Reaction for More than One Load. The reaction for any number of concentrated loads can be found as shown in Fig. 66.

$$R_1 = P_1a_1 + P_2a_2 + P_3a_3 + P_4a_4$$

Bending Moment for a Single Load. The moment at C, Fig. 67, when P is on the right of C, is $M = R_1a = \frac{Pxa}{L}$. When the load is at C, $M = P\frac{(a)(b)}{L}$

and when at B, $M = 0$. For all positions of P upon the left of C, $M = R_1 b$ $= P\frac{(L-x)\,b}{L}$. When P is at A, $M = 0$, and when at C, $M = P\frac{(L-b)\,b}{L}$ $= P\frac{(a)\,(b)}{L}$. If in Fig. 67 the figure mng is drawn with $fg = \frac{(a)\,(b)}{L}$, then the moment at C for any load in any position is $P\,(de)$.

Bending Moment for Any Number of Concentrated Loads. The moment at the point C for the loading shown in Fig. 68 is $M = P_1a_1 + P_2a_2 + P_3a_3 + P_4a_4$. This gives the moment at C for a given position of the loads, but this is not necessarily the GREATEST MOMENT which these loads may cause, as some other position may cause a greater moment. The greatest moment at C will obtain when some concentration is at C. Let P be this concentration and assume it to be divided into two parts, nP and mP so that $n + m = 1$, and n is greater than zero and less than 1. The maximum moment at C will occur when

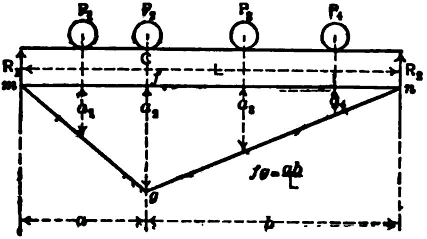

Fig. 68. Influence-lines. Moments for Beams

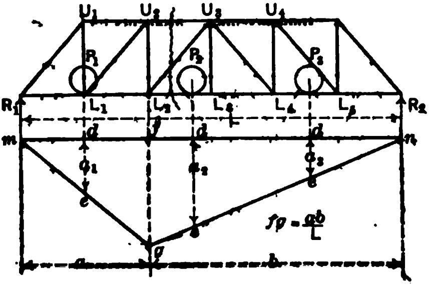

Fig. 69. Influence-lines. Moments for Trusses

$$\frac{P_1 + P_2 + P_3 + P_4}{L} = \frac{P_1 + nP_2}{a}$$

The point in the beam where any given moving load causes the GREATEST POSSIBLE MOMENT is so situated that the middle of the span is half-way between it and the center of gravity of the load. Since a concentration will always be at the point, a few trials will determine the proper concentration to use. For example, two equal concentrated loads should be placed on the beam so that the middle of the span is at the quarter-point between the concentrations. The MAXIMUM MOMENT falls under the concentration nearer the middle of the span.

Chord-Member in Truss with One Set of Web-Members Vertical. In Fig. 69 the top chord member U_2U_3 has its center of moments at L_2 and the bottom chord member L_1L_2 at U_2. The INFLUENCE-DIAGRAM for the moments at L_2 and U_2 is precisely the same as shown in Fig. 67. The moment produced by any load P is P (de). As long as one set of web-members is vertical the INFLUENCE-DIAGRAM will be identical with that shown in Fig. 69, regardless of the inclination of the diagonals or the chord-members.

Chord-Members in Truss with Inclined Web-Members. The moments at points in the loaded chord, Fig. 70, have INFLUENCE-DIAGRAMS identical with

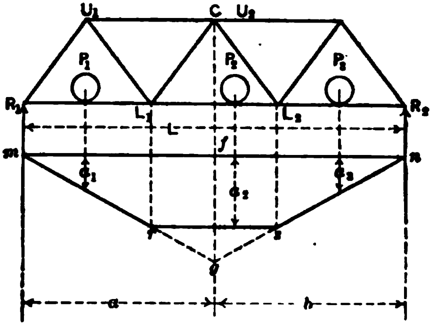

Fig. 70. Influence-lines. Moments for Trusses

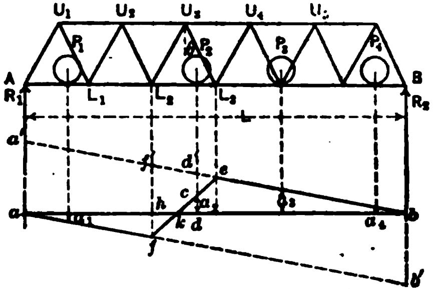

Fig. 71. Influence-lines. Shear for Trusses

that shown by Fig. 69. For the unloaded chord a slight modification must be made. For example let U_2 be a center of moments, then if the loads were on a beam, *mgn* would be the INFLUENCE-DIAGRAM (Fig. 70). For all loads on the left of L_1 and on the right of L_2 the diagram is correct and the moments at $U_2 = P_1a_1$ and P_3a_3. For loads between L_1 and L_2 draw the line *rs*. The moment at U_2 is P_2a_2.

Web-Members of Trusses with Parallel Chords. Fig. 71. The stress in U_3L_3 equals the shear in the panel L_2L_3 multiplied by the secant of θ. The

INFLUENCE-DIAGRAM will be drawn for the shear. For any load between L_3 and B, the shear in this panel equals R_2; hence, with ab as a reference-line, ba' is the INFLUENCE-LINE for R_2 and the shear is P_4a_4, P_3a_3, etc., until the point L_3 is reached. In like manner af is the INFLUENCE-LINE for R_1 and the shear for loads on the left of L_2 is P_1a_1. The shear for the loads P_2 between L_2 and L_3 is R_1 less the amount of P_2 which is transferred to L_2. The INFLUENCE-DIAGRAM for the reactions of P_2 on a span L_2L_3 is $ff'e$. The shear in this panel due to P_2 is P_2 (dd') less P_2 $(d'c)$ or P_2a_2. A load at k produces no shear in the panel.

CHAPTER XXVIII

DESIGN AND CONSTRUCTION OF ROOF-TRUSSES

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1. Design of Wooden Trusses

Proportioning the Members. In Chapter XXVII it has been shown how the STRESSES in the members of a truss, supporting known LOADS, may be found. The next step is to PROPORTION THE MEMBERS for the stresses which they have to resist. The methods employed and the ALLOWABLE UNIT STRESSES are given in detail in Chapters XI to XVI, inclusive. For example, tension-members are considered on pages 385 to 400; steel strut-beams and tie-beams on pages 571 and 572; and wooden strut-beams and tie-beams on page 633. As a matter of convenience the UNIT STRESSES used in this chapter are given in the following table in a condensed form. White pine is here used for the wooden trusses.

Table I. Allowable Unit Stresses Used in Truss-Design *

Material	Kind of stress	Safe unit stress lb per sq in
White pine.........	Tension with the grain..................	700
"	Tension across the grain..................	50
"	Compression on end-fibers..................	1 100
"	Compression across the grain..............	200
"	Compression across the grain, round pins..	200
"	Columns† under 15 diam long............	1 100
"	Shear with the grain..................	100
"	Shear across the grain..................	500
"	Transverse, fiber-stress..................	700
Wrought iron.......	Bolts in tension..................	12 000
"	Bolts in shear..................	7 500
"	Bolts in bearing..................	15 000
"	Bolts in bending, fiber-stress..............	15 000
Rolled steel........	Bolts in tension..................	16 000
"	Bolts in shear..................	10 000
"	Bolts in bearing..................	20 000
"	Bolts in bending, fiber-stress..............	20 000
"	Beams in bending, fiber-stress.............	16 000
"	Beams in shear..................	9 000

* These must be modified, when necessary to comply with building laws. White pine is used for the examples in this chapter because of the difficulties in making the joints owing to the relative softness of the wood. If one can design a truss in white pine he will have no trouble with the design of trusses constructed with other kinds of wood.

† See, also, Table I, page 449, and Table XVI, page 647.

Inclined Surfaces of Wood. The normal intensity of the stress on inclined surfaces may be found from the empirical formula

$$r = q + (p - q)(\theta/90)^2$$

where r equals the permissible normal unit stress on this inclined surface, q that across the fibers, p that on the end of the fibers and θ the angle the inclined surface makes with the direction of the grain. For white pine this gives

$$r = 200 + \theta^2/9$$

Round Pins on End-Fibers.* For all practical purposes the permissible unit stress may be taken as the mean of p and q; or, for white pine

$$\tfrac{1}{2}(p + q) = 650 \text{ lb per sq in}$$

Wooden Columns over Fifteen Diameters Long. The formula† used in this chapter and considered amply conservative by many engineers is the formula approved by the American Railway Engineering and Maintenance of Way Association in 1907. For white pine this formula is

$$S_1 = S\,(1 - l/60\,d) = 1100\,(1 - l/60\,d)$$

where S_1 = the permissible unit stress, S = the permissible compression on the end-fibers, l = the length of the column in inches and d the least dimension of the cross-section of the column in inches.

Steel Columns. For the shapes used in roof-trusses, the formula advocated by C. E. Fowler in his specifications for roof-trusses is used in this chapter:

$$S_1 = 12\,500 - 500\,l/r$$

where S_1 = the permissible unit stress, l = the length of the column in feet, and r = the least radius of gyration of the cross-section of the column.

Example 1. The truss shown in Fig. 1, which is the queen truss shown in Figs. 3, 12, 53 and 54 in Chapter XXVII, is considered for this example. The stresses given in the following table are used. The members RR are wrought-iron round rods, not upset at the ends; and all other members are of white pine. None of the members in this truss is subject to transverse stress, so direct tension and compression only, have to be considered:

Table II. Stresses and Dimensions for the Truss Shown in Figure 1

Member	Stress in pounds	Dimensions
A..................	+21 150	6 by 6-in white pine
B..................	+18 900	6 by 6-in white pine
C..................	+13 200	6 by 6-in white pine
D..................	+ 6 450	4 by 6-in white pine
E..................	+ 5 100	4 by 6-in white pine
N..................	−17 150	6 by 8-in white pine or Three 2 by 8-in pieces with ¾-in bolts, 2 ft on centers
M..................	−12 750	
R..................	− 8 410	One 1¼-in round rod

Vertical Rods, Fig. 1. The tension in each rod is 8 410 lb. If the permissible stress is 12 000 lb, the section-area of each rod is 8 410 ÷ 12 000 = 0.70 sq in. The net area of a 1⅛-in rod is 0.694 sq in; and of a 1¼-in rod, 0.893 sq in. The 1⅛-in rod would answer but the 1¼-in rod is preferred.

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* When the same unit stresses are used for flat and curved surfaces, Tables VII and VIII, pages 430 to 431, of Chapter XII may be used.

† For other formulas and Tables based upon them, see Chapter XIV, pages 449 to 452.

Rafters, Fig. 1. The stress in the rafter at *A* is 21 150 lb and at *B* 18 900 lb; but as it will be made of one piece, the size is governed by the greater stress. The unsupported length is about 9 ft, and assuming the least dimension of the piece to be 6 in, $S_1 = 1\,100\left(1 - \frac{9 \times 12}{60 \times 6}\right) = 770$ lb per sq in. $21\,150/770 = 27.5$ sq in = the area of cross-section required, which is less than that of a 6 by 6-in piece. A 6 by 6-in timber is actually 5½ by 5½-in, with a cross-sectional area of 30.25 sq in, a little in excess of the area required. In general the NOMINAL and STANDARD sizes of timbers differ by about one-half an inch in each cross-dimension.

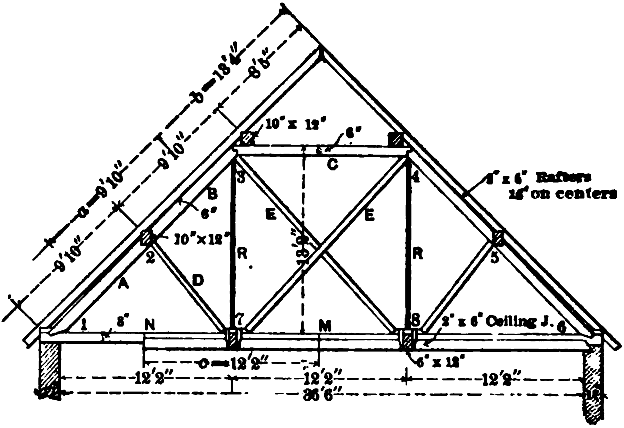

Fig. 1. Queen Truss. (See, also, Figs. 4A, 10, 13 and 16 and Chapter XXVII, Figs. 3, 12, 53 and 54)

Member *C*, Fig. 1. The stress in this member is 13 200 lb and its unsupported length, 12 ft. In this case $l/d = 24$, when $d = 6$ in; $S_1 = 660$ lb per sq in. The required section-area is $13\,200/660 = 20$ sq in, and hence a 6 by 6-in timber is used. The top-chord should have one dimension constant in order to facilitate the making of good connections at the joints.

Braces, Fig. 1. The stress in the brace *D* is 6 450 lb and its unsupported length about 9 ft. A 4 by 6-in timber is first tried. Here $l/d = 27$ and $S_1 = 605$ lb per sq in. The required area, therefore, is 10.7 sq in and a 4 by 4-in timber answers the purpose; but for additional stiffness and convenience in making connections, a 4 by 6-in piece is used. Each brace, *E*, has a stress of 5 100 lb and a total length of 17 ft. If the braces are bolted where they cross the unsupported length may be taken as 8½ ft. It is evident that a 4 by 6-in piece is ample for each brace.

Bottom Chord, or Tie-Beam, Fig. 1. The maximum tension in the bottom-chord is 17 150 lb in *N*. The permissible unit stress is 700 lb per sq in; hence the net section-area required is $17\,150/700 = 24.5$ sq in. A 2 by 12-in plank, if continuous from end to end of the truss and without holes and notches, will take care of the stress alone but will not permit of proper connections. A 6 by 6-in piece is selected, but it may be necessary to substitute for it a 6 by 8-in piece when the connections are made and it is spliced in the middle. If the member is built up of planks, three 2 by 8-in pieces are required; and they must be thoroughly bolted together by a pair of bolts every 2 ft of their length. If 24-ft and 14-ft lengths are used, the joints of the strands will be about 10 ft apart.

Example 2. For this example the truss illustrated in Fig. 2, which is the scissors truss shown in Figs. 4 and 24, Chapter XXVII, is considered. The direct stresses for dead load, wind and snow were found in Chapter XXVII and are given in the following table. The rafters and the bottom chord support loads between the joints and consequently must resist CROSS-BENDING stresses as well as DIRECT STRESSES. The load on each piece is given in the table under the word TRANSVERSE.

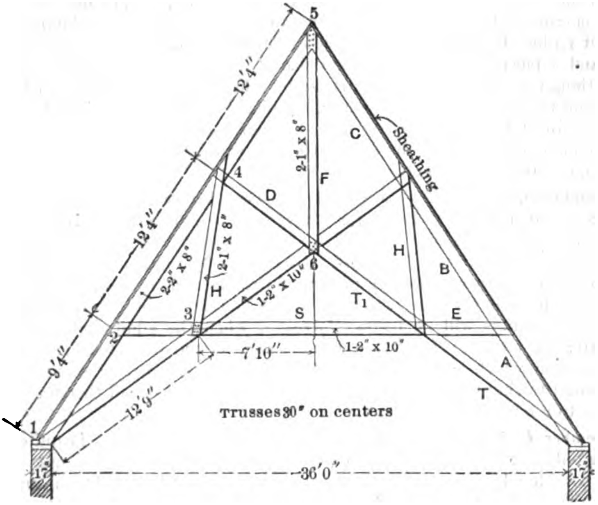

Fig. 2. Scissors Truss. (See, also, Chapter XXVII, Figs. 4 and 24)

Table III. Stresses and Dimensions for the Truss Shown in Figure 2

Member	Stress, lb	Transverse load, lb	Dimensions, white pine
A....................	+8 000	1 000	Two 2 by 8-in planks
B....................	+6 600	1 320	Two 2 by 8-in planks
D....................	+1 890	....	One 2 by 10-in plank
E....................	+ 750	....	One 2 by 10-in plank
F....................	−4 350	....	Two 1 by 8-in planks
H....................	−2 530	....	Two 1 by 8-in planks
S....................	−1 875	470	One 2 by 10-in plank
T....................	−5 400	384	One 2 by 10-in plank
T_1....................	−1 875	....	One 2 by 10-in plank

Rafter *B*, Fig. 2. The piece *B* rather than the piece *A* is considered, as it is considerably longer. The total vertical load on the piece acting as a beam is 1 320 lb and the horizontal span is about 8 ft. The bending moment at the center is ⅛ (1 320 × 8 × 12) = 15 840 in-lb. If the depth of the piece is assumed to be 8 in, the proper thickness is found from the equation, 15 840 = ⅙ Sbd^2 = ⅙ (700 × 8 × 8 × b), or b = 2.12 in. This neglects the component of the vertical load parallel to the rafter. Considering now the direct compression of 6 600 lb and remembering that the sheathing is nailed to the rafter, the least dimension d of the piece is its depth, which may be taken the same as that used for the piece resisting the TRANSVERSE STRESS. The unsupported length of the piece is about 12 ft. Then l/d = 18, S_1 = 770 lb per sq in and the required area of cross-section is 6 600/770 = 8.6 sq in. As the depth is 8 in, the thickness is about 1.1 in. Combining the two pieces, the total thickness is 2.12 + 1.1 = 3.22 in, and a piece having the nominal size of 4 by 8 in is required. Since the sheathing is nailed to the rafters, two 2 by 8-in planks may be used without decreasing the stiffness of the member. While the above method of designing a piece subject to TWO KINDS OF STRESS is not correct for all conditions which occur in practice, the results are on the safe side, and the method has the advantage of being easily applied.

Member *S*, Fig. 2. Considering the transverse load first, the bending moment at the middle is found to be ⅛ (470 × 15.5 × 12) = 10 930 in-lb. If the depth is assumed to be 10 in, the required thickness, found from the equation 10 930 = ⅙ (700 × 10 × 10 × b), is 0.94 in; or, a board 1 by 10 in in cross-sectional area will carry the transverse load if prevented from twisting sidewise, which it has a tendency to do in this case where the ceiling is attached directly to the member. The side-stiffness will be further increased when the additional material for resisting the tension is in place. The net area for the direct tension of 1 875 lb is 2.68 sq in, which requires a board 10 in wide and only a trifle over ¼ in thick. The total thickness becomes 0.94 + 0.27 = 1.21 in, and it will therefore be necessary to use a 2 by 10-in plank.

Member *E*, Fig. 2. This is in compression, but the stress is quite small, being only 750 lb. The possible extension of the 2 by 10-in piece used for *S* is next considered, to find if it can be extended and used here. The unsupported length is about 6 ft, and the least dimension 2 in; hence l/d = 36, S_1 = 440 lb per sq in and the required area of the cross-section becomes less than 2 sq in. The 2 by 10-in piece is therefore ample.

Members *T* and T_1, Fig. 2. Inspection shows that a 2 by 10-in plank is quite sufficient for these pieces.

Member *D*, Fig. 2. The unsupported length is about 7 ft. Then, for d = 2 in, l/d = 42, S_1 = 330 lb per sq in and the required section-area is 1890/330 = 5.73 sq in. A piece 2 by 10 in is more than sufficient; but as this size allows of a simple prolongation of the pieces *T* and T_1, a piece of this dimension is used.

Members *F* and *H*, Fig. 2. For the piece *F* a net area of 4 350/700 = 6.25 sq in is required; or a board 1 by 8 in in cross-section may be used. For convenience in construction, two 1 by 8-in boards are chosen. It is evident that the same arrangement can be made for the piece *H*.

Caution. Since this truss is a SCISSORS TRUSS, the horizontal deflection at the supports should be determined, and, if this is an appreciable quantity, the members as designed above, should be increased in size or their lengths changed in framing; this is so that the span, after the truss is loaded and the deflection has taken place, becomes the distance between the supports. This is discussed in Chapter XXVII, pages 1085 to 1087.

Example 3. For this example the HOWE TRUSS shown in Fig. 3 is considered. The vertical load is assumed to be 46½ lb per sq ft on the top-chord and 16 lb per sq ft on the bottom-chord. For trusses spaced about 15 ft 8 in on centers, the loads and stresses are shown in Fig. 4. The figures preceded by the letter *W* indicate the transverse loading of the pieces.

Vertical Rods, Fig. 3. These are assumed to be wrought iron and not upset. For the stress 13 492 lb (Fig. 4), using the unit stress 12 000 lb per sq in, the net section-area required is 1.16 sq in, which is provided by a 1½-in rod (Table II, page 388). For the stress 5 804, the net section-area required is 0.48 sq in, which is provided by a 1-in rod. The stress in the middle rod is so small that the rod would be but a little over ½-in in diameter. This would appear light so a ¾-in rod is used.

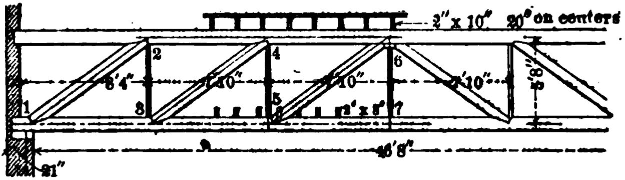

Fig. 3. Howe Truss. (See, also, Figs. 4, 9A, 9B, 14, 15 and 17A)

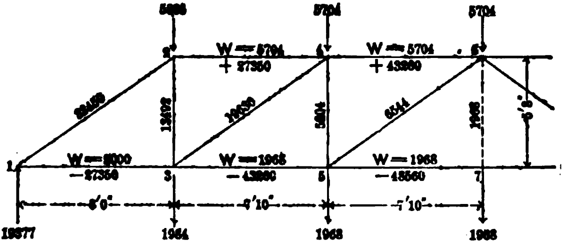

Fig. 4. Howe-truss Diagram. Stresses in Truss Shown in Fig. 3

Top-Chord, Fig. 3. As this is to be uniform in size from end to end, a middle section is considered in determining its size. It is assumed that the depth is 10 in. For the transverse load the center moment is ⅛ (5 704 × 7⅚ × 12) = 67 022 in-lb. From the equation, 67 022 = ⅙ (700 × 10 × 10 × *b*), the breadth *b* = 5.74 in. For the compression, 43 260 lb, the least dimension may be taken as 10 in, as the rafters prevent SIDE BUCKLING for the unsupported length of 7⅚ ft. Then l/d = 9.4, S_1 = 1 100 lb per sq in (note that the piece is less than fifteen diameters long) and the required section-area becomes 39.3 sq in. For a depth of 10 in, the thickness is 3.93 in. The total thickness of the piece now becomes 5.74 + 3.93 = 9.67 in; and hence a 10 by 10-in piece may be used. Since the actual cross-section size of a nominal 10 by 10-in piece is about 9½ by 9½ in, a 10 by 12-in timber is used and the 12-in dimension is placed vertical.

Bottom-Chord, Fig. 3. Considering the piece at the middle, with a tensile stress of 48 560 lb, it is found that the net area of the cross-section must be 69.4 sq in, and, if the piece is 12 in deep, the thickness is 5.78 in. The bending moment at the middle of the piece produced by the load 1 968 lb, is ⅛ (1 968 × 7⅚ × 12) = 23 224 in-lb. This moment requires a piece 12 in deep and 1.28 in thick. The total thickness now becomes 5.78 + 1.28 = 7.06 in. To allow for holes and notches it is necessary to increase this to at least 10 in, making the bottom chord 10 by 12 in. A single piece of this size, nearly 50 ft long, is difficult to obtain; so at least one splice is necessary. If planks are substituted it requires six 2 by 12-in pieces to give an equivalent area.

Inclined End-Post, Fig. 3. The stress in this post is 33 450 lb and its unsupported length about 9.75 ft. An 8 by 10-in piece is tried first, the 10-in dimension being the same as one dimension of the chords. Then $l/d = 14.62$, $S_1 = 825$ lb per sq in and the required area of cross-section becomes 33 450/825 = 40.54 sq in, which is about one-half the cross-sectional area of an 8 by 10-in piece. If $d = 6$ in, there results $l/d = 19.50$, $S_1 = 740$ lb per sq in and the required area = 45.2 sq in, which is a much smaller cross-sectional area than that of a 6 by 10-in timber.

Intermediate Diagonals, Fig. 3. For the first diagonal a 6 by 6-in piece is tried. The required section-area is 19 630/740 = 26.5 sq in, which is well within the section-area of a 6 by 6-in timber. A 4 by 4-in timber could be used for the next brace, but it is better to use either a 6 by 6-in timber or one 4 by 6 in.

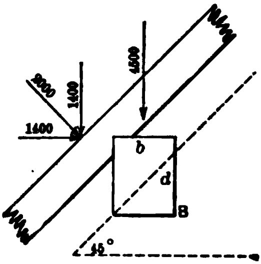

Fig. 4A. Purlin-design for Joint 2 of Truss Shown in Fig. 1

Purlins, Figs. 1 and 4A. While the stresses given for the members of the truss shown in Fig. 1 are based upon a vertical loading covering the effect of dead load, snow-load and wind-load, the wind-load is separated from the others in order to illustrate the method to be followed in designing a purlin when the plane of the load is not parallel to one of its sides. The trusses of the type illustrated in Fig. 1, are 15 ft on centers. This distance, therefore, is the span of the purlin. The purlin at joint 2, Fig. 1, has a vertical loading of 4 500 lb and a wind-load, acting normal to the roof, of 2 000 lb. This inclined loading, resolved parallel to b and d, Fig 4A, and combined with the vertical load, gives for the total, parallel to d, 4 500 + 1 400 = 5 900 lb; and for that parallel to b, 1 400 lb. If then, loads are assumed to act through the center of gravity of the purlin-section, they produce both tension in the fiber at B and compression diagonally opposite B. The bending moment at the middle of the purlin due to the vertical load is ⅛ (5 900 × 15 × 12) = 132 750 in-lb; and that due to the horizontal load is ⅛ (1 400 × 15 × 12) = 31 500 in-lb. It is assumed that $b = 8$ in and $d = 10$ in. Then the fiber-stress at B, due to the first moment is

$$S' = 6 \times 132\,750/bd^2 = 996 \text{ lb per sq in}$$

The fiber-stress at B, produced by the second moment is

$$S'' = 6 \times 31\,500/b^2d = 295 \text{ lb per sq in}$$

The total fiber-stress is 996 + 295 = 1 291 lb per sq in. This is 91 lb in excess of the permissible fiber-stress in the most conservative practice and in many city building laws for long-leaf yellow pine or white oak. If a 10 by 10-in timber is used the fiber-stress is 986 lb per sq in, and if the piece is 10 by 12-in, it becomes 710 lb per sq in.

2. Design of Steel Trusses

General Considerations. The members of the ordinary STEEL ROOF-TRUSSES are composed of two rolled ANGLES placed back to back and at the joints each piece is connected to GUSSET-PLATES by RIVETS. The size of the smallest angle permissible in good practice is 2½ by 2 by ¼ in; and while ⅝-in rivets are often used, it is better to use ¾-in rivets, which are the largest that can be used in a 2½-in leg of an angle. As in wooden trusses, it is economical to use the same sizes for all members which are in the same straight line, but this is not always done.

Example 4. Fig. 5 shows a FAN TRUSS of the form and dimensions of a truss used for supporting the roof of a machine-shop. The loading is light and consequently the stresses are quite small in many of the members. For convenience the stresses, lengths of compression-members and final sections are arranged in tabular form.

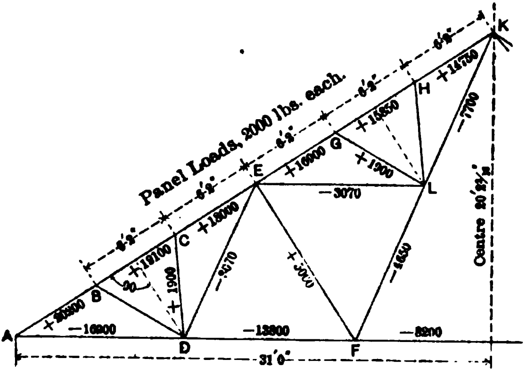

Fig. 5. Fan-truss Diagram with Stresses

Table IV. Stresses and Dimensions for the Half-Truss Shown in Figure 5

Member	Stress, lb	Approximate length, in	Net area required, sq in	Makeup of member
AD..........	−16 900	....	1.06	Two 2½ by 2 by ¼-in angles Net area = 1.70 sq in
DF...........	−13 800	....	....	
FM...........	− 9 200	....	....	
FL...........	− 4 650	....	....	
LK...........	− 7 700	....	....	
DE and *EL*...	− 3 070	....	....	
AB...........	+20 200	72	....	Two 2½ by 2½ by 14-in angles, and one 10 by ¼-in plate
EF...........	+ 5 000	144	....	Two 2½ by 2 by ¼-in angles
CD...........	+ 1 900	72	....	

Member *AD*, Fig. 5. This member has the maximum stress of the bottom-chord and its size will be used up to the joint *F* and possibly for the entire length of the chord. The net area required is 16 900/16 000 = 1.06 sq in, or the net section-area of one angle is 0.53 sq in. One leg of the angle is riveted to the gusset-plate with ¾-in rivets which is assumed to cut out a section ⅞ in by the thickness of the angle. From Table XI, page 365, we find that a 2½ by 2 by ¼-in angle has an area of 1.06 sq in. The area to be deducted on account of one rivet-hole is ⅞ × ¼ = 7/32 = 0.22 sq in. This leaves for the net area of the angle 1.06 − 0.22 = 0.84 sq in, which is well above the required area. As this is the smallest angle which can be used and as all the other tension-members have less stress than AD, the tension-members will be made uniform throughout. With the exception of FK, many designers would use but one angle for the web-members. While the net area is ample for the stresses, yet it is poor practice, as one angle produces a ONE-SIDED PULL on the gusset-plates.

Member AB, Fig. 5. This piece has the maximum stress of the top-chord, a compression of 20 200 lb and a transverse load of 2 000 lb. The COMBINED EFFECT OF THE TWO LOADINGS in this case must be determined in a manner quite different from that followed for wooden construction. The maximum fiber-stress must not exceed that found from some column-formula as, for example, $S_1 = 12\,500 - 500\ l/r$. The maximum fiber-stress S may be found, approximately, from the expression $S = P/A + Mc/I$. In this equation, P is the direct compression, which is 20 200 lb in this case, A the area of the section of the piece, I the moment of inertia of this section, c the distance of the outermost fiber of the section which is in compression from its gravity-axis and M the maximum bending moment produced by the tranverse load. The PRINCIPAL AXIS of the section must lie in the plane of the transverse loading, if the above formula is used. For symmetrical sections, as two angles back to back, an I beam, or a channel, the principal axes are AXES OF SYMMETRY, and the values of I and c are readily found from the properties of rolled shapes tabulated in Chapter X. The first trial-section is that shown in Fig. 6, consisting of two 2½ by 2½ by ¼-in angles and one 10 by ¼-in plate. To find the moment of inertia, I, and the radius of gyration, r, the center of gravity of the section is found first. The distance X of the center of gravity from AB (Fig. 6) is found from Equation (2), page 295,

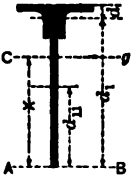

Fig. 6. Section through Rafter-member of Truss Shown in Fig. 5. (Axis at d_1 from AB, through c. g. of angles; axis at Cg, through c. g. of sections; axis at d_{11} from AB, through c. g. of plate.)

$$X = \frac{\text{area of plate} \times d_{11} + \text{area of angles} \times d_1}{\text{area of entire section}}$$

From the properties of angles, Table XII, page 367, the distance from the back to the center of gravity of the angle is $d = 0.72$ in. $I = 0.7$ and the area of the two angles = 2.38 sq in. The plate does not usually extend to the back of the angles, a clearance of from ⅛ to ¼ in being allowed. A clearance of ¼ in is assumed.

Then, $$d_1 = 10.25 - 0.72 = 9.53 \text{ in, and } d_{11} = 5 \text{ in}$$

Hence, $$X = \frac{2.5 \times 5 + 2.38 \times 9.53}{2.50 + 2.38} = 7.21 \text{ in}$$

The value of the moment of inertia I, about Cg as an axis, is found as follows (Chapter X):

For the plate (page 335), $$\frac{th^3}{12} = \frac{0.25 \times 10^3}{12} = 20.80$$

Eq. (3) (page 338), $$A\,(X - d_{11})^2 = 2.5\,(2.21)^2 = 12.21$$

For the two angles (page 367) $2 \times 0.70 = 1.40$
Eq. (3) (page 338), $A\,(d_1 - X)^2 = 2.38\,(2.32)^2 = \underline{12.81}$
For the entire section, $I = 47.22$

For any section, $I = Ar^2$ or $r = \sqrt{I/A}$, hence for this section $r = \sqrt{47.22/4.88} = 3.11$ in. (See Equation (2), page 333.) The distance to the outermost fiber in compression from the axis Cg is 3.04 in $= c$. There is now sufficient data to determine the actual fiber-stresses due to the loading and also the permissible stress. The bending moment produced by the transverse load is

$$M = \tfrac{1}{8}\,(2\,000 \times 6.16 \times 12) = 18\,480 \text{ in lb}$$
$$S = 20\,200/4.88 + (18\,480 \times 3.04)/47.22 = 5\,330 \text{ lb per sq in}$$
$$S_1 = 12\,500 - 500 \times 6.16/3.11 = 11\,510 \text{ lb per sq in}$$

This shows that the actual fiber-stress is very much smaller than the allowable fiber-stress, but as we have used minimum-size angles and a minimum thickness for the plate, the only way to reduce this section is to use a smaller plate. This is not feasible because of the requirements for making proper connections at the joints. The above analysis assumes that the member is prevented from bending sidewise by the roof-covering. If such is not the case, r will have to be determined for a vertical axis through the center of gravity of the section. First, finding the moment of inertia,

For the plate, $ht^3/12 = (10 \times 0.25^3)/12 = 0.026$
For the angles, $2 \times 0.70 = 1.400$
$2.38\,(0.72 + 0.125)^2 = \underline{1.699}$
For the entire section, $I = 3.125$

$$r = \sqrt{3.125/4.88} = 0.8 \text{ in}$$
$$S_1 = 12\,500 - 500 \times 6.16/0.8 = 8\,650 \text{ lb per sq in}$$

This is also less than the value of S, and hence this section fulfills all the requirements, considering the unsupported length vertically and sidewise as 6.16 ft.

Member *EF*, Fig. 5. Taking two 2½ by 2 by ¼-in angles with the 2½-in legs, back to back, the least value of $r = 0.78$ in (Table XVI, page 371).

$$S_1 = 12\,500 - 500 \times 12/0.78 = 4\,810 \text{ lb per sq in}$$
$$5\,000 + 4\,810 = 1.04 \text{ sq in, required.}$$

The area of the two angles used is $2 \times 1.06 = 2.12$ sq in (Table XVI, page 371).

Member *CD*, Fig. 5. The stress in this member is very small and one angle will probably fulfill the requirements. For one angle, 2½ by 2 by ¼ in, the least $r = 0.42$ in (Table XI, page 365) and $S_1 = 5\,300$ lb per sq in, indicating that this angle gives a large excess of strength. As pointed out above, it is better to use two angles.

Slenderness-Ratio. The best specifications limit the ratio of the least dimension to the unsupported length of a compression-member to 50, unless the allowable unit stress as given by the column-formula is decreased. The member *EF* is 2½ in deep and about 144 in long, so that its length is 57.6 times its least dimension. As there is a great excess of area, the actual unit stress is much below that given by the formula.

Stay-Rivets. The compression-members made up of two angles and designed as described in the preceding paragraphs, have been considered as if acting as solid pieces. It is clear that the various parts must be so fastened together that no individual piece will buckle. If l is the unsupported length of the member as a whole, r the corresponding least radius of gyration, r' the least radius of gyration for any part and l' the unsupported length of the part, or the distance between stay-rivets, there is the following relation:

$$l'/r' = l/r \text{ or } l' = lr'/r$$

For the member *EF* $l' = 144 \times 0.42/0.78 = 78$ in.
Practice reduces this to 2 or 3 ft.

Tension-Members, also, should be riveted together in a similar manner to make the parts pull together.

Example 5. The next truss considered is the Fink truss shown in Fig. 7, in which two angles are used for all members and ¾-in rivets at the connections.

Member *AC*, Fig. 7. For a unit stress of 16 000 lb per sq in, the net area required is 21 800/16 000 = 1.36 sq in. Two 2½ by 2½ by ¼-in angles have a section-area of 2.38 sq in (Table XII, page 367). Deducting 2 (⅞ × ¼) = 0.41 sq in, the net section becomes 1.94 sq in, while the required area is 1.36 sq in.

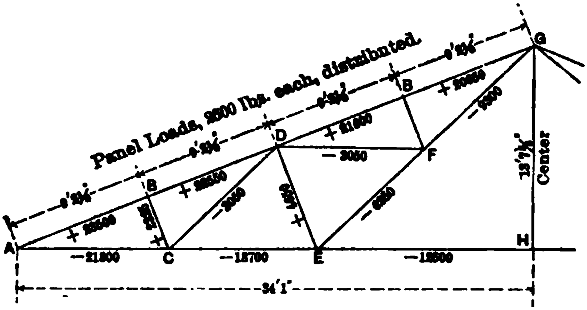

Fig. 7. Fink Truss. (See, also, Figs. 22, 22A, 22B, 22C, and 22D)

Members *CB* and *BH*, Fig. 7, are composed of angles of the same size.

Members *CD*, *DF*, *EF* and *FG*, Fig. 7, are made of two 2½ by 2 by ¼-in angles with a net area of 2.12 sq in. This greatly exceeds the required area.

Members *BC*, *BF* and *DE*, Fig. 7. From the preceding example it is evident that a pair of minimum-size angles will be quite sufficient. Two 2½ by 2 by ¼-in angles, having a section-area of 2.12 sq in, are used.

Member *AB*, Fig. 7. For this member in which there is a direct compression of 23 500 lb and a transverse stress due to a load of 2 500 lb, a preliminary trial is made with two 5 by 3½ by ⅜-in angles, with the 5-in legs back to back and separated by a ¼-in gusset-plate. The moment of inertia about an axis passing through the center of gravity of the two angles and parallel to the shorter legs is (Table XI, page 363) 7.78* and the corresponding radius of gyration is 1.6 in. About a vertical axis the radius of gyration is (Table XVI, page 371) 1.42 in, which is the least radius to be used in the column-formula. The moment produced by the 2 500-lb load at the center of the member is ⅛ (2 500 × 9.2 × 12) = 34 500 in lb. The section-area of the two angles is (page 363) 6.1 sq in.

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* It will be noticed that the values given for the properties or elements of the angles used in this example differ slightly from those given in the tables referred to, as the section-area, I, r, x, etc. This changes the result very slightly and is due to variations in the decimal figures of values in different editions of manufactures' handbooks. Editor-in-chief.

$$S = 23\,500/6.10 + (34\,500 \times 1.61)/7.78 = 10\,990 \text{ lb per sq in}$$
$$S_1 = 12\,500 - (500 \times 9.2)/1.42 = 9\,260 \text{ lb per sq in}$$

Since S_1 is less than S, it is seen that the angles selected are a little too light. Instead of using angles of greater thickness it will be better to select a larger size. If two 6 by 3½ by ⅜-in angles are used (page 363)

$$S = 23\,500/6.86 + (34\,500 \times 2.04)/12.86 = 8\,890 \text{ lb per sq in}$$
$$S_1 = 12\,500 - (500 \times 9.2)/1.34 = 9\,070 \text{ lb per sq in}$$

This shows that there is ample strength and stiffness and that the area is increased by 0.76 sq in. If two 5 by 3½ by 7/16-in angles had been used, the area would have been increased 0.96 sq in (page 363). The least radius of gyration used in the expression for S_1 assumes that the angles will be separated by ¼-in gusset-plates. If thicker gusset-plates are used, the value of r will increase.

Practical Details. The use of UNIFORM SIZES for members in the same straight line is economical and adds rigidity to the truss. The angles can be furnished up to lengths of 60 ft and over, thereby reducing the labor of cutting them and decreasing the number of rivets and the size of the gusset-plates. The portion of the truss *AEG* shown by Fig. 7 would be completely riveted up in the shops, leaving only three joints to be riveted at the building. In general, any truss which has one outside dimension not exceeding 10 ft, can be shipped by rail. This governs the location of the splices.

8. Joints of Wooden Trusses

The Joints of any truss should be proportioned with as much care as is used in determining the sizes of the members, so that the truss will be equally strong in all its parts. The general principles and methods for designing joints are explained in Chapter XII and illustrated by examples. To further explain the subject, the methods of design of some of the joints for the trusses shown in Figs. 1 and 3 are added in this chapter.

Joint 1, Fig. 1. This is the most important joint in the truss. There are many forms for this joint, but only a few of them are illustrated. Fig. 8 shows a SIMPLE BOLTED JOINT. The rafter rests in a notch in the bottom chord and is held in place by one or more rolled-steel bolts. These bolts are perpendicular to the axis of the rafter, and the stresses in them are found graphically by the diagram *abc* (Fig. 8) in which *ac* is perpendicular to the SCARF-CUT or SEAT of the rafter. The tension in the bolts is found to be 31 250 lb, and with a permissible stress of 16 000 lb per sq in, the net section-area required is 1.95 sq in, which corresponds to one 1⅞-in bolt (Table II, page 388). The WASHER, bearing across the grain of the rafter, will have an area of 31 250/200 = 156 sq in (page 1138). Since the top-chord is actually but 5½ in wide, the length of the plate is about 28 in. Such a plate would look out of proportion with one bolt, so five ⅞-in bolts are substituted, having a net section-area of 2.10 sq in (Table II, page 388). Two bolts are placed near each end of the plate and one bolt is placed in the middle. The bolts are spaced about 9½ in apart. The thickness of the plate may be taken as one-fifth the distance from the end of the plate to the nuts of the first pair of bolts. This distance is about 3.4 in; hence the thickness is 0.67 in. A ¾-in plate is used. The lower end of each pair of bolts is provided with a PLATE-WASHER bearing upon the inclined surface of the white-oak BOLSTER as shown. The ANGLE OF INCLINATION approximates 45°

and hence the allowable pressure on the wood is 500 + (1 400 − 500) ¼ = 725 lb per sq in. (See Table VI, page 454, Table XVI, page 647, and the equation on page 1138.) The pair of bolts carry a tension of 31 250 × ⅖ = 12 500 lb, and this stress requires a plate having an area of 12 500/725 = 17.2 sq in, which will be provided by a plate 5½ by 4 by ¾ in. For the single bolt, a 4 by 4-in CAST-IRON BEVELED WASHER is used, having a ¾ by ¾-in lug let into the bolster to take the horizontal component of the pull in the bolt. To prevent the bolster slipping on the bottom chord, two OAK KEYS are employed. (See Table VI, page 454, and Table I, page 1138, for permissible unit stresses.) The horizontal component of the pull in the bolts is about 22 100 lb, and for one key, 11 050 lb, and taking the actual thickness of 6 in to be 5½ in, each inch in length of the key will safely carry 5½ × 200 = 1 100 lb in longitudinal shear (Table I, page 412). The keys will, therefore, be 10 in long. The ends of the keys push against the notch in the white-pine chord, and for end-bearing each inch in depth of the notch carries 5½ × 1 100 = 6 050 lb. The depth of the notch, therefore, is 1.8 in in the chord. In the bolster each inch in depth of notch carries 5½ × 1 400 = 7 700 lb (Table XVI, page 647), and the depth of notch is 1.43 in. This makes the total thickness of the keys 1.8 + 1.43 = 3.23 in, or, say 3½ in. The size of the keys is 3½ by 5½ by 10 in. The SPACING OF THE KEYS is governed by the longitudinal shear of the white-pine chord. Each inch in length carries 5½ × 100 = 550 lb (Table I, page 1138), and the clear distance between keys is 11 050/550 = 20 in. The various dimensions used above will probaby appear large to many. The large dimensions are due to the timber used. If long-leaf yellow pine had been employed, many of the dimensions would have been materially smaller. The ANGLE-BLOCK detail, shown in Fig. 9B, makes a much better connection in this case. 1⅜ in becomes 1¼ in and 15 in becomes 13 in. The net area of the bottom chord should now be determined to see if it is sufficient to take the tension.

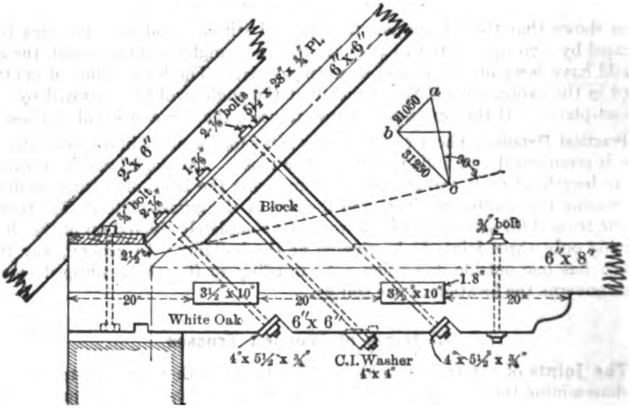


Fig. 8. Detail of Joint 1, Fig. 1

Wall-Plate. As a rule it is a good idea to place the WALL-PLATE, which receives the common rafters, just above the bottom chord as shown. This affords an opportunity to get at the nuts on the bolts to tighten them as the wood shrinks. The BEARING OF THE TRUSS on the brickwork should be considered and a STONE or METAL PLATE provided to distribute the pressure. (See Chapter XIII.) In this case a 16 by 14 by 1¼-in CAST-IRON PLATE is used, which reduces the pressure on the brickwork to 82½ lb per sq in.

Joint 1, Fig. 3. This joint might be made in the manner described above, but the type shown in Fig. 9 is used. The thickness of the plate is usually governed by the thickness required at *Y* to give the HOOK the proper strength.

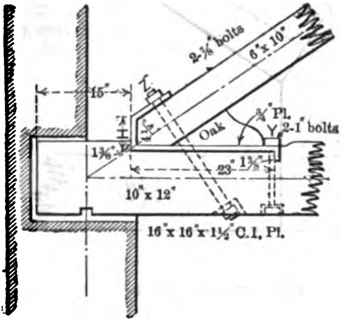


Fig. 9. Detail of Joint 1, Fig. 3

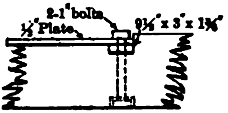


Fig. 9A. Alternate Detail of Joint 1, Fig. 3

This hook practically takes one-half the horizontal component of the stress in the rafter (which is the stress in the bottom chord in this case) as the bolts are assumed merely to keep the parts in place. The metal bears against the end-fibers. For each inch in depth of the notch, the fibers carry 9½ × 1 100 = 10 450 lb, and hence the notch is ½ (27 350/10 450) = 1.31 in deep, say 1⅜ in. Considering the HOOK as a WROUGHT-IRON CANTILEVER, 1⅜ in long and uniformly loaded with 1 100 lb per sq in, the thickness is found from the expression $1\,100(1.31)^2/2 = \frac{1}{6}(12\,000 \times 1 \times t^2)$, or, $t = 0.69$ in. The nearest practical size is a thickness of ¾ in. The length of the bottom chord necessary to take the pressure from the hook in longitudinal shear is 9½ × 100 = 950 lb per in, or, 13 675/950 = 14.4 in in all. The inclination of the fibers at *H* with the vertical cut is about 36°, and the allowable pressure on this surface is $200 + (1\,100 - 200)(^{36}/_{90})^2 = 344$ lb. Then 27 350/(344 × 9½) = 8.3 in, which is the required depth of the cut. As these fibers are confined by the plate, one-half this value, or 4¼ in, approximately, is used. The bolts, *Z*, are two ⅞-in bolts. There should be two bolts at *Y*, carefully placed so that the hook bears against them. There is a strong tendency for the hook to straighten and hence 1-in bolts are used. The net section of the plate in tension is evidently greatly in excess of that required.

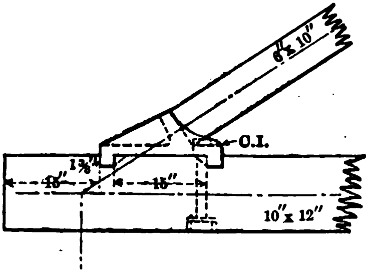


Fig. 9B. Alternate Detail of Joint 1, Fig. 3

Joint 1, Fig. 3. A better detail at *Y*, Fig. 9, is shown in Fig. 9A. It is assumed as before that one-half the tension is taken by the notch at *Y*. The

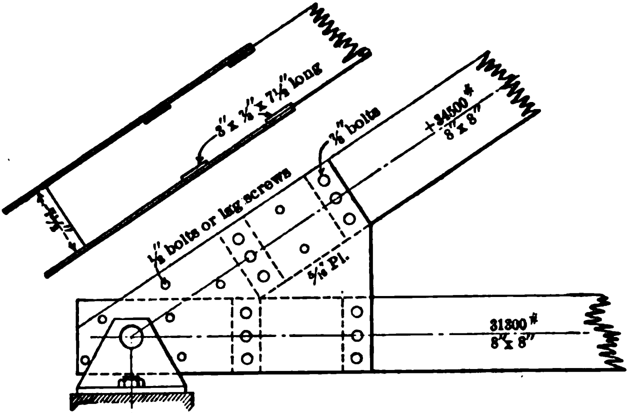


Fig. 9c. Detail of Joint 1, of Truss Similar to Fig. 1

depth of the notch is 1⅜ in and the size of the metal block, 1⅜ by 3 by 9½ in. The bolts are assumed to have a close fit in the block and in the plate and hence carry the stress in single shear, At 10 000 lb per sq in. the area of the bolts is ½ (27 350/10 000) = 1.37 sq in, requiring two 1-in steel bolts (Table III, page 419). The thickness of the steel plate necessary to give sufficient bearing against the bolts is ½ (13 675) ÷ 20 000 × 1, or t = .34 in. A ½-in plate is therefore ample.

Joint 1, Fig. 3. An ordinary CAST-IRON ANGLE-BLOCK can be used in this particular case as shown in Fig. 9B.

Other Details for Joint 1, Fig. 3. Another design for this joint, but for another truss, is shown in Fig. 9c. The rafter and bottom chord are of long-leaf yellow pine and the metal parts of steel. The stresses are transmitted through 3 by ⅞-in plates in bearing against the end-fibers of the wood, and from these plates to the SIDE PLATES through the bolts in bending. The side plates should be drawn up against the wood by LAG-SCREWS, as shown, to prevent buckling when in compression.

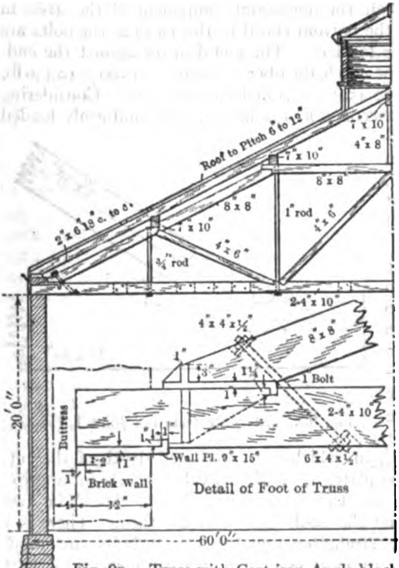


Fig. 9d. Truss with Cast-iron Angle-block

Fig. 9D shows a good application of the CAST-IRON ANGLE-BLOCK used in the trusses of a blacksmith-shop of the Boston & Maine Railroad Company. The bearing and shearing values are provided for principally by a tenon on the black let into the bottom chord as indicated by the dotted lines.

Joint 2, Fig. 1. Where a brace abuts against a rafter, as in this joint, one cut on the end of the brace should bisect the angle made between the brace and the rafter, and the second cut should be at right angles to this, as shown in Fig. 10. The end is then set in a notch or mortise to keep the brace in place and to transmit the pressure to the rafter. The purlin may be supported by a 3-in plank, as shown in Fig. 10. Some form of METAL HANGER, of the DUPLEX TYPE is often preferred. In the truss shown in Fig. 1, there is no vertical rod at this joint; but many trusses have a rod there, and one is therefore shown in Fig. 10. The washer on top of the rafter must have sufficient area to transmit the stress in the rod to the rafter. Other forms of purlin-connections are shown in Figs. 10A to 10D.

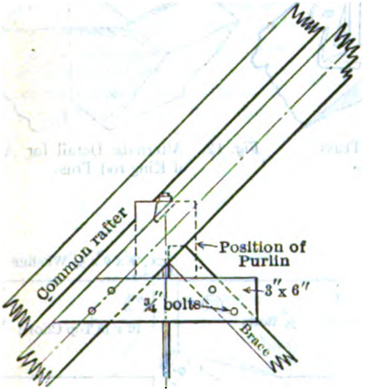


Fig. 10. Detail of Joint 2, Fig. 1, with Rod Added

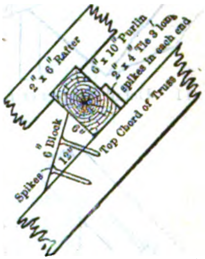


Fig. 10A. Purlin-connection. Purlins on Top of Truss-chord

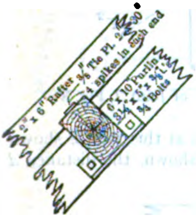


Fig. 10B. Purlin-connection with Steel-Angles

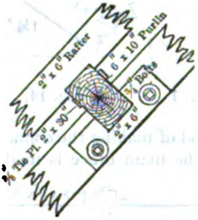


Fig. 10C. Purlin-connection with Wooden Bearing-block

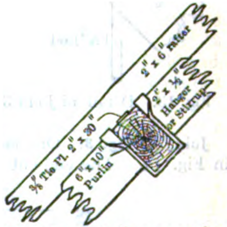


Fig. 10D. Purlin-connection with Beam-hanger

Apex of King-Rod Truss. Fig. 11 shows the joint at the top of a KING-ROD TRUSS with a DUPLEX HANGER to support the purlin. The wrought-iron or steel plate for large trusses should extend along the top of each rafter a sufficient distance to permit its being fastened by LAG-SCREWS or BOLTS. Fig. 12 shows a CASTING in place of the ROLLED PLATE.

Joint 3, Fig. 1. This should be made as shown in Fig. 13. The inclined cuts bisect the angle made between the two 6 by 6-in pieces. In place of the CAST-IRON WASHER a WROUGHT-IRON or STEEL PLATE may be used.

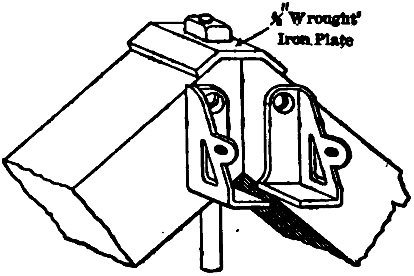


Fig. 11. Detail of Apex of King-rod Truss

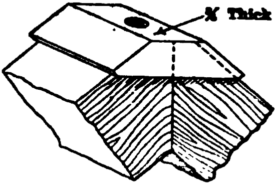


Fig. 12. Alternate Detail for Apex of King-rod Truss

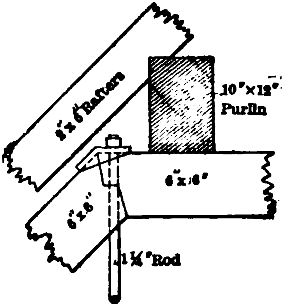


Fig. 13. Detail of Joint 3, Fig. 1

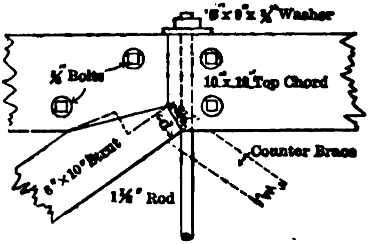


Fig. 14. Detail of Joint 2, Fig. 3

Joint 2, Fig. 3. One method of making the connections at this joint is shown in Fig. 14. The end-cut of the main brace is made as shown, the distance *d*

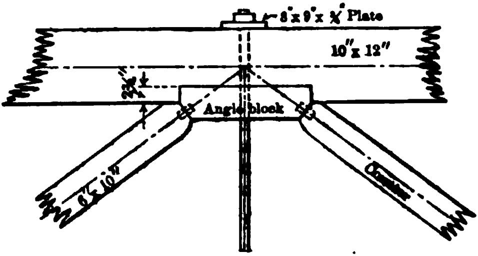


Fig. 15. Alternate Detail of Joint 2, Fig. 3

being determined by the necessary area of the inclined cut in the top chord. The permissible unit pressure is about 525 lb per sq in. Then 33 450 lb requires 64 sq in, or the distance *d* is a little greater than the depth of the brace. This form of detail can only be used for the end-brace by making two notches as shown by the dotted lines. A much better method is shown in Fig. 15, where an ANGLE-BLOCK is used. The angle-block is made of very hard wood so that the bearing of the brace is provided for, and it is notched into the chord a sufficient amount to transfer the horizontal component of the stress in the brace to the chord. A notch 1 in deep carries 1 100 × 9½ = 10 450 lb (Table I, page 1138); hence for a horizontal component of 27 350 lb (Fig. 4), the notch is made 2¾ in deep. This clearly shows that braces should be inclined at least 45° with the horizontal, unless awkward or weak details are to be tolerated. The vertical rod here has a stress of 13 492 lb. The WASHER on top of the chord transfers this stress in bearing across the grain. At a unit stress of 200 lb (Table I, page 1138), the area is 67.4 sq in, requiring an 8 by 9 by ¾-in plate.

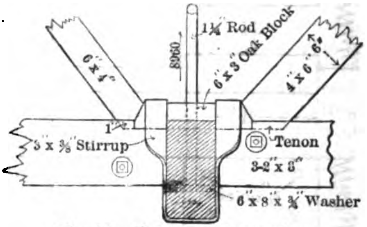


Fig. 16. Detail of Joint 7, Fig 1

Joint 7, Fig. 1. This is shown in Fig. 16, and the above discussions cover all details of its design.

Splices. Since it is not economical and often impossible to procure timbers exceeding 25 or 30 ft in length, it is necessary to make one or more SPLICES in the chords. The top-chord of a HOWE TRUSS is spliced by placing the timbers end to end, and by spiking or bolting on side planks to keep them in place. The bottom chord cannot be treated in this manner, as it is in tension.

Hook-Splice or Tabled Fish-Plate of Wood. It is assumed that the bottom chord of the truss shown in Fig. 3 is to be spliced at the middle of the span. Fig. 17A shows this splice. It is assumed that the side pieces are of white pine. The total depth of the notches is 48 560 ÷ (1 100 × 11½) = d = 3.84 in (Table I, page 1138). Each notch, then, is about 2 in deep. The length of the table is l = ½ [48 560 ÷ (100 × 11½)] = 21 in. The net thickness of each side piece is ½ (48 560)/(700 × 11½) = 3 in, without deducting anything for the two bolt-holes. The chord-pieces have less than the required area because of the deep notches required; hence a 12 × 12-in timber is required if this form of splice is used. The proper dimensions are shown in Fig. 17A.

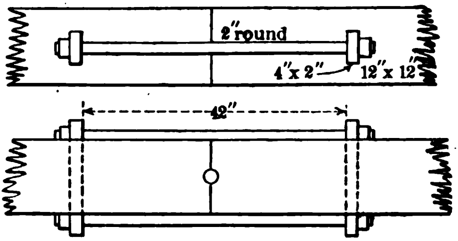


Fig. 17. Splice of Bottom Chord of Truss

Metal Splice. Fig. 17 shows an old and very efficient form of splice, proportioned to replace the form shown in Fig. 17A.

Splices for Built-up Chord. The top chord, when BUILT UP of 2-in planks, requires thorough spiking with two ¾-in bolts at the ends of each plank. The bottom chord, which is in tension, should be so arranged that the ends of the planks in one strand are well removed from the ends in other strands. The middle strand of a BUILT-UP CHORD is completely cut away to permit the passage of the vertical rods. The strands should be thoroughly spiked, and bolted every 2 ft, care being taken to see that the bolts do not come nearer than 5 in from the end of any plank. While BUILT-UP MEMBERS are in favor with builders because the materials are readily obtained, yet for important structures the writer believes it is worth while to use a little more effort and pay a little more to get SOLID STICKS for truss-members.

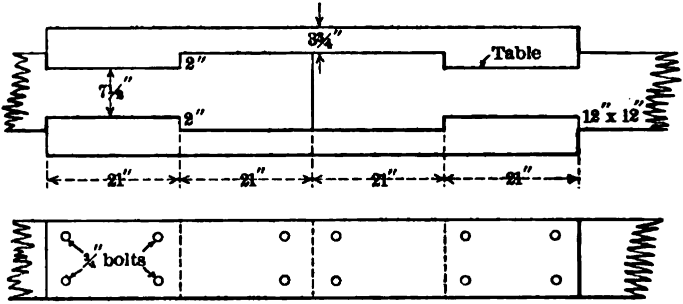


Fig. 17A. Alternate Detail for Splice of Bottom Chord

Wall-Joint of Scissors Trusses. In SCISSORS TRUSSES the joint over the wall formed by the rafter and tie-beam should always be carefully proportioned to the stresses; otherwise the joint is liable to open and the wall to be pushed out. Much greater strength is required in this joint than in the wall-joint of a KING-ROD TRUSS of the same span, because the stresses in a SCISSORS TRUSS are usually at least twice and sometimes three or four times as great as in a truss with a horizontal tie-beam. For a SCISSORS TRUSS built of planks, as in Fig. 2,

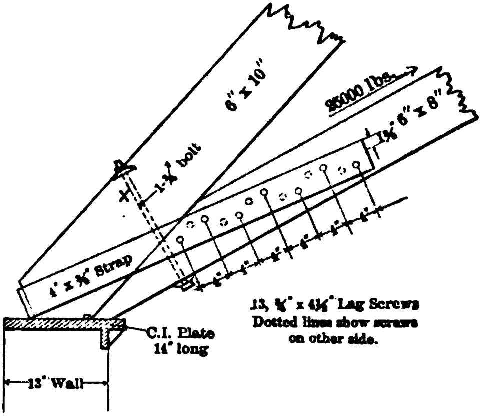


Fig. 18. Wall-joints for Scissors Trusses, Figs. 24 to 27, Chapter XXVI

a 1-in bolt through the center of each joint, with as many spikes as can be driven, will ordinarily give sufficient strength. For trusses like those shown in Figs. 24 to 27 of Chapter XXVI, one of the best methods of making the wall-joint, unless the roof is quite flat, is that shown in Fig. 18, which is the detail of an actual joint where the stress in the tie-beam was 25 000 lb. It should be noticed that the WROUGHT-IRON STRAP is secured to the tie by LAG-SCREWS instead of BOLTS. It is practically impossible to bolt a strap to each side of a beam so as to get a good bearing for all of the bolts, owing to the difficulty in boring the holes straight; and if the holes are bored a little large, some bolts may bear on the wood and some may not. With LAG-SCREWS each screw is bound to get a good bearing in the wood. The holes in the two sides of the strap must, of course, be staggered, so that they will not come opposite each other. The net sectional area of the strap should at least be equal to the stress in the tie-beam divided by 2 × 12 000 (Table I, page 1138). The number of LAG-SCREWS, for both sides, is found by dividing the stress in the tie-beam by the resistance of one screw. For the safe resistance of LAG-SCREWS used in this way, the values given in Table V are recommended. In the joint shown in Fig. 18, the stress in the tie-beam is 25 000 lb, and the wood is Douglas fir. The above rules, therefore, require a sectional area in the strap of ½ (25 000)/12 000 = 1.05 sq in and twelve ¾-in lag-screws.

Table V. Safe Resistance of Lag-Screws When Used as in Fig. 18

Size of screw in inches		Safe resistance in pounds				Minimum thickness of strap in inches
diam.	length	Oak	White pine	Douglas fir	Long-leaf pine	
⅜	3½	800	600	700	800	¼
½	4	1 400	1 000	1 100	1 200	¼
⅝	4	2 000	1 500	1 650	1 800	5/16
¾	4½	2 500	1 800	2 100	2 400	5/16
⅞	5	3 000	2 400	2 800	3 000	⅜

With a thickness of ⅜ in, the width of the strap necessary to give a sectional area of 1.05 sq in is 1.05/.375, or about 3 in. To this should be added the diameter of one lag-screw to obtain the working width. Thus 3 + ¾ = 3¾ in. The strap used is 4 by ⅜ in in cross-section, as some additional strength is obtained by the bolt at *X*, which it is necessary to insert to hold the timbers together while the truss is being raised into position, and also to bring them tightly together before fitting the strap. Fig. 19 shows another method of making this joint which may be used with advantage when the inclination of the rafter is less than 45°. One advantage in using this truss is that if it is erected ONE PIECE AT A TIME, the tie-beams may be put up first, thus providing a SEAT to receive the rafters. The strap prevents the end of the rafter from springing up. The diameter of the bolt should be proportioned to the horizontal component of the stress in the rafter. Fig. 20 shows a good form of joint to use at joint 5 of Fig. 27, Chapter XXVI, when it is desired to substitute a wooden tie for the rods shown in Fig. 27. The sectional area of the strap and the number of lag-screws should be proportioned by the rules given for Fig. 18.

Washers. Where iron or steel rods are used in wooden trusses, washers are necessary under the heads and nuts to properly distribute the loads on the wood. The dimensions of the washers are determined by the allowable bearing pressure on the wood and the magnitudes of the loads. Table VI gives the allowable loads which can be transmitted by standard round cast washers and rectangular washers bearing across the wood fibers. Table VII gives the dimension of standard round cast washers. The bearing areas of these washers are too small for use on the softer woods and, therefore, except when the rods are small, it is better to use rectangular washers of iron or steel plate. Very large washers should be cast, and should have the form shown in Fig. 20A. The use of the ribs gives the required strength and saves considerable material.

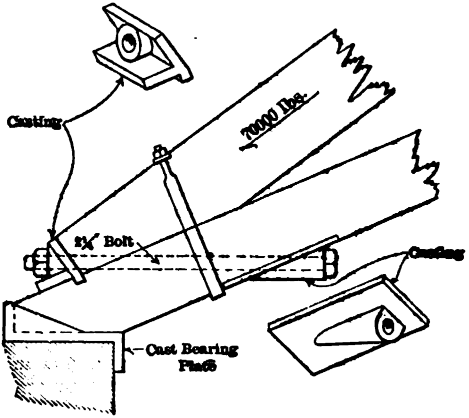


Fig. 19. Alternate Detail for Fig. 18

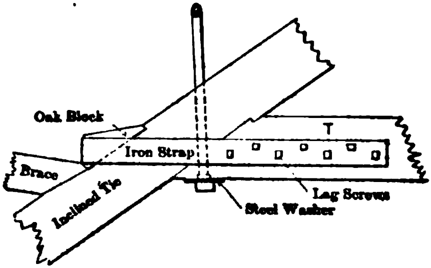


Fig. 20. Detail of Joint 5, Fig. 27, Chapter XXVI

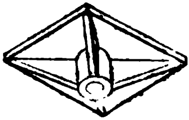


Fig. 20A. Cast-iron Washer with Brackets

Thickness of Rectangular Steel-Plate Washers. The thickness of rectangular steel-plate washers can be found from the following formulas in which l is the distance from the edge of the plate to the nut and t the thickness of the plate. When used

On white oak.................................... $l = 3.4\,t$
On white pine.................................... $l = 5.2\,t$
On long-leaf yellow pine.................................... $l = 3.9\,t$
On short-leaf yellow pine.................................... $l = 4.6\,t$

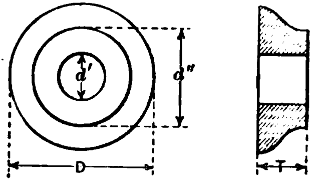
Table VI. Safe Bearing Resistance of Cast-Iron Washers, in Pounds

Size, in	Area,* sq in	White pine, lb	Short-leaf yellow pine, lb	Long-leaf yellow pine, lb	White oak, lb
Round washers					
½	5.16	1 030	1 290	1 810	2 580
⅝	6.69	1 340	1 670	2 340	3 350
¾	7.78	1 560	1 950	2 720	3 890
⅞	10.4	2 080	2 600	3 640	5 200
1	11.7	2 340	2 930	4 100	5 850
1⅛	16.6	3 320	4 150	5 810	8 300
1¼	26.9	5 380	6 730	9 420	13 500
1½	28.6	5 720	7 150	10 000	14 300
1¾	38.5	7 700	9 630	13 500	19 300
2	49.9	9 980	12 500	17 500	25 000
2¼	62.8	12 600	15 700	22 000	31 400
2½	77.1	15 400	19 300	27 000	38 600
2¾	92.9	18 600	23 200	32 500	46 500
3	110.2	22 000	27 600	38 600	55 100
Rectangular washers					
4× 6	24	4 800	6 000	8 400	12 000
8	32	6 400	8 000	11 200	16 000
6× 6	36	7 200	9 000	12 600	18 000
7	42	8 400	10 500	14 700	21 000
8	48	9 600	12 000	16 800	24 000
9	54	10 800	13 500	18 900	27 000
10	60	12 000	15 000	21 000	30 000
8× 8	64	12 800	16 000	22 400	32 000
9	72	14 400	18 000	25 200	36 000
10	80	16 000	20 000	28 000	40 000
12	96	19 200	24 000	33 600	48 000
10×10	100	20 000	25 000	35 000	50 000
11	110	22 000	27 500	38 500	55 000
12	120	24 000	30 000	42 000	60 000
14	140	28 000	35 000	49 000	70 000
12×12	144	28 800	36 000	50 400	72 000
14	168	33 600	42 000	58 800	84 000
16	192	38 400	48 000	67 200	96 000
14×14	196	39 200	49 000	68 600	98 000
16	224	44 800	56 000	78 400	112 000
Unit values, lb per sq in		200	250	350	500

* The actual areas bearing on the wood are given for round washers. For rectangular washers the total area is given, no allowance being made for holes.

Details. Many other forms of connections are in use and their proper design simply demands that the methods explained in Chapter XII and in this chapter be consistently followed. All details are not suitable for all cases and the designer must use common sense in the selection of the PARTICULAR TYPE to be used and in its design. Wood is very variable in its properties and consequently large FACTORS OF SAFETY are used for certain kinds of stress and smaller factors for others. Heavy trusses, in which the sizes of the members are selected according to the magnitudes of the stresses, should be very carefully worked out in every detail, while small trusses with large excess of material do not demand as much care.

Table VII. Proportions of Standard Cast-Iron Washers



Diam of bolt, d in	D in	d'' in	d' in	T in	Weight, lb	Bearing area, sq in
½	2⅝	1¾	9/16	⅝	½	5.16
⅝	3	1⅞	11/16	¾	¾	6.69
¾	3¼	2⅛	13/16	⅞	1¼	7.78
⅞	3¾	2½	15/16	⅞	1½	10.40
1	4	2¾	1 1/16	1⅛	2½	11.70
1⅛	4¾	2¾	1 3/16	1⅛	3	16.60
1¼	6	3	1 5/16	1⅜	5¾	26.90
1½	6¼	3¼	1⅝	1½	6	28.60
1¾	7¼	3¾	1⅞	1¾	9½	38.50
2	8¼	4¼	2⅛	2	17¼	49.90
2¼	9¼	4¾	2⅜	2¼	20	62.80
2½	10¼	5¼	2⅝	2½	27¼	77.10
2¾	11¼	5¾	2⅞	2¾	36	92.90
3	12¼	6¼	3⅛	3	46	110.20

For sizes not given, $D = 4d + \frac{1}{4}''$ $d'' = 2d + \frac{1}{4}$
$d' = d + \frac{1}{8}$ $T = d$

4. Joints of Steel Trusses

Trusses with Riveted Joints are usually made with ANGLES for the web-members and generally for the chords, although the latter are sometimes made of a pair of CHANNELS or of two ANGLES and a WEB-PLATE. The members are connected at the joints by means of GUSSET-PLATES, to which all of the members are RIVETED. Typical examples of riveted joints in roof-trusses are shown in Figs. 22 to 24E. When the rafter or chord has a WEB-PLATE, as in Fig. 23A, the web-members are riveted to this plate and a GUSSET-PLATE is not required except at the end-joint and apex, as shown in Figs. 23A and 23E. In order that there shall be no twisting, it is necessary to make the principal members of the truss DOUBLE, so that the gusset-plates can be riveted between them. Where single angles are used for web-members and two such members come at one joint they should be riveted to opposite sides of the gusset-plates. For equal strength the thickness of the gusset-plate should be such that the BEARING on the rivets equals the strength of the rivets in DOUBLE SHEAR, the thickness, however, not exceeding the combined thickness of the two angles. Practical considerations seldom make the gusset over ⅝ in thick for ordinary construction.

In laying out the joints, which should be done to a scale of not less than 1 in to the foot, the members should be arranged, when practicable, so that the lines passing through their centers of gravity will coincide with the lines of the TRUSS-DIAGRAM, and thus meet at a single point, as in Fig. 21. This is not always practicable, but the principle should be followed as closely as possible. For small angles the RIVET-LINES of the members may be considered, without serious error, to pass through the centers of gravity of the sections. The number of rivets required for each member must be determined according to the stress in that member, the resistance of the rivets being considered for both SHEARING and BEARING. The method of determining the number of rivets in a joint is explained in Chapter XII, but to show more clearly the application to truss-joints, the joints for the truss shown in Fig. 7 will be designed.

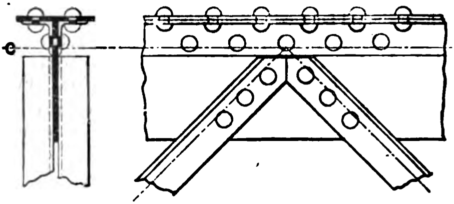


Fig. 21. Riveted Truss-joint with Truss-diagram Lines

General Considerations, Truss of Fig. 7. It is assumed that the truss will be shipped in three parts, making all the joints SHOP-RIVETED except those at *G* and the splices at each end of the piece *EH*. All gusset-plates are to be ⅜-in thick and all rivets ¾-in, except in the 2-in legs of angles, where ⅝-in rivets are to be used. Since the bearing of a ⅜-in plate on a ¾-in rivet at 20 000 lb per sq in (Table I, page 1138) is 5 630 lb, or at 18 000 lb per sq in (Table II, page 419) is 5 060 lb, and the resistance of the rivet in double shear, 2 × 4 420 = 8 840 lb (Table II, page 419), the number of rivets in all the joints is governed by the bearing value. Only one leg of the angles will be connected to the gusset-plate as about 80% of the full strength of the angle is thereby developed if not less than three rivets are used. The use of HITCH-ANGLES for the outstanding leg has but little influence in increasing the efficiency of the connection. Two rivets may be considered the minimum number in any connection, regardless of the unimportance of the member.

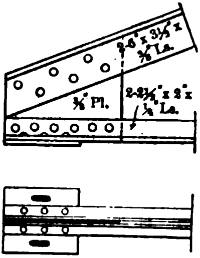


Fig. 22. Detail of Joint *A*, Fink Truss, Fig. 7

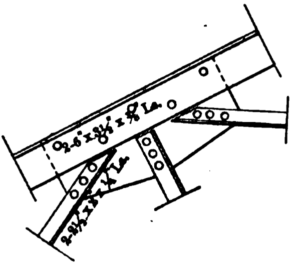


Fig. 22A. Detail of Joint *D*, Fink Truss, Fig. 7

Joint A, Fig. 7. The top-chord stress is 23 500 lb, and if one rivet carries 5 630 lb into the gusset-plate, five rivets will be required to carry this total stress. In like manner four rivets are required for the bottom chord. The supporting force or the reaction is transferred to the gusset through the bottom chord prolonged. In this case the reaction is about 8 800 lb which requires two rivets. Fig. 22 shows the arrangement of this joint at the expansion-end.

Joint D, Fig. 7. The web-members each require less than one rivet, but two or three should be used. Since the top-chord angle is continuous, the number of rivets in it is determined by the difference between the two adjacent stresses and the load of the purlin if it rests on the chord. Here again the number of rivets required falls below the minimum number. Fig. 22A shows this joint.

Joint E, Fig. 7. The piece *CE* requires four rivets and the web-members the minimum number permissible. The piece *EH* requires, at 20 000 lb per sq in bearing value, 12 500/5 630 = 2.22 rivets; but as this connection is one to be made IN THE FIELD, it is customary to increase the number 25%. This makes the required number three. Sometimes the outstanding legs are spliced to the member *CE* by a plate. Without doubt this increases the strength of the joint, but it is doubtful if the increase in strength is enough to offset the extra cost. Fowler's specifications do not permit the piece *EH* to be connected to the gusset-plate. They specify that the connection shall be made upon the right of *E*. This arrangement allows the use of a smaller gusset-plate at *E* which may be counterbalanced by the additional metal required for the splice beyond *E*. (Figs. 22B and 22c.)

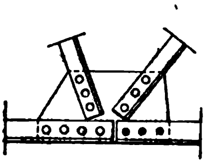


Fig. 22B. Detail of Joint *E*, Fink Truss, Fig. 7

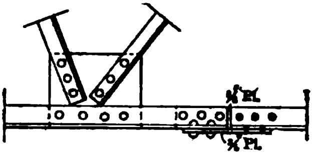


Fig. 22c. Detail of Joint *E* and Splice in *EH*, Fink Truss, Fig. 7

Joint G, Fig. 7. The pieces *BG* and *FG* are SHOP-RIVETED to the gusset on one side and FIELD-RIVETED on the other. In order to make the joint symmetrical, the number of SHOP-RIVETS is made the same as required for the FIELD-CONNECTION. In this case the top chord requires five rivets and the web-member three. Two rivets may be used in the sag-tie. (Fig. 22D.)

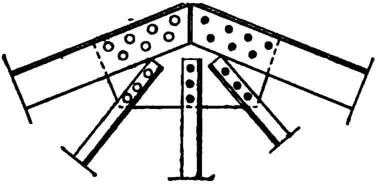


Fig. 22D. Detail of Joint *G*, Fink Truss, Fig. 7

Field-Connections. Bolts are often used instead of rivets for making FIELD-CONNECTIONS. If the bolts fit the holes snugly, there is no serious objection to their use. In fact a good bolt is better than a poor rivet. For important work, however, bolts should not be used unless turned true to size and driven into true holes. Open holes or holes for FIELD-RIVETS are indicated by BLACK CIRCLES.

Shop-Drawings. It is not advisable for the architect to make complete drawings for the steelwork. He should make what are usually designated as GENERAL DRAWINGS. These are made to scale and give the general dimensions

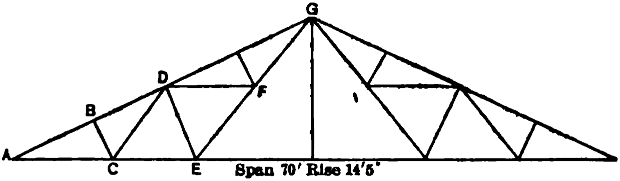


Fig. 23. Fink-truss Diagram. (See, also, Figs. 23A to 23E)

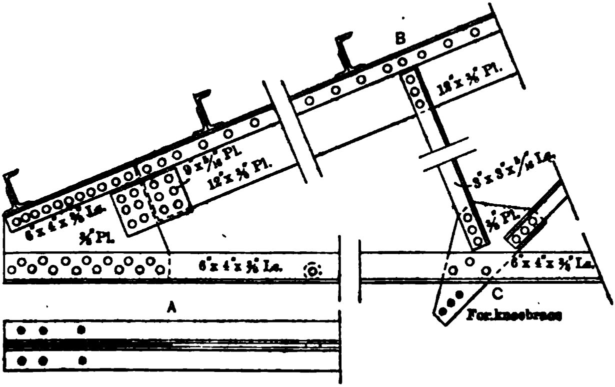


Fig. 23A. Detail of Joints *A*, *B* and *C* of Fig. 23

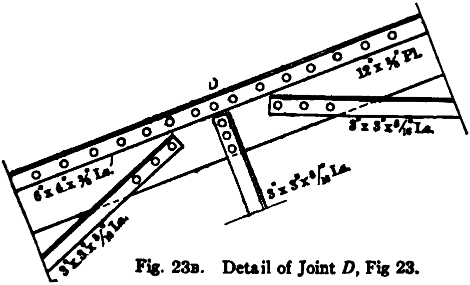


Fig. 23B. Detail of Joint *D*, Fig 23.

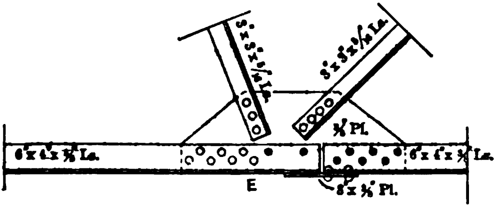


Fig. 23C. Detail of Joint *E*, Fig. 23

and sizes of the various members, and show each rivet approximately in its proper position. The manufacturer who fabricates the structure prefers to make his own SHOP-DRAWINGS to conform with his standards and methods.

Examples from Practice. Figs. 23 to 23E show the details of a modern shop-truss. These details were taken from the SHOP-DRAWINGS but with the rivet-spacing omitted. No metal under 5/16 in thickness, or rivets under ¾ in in diameter, are used. Another point may be mentioned in connection with this truss; very few BEVEL-CUTS are made. The contrary appears to be the case for the details of the very light truss shown in Figs. 24 to 24E, in which BEVEL-CUTS are made on the angles and more cuts than necessary on the gusset-plates. These two trusses were designed by manufacturers widely separated

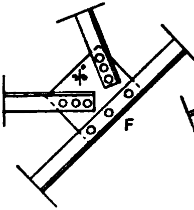


Fig. 23D. Detail of Joint *F*, Fig. 23

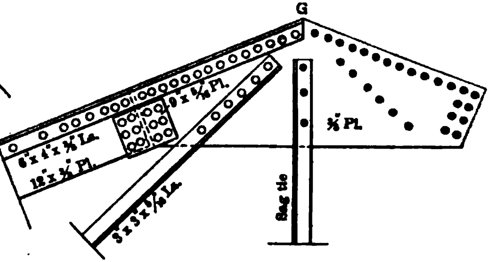


Fig. 23E. Detail of Joint *G*, Fig. 23

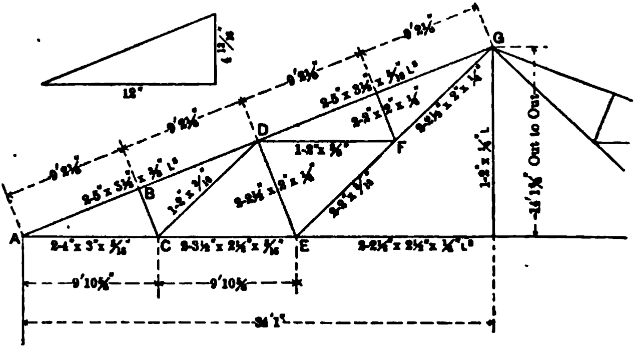


Fig. 24. Fink-truss Diagram. (See, also, Figs. 24A to 24F)

and are quite different in their details; and the variations emphasize the fact that the architect should not attempt to make SHOP-DRAWINGS.

Trusses with Knee-Braces. Fig. 25 represents joint I of Fig. 55, Chapter XXVI, and was engraved from the WORKING DRAWING made by the New Jersey Steel and Iron Company, Trenton, N. J. Another detail of a truss-connection to a column is shown in Fig. 26. This was used in the template-shop roof-truss, Ambridge plant of the American Bridge Company, Ambridge, Pa. Fig. 27

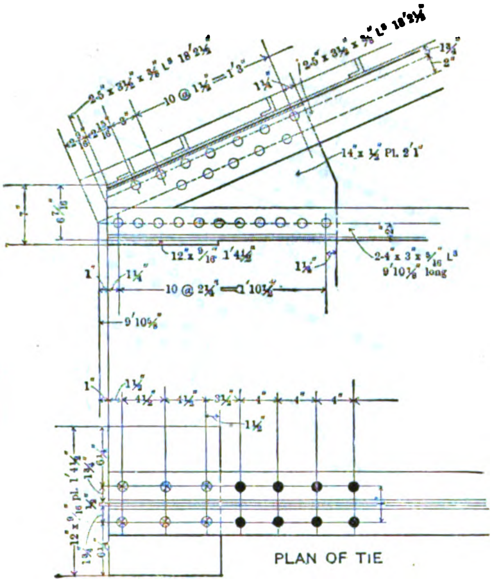


Fig. 24A. Detail of Joint *A*, Fig. 24

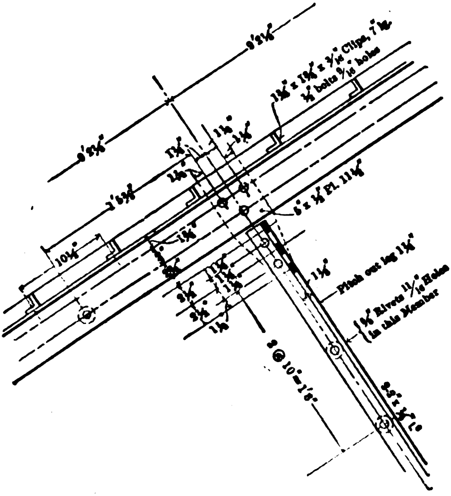


Fig. 24B. Detail of Joint *B*, Fig. 24.

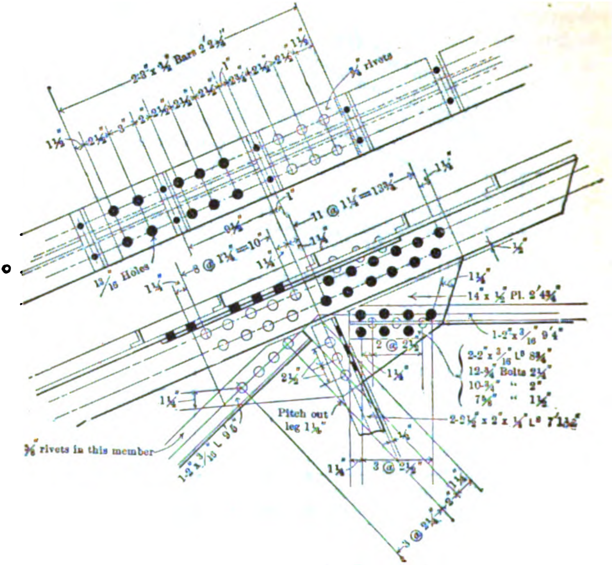


Fig. 24c. Detail of Joint *D*, Fig. 24

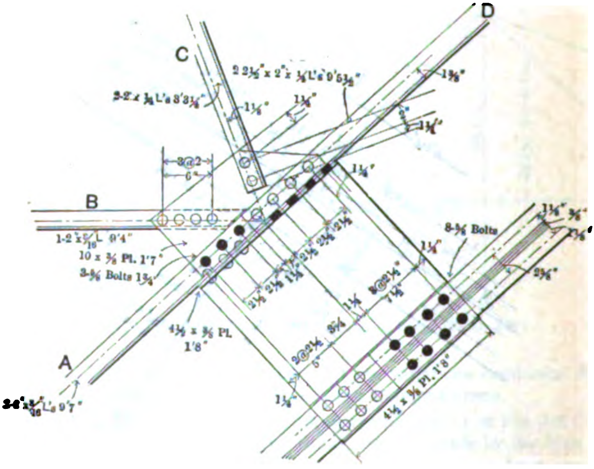


Fig. 24d. Detail of Joint *F*, Fig. 24

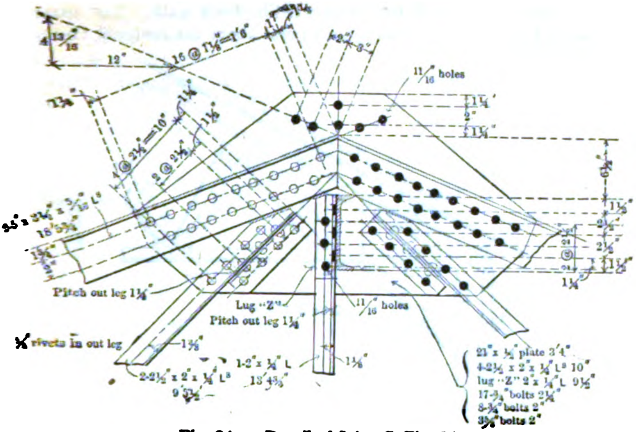


Fig. 24E. Detail of Joint *G*, Fig. 24

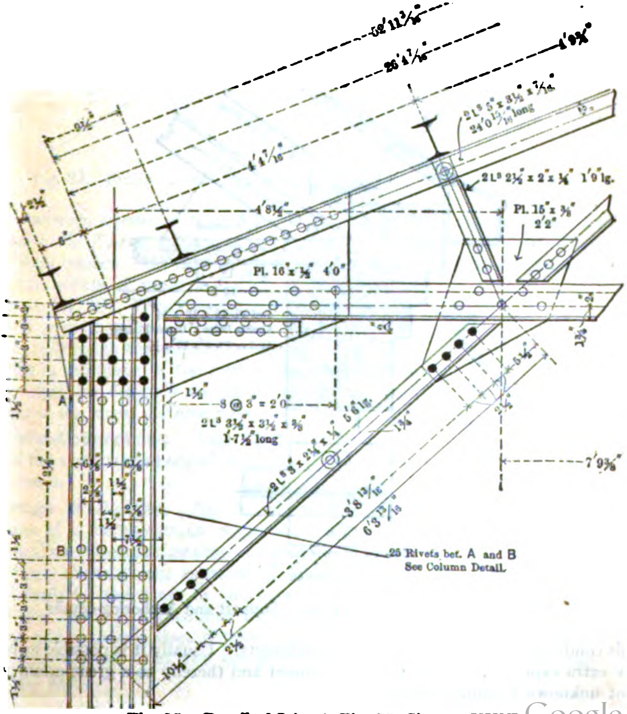


Fig. 25. Detail of Joint 1, Fig. 55, Chapter XXVI

shows the wall-end of a small truss supported by brick walls. The intersection of the STRESS-LINES is approximately in a point above the center of the support.

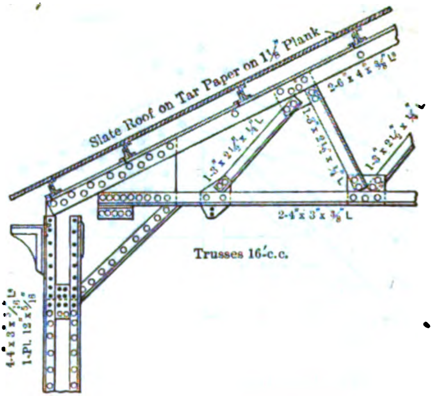


Fig. 26. Connection of Steel Truss with Steel Columns

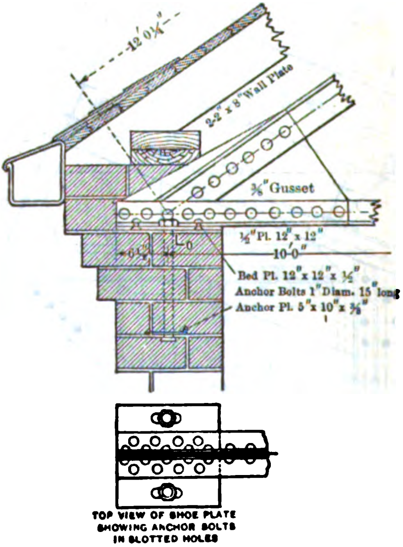


Fig. 27. Wall-end of Steel Truss. Support and Anchoring-details

This condition is seldom considered by architects. Usually it is possible without any extra expense to satisfy this requirement and thereby to a great extent prevent unknown bending-stresses.

5. Purlins and Purlin-Connections

Purlins. Where the roofing is supported directly on the purlins, as is generally the case in light steel roofs, the purlins and trusses are usually spaced so close together that simple rolled shapes may be used for the purlins. For spans between trusses of from 8 to 10 ft, angles are commonly used, and for greater spans, Z bars, channels and I beams. Wooden purlins are often used with steel trusses. If steel purlins support wooden rafters or plank roofing, a nailing-strip of wood is bolted to the purlin, as shown in Fig. 29. When the distance between purlins is 15 ft or more, a line of ⅝-in rods should run from the ridge through the purlins, to prevent them from sagging in the plane of the roof. The purlin at the ridge must be designed to take the vertical component of the stress in these rods.

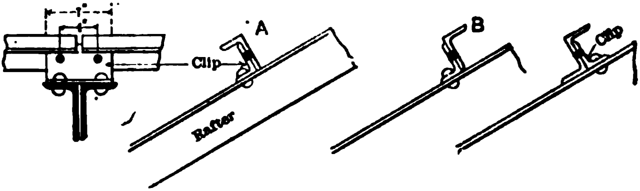


Fig. 28. Purlin-connections. Steel Clips, Angles and Z Bars

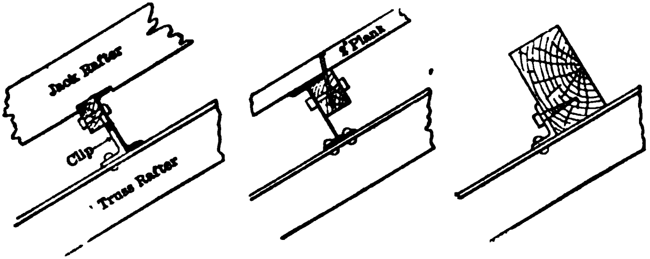


Fig. 29. Purlin-connections. Steel Sections with Wooden Nailing-strips

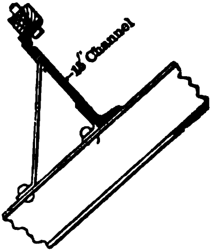


Fig. 30. Purlin-connection. Braced Channel

Purlin-Connections. Figs. 28, 29 and 30 show a few of the various methods of fastening the purlins to the trusses.

Design of Purlins. Fig. 31 shows the cross-sections of a rectangular wooden purlin and of the usual rolled steel shapes employed for purlins. As stated above, when considering wooden purlins the formula for the stress in the outer fiber is true only when used with reference to the principal axes of the section. Then, if one principal axis does not lie in the plane of the loading, the loading must be resolved into two components, respectively, parallel to the two principal axes.

Let f' = the fiber-stress with reference to the principal axis, AA, for the rectangle, 1–1 for the I beam and channel, and 4–4 for the angle and Z bar. M' = the bending moment of the component of the load which lies in the plane perpendicular to the above axis. I' = the moment of inertia of the section with reference to the above axis. c' = the distance of any selected fiber from the above axis. For the other principal axis use, f'', M'', I'' and C''; then if f is the resultant fiber-stress,

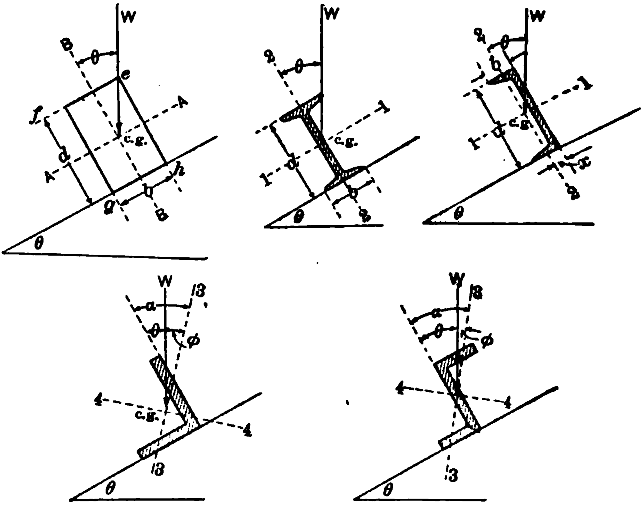


Fig. 31. Sections of Wooden and Steel Purlins

$$f = f' + f'' = M'c'/I' + M''c''/I''$$

For the rectangle,

$$f = f' + f'' = 6\,M'/bd^2 + 6\,M''/b^2d$$

For the channel and I beam,

$$f = f' + f'' = M'd/2\,I_{1-1} + M''b/2\,I_{2-2}$$

For the angle and Z bar,

$$f = f' + f'' = M'c'/I_{4-4} + M''c''I_{3-3}$$

The application of these formulas offers no difficulties except in the cases of ANGLES and Z BARS. For the other forms, the values of I and c are given in the tables of properties of the sections (Chapter X). The locations of the principal axes for the Z bars and angles are also given in the tables, but the values of c are not given for any of the fibers. The easiest way to get the value of c in any particular case is to draw the section of the angle or Z bar full size, locate the principal axes and then measure the actual distances, c.

CHAPTER XXIX

WIND-BRACING OF TALL BUILDINGS

By

N. A. RICHARDS

OF

PURDY & HENDERSON, INC., CIVIL ENGINEERS

1. Data for Wind-Pressure. Building Laws

Tall Buildings of Modern Construction, that is, buildings with skeleton frames and light curtain walls or filler walls, require that resistance to wind-pressure be considered with care. The proportions of a building and the arrangement and strength of the walls determine to what extent special bracing must be provided. Building ordinances in the larger cities usually require consideration of a stated wind-pressure. Where such ordinances do not definitely fix the assumed pressure, a unit force of 30 lb per sq ft of surface is generally considered proper and adequate. (See, also, page 150.)

Building Laws. The following are extracts* from the building ordinances of New York City, Chicago, Philadelphia and Baltimore with reference to wind-pressure:

New York (1914)

EXPOSED SURFACES. "All structures exposed to wind shall be designed to resist a horizontal wind pressure of thirty pounds for every square foot of surface thus exposed, from the ground to the top of same, including roof, in any direction.

STABILITY. "In no case shall the overturning moment due to wind pressure exceed seventy-five per centum of the moment of stability of the structure.

BRACING INTRODUCED WHEN NECESSARY. "In all structures exposed to wind, if the resisting moments of the ordinary materials of construction, such as masonry, partitions, floors and connections, are not sufficient to resist the moment of distortion due to wind pressure, taken in any direction on any part of the structure, additional bracing shall be introduced sufficient to make up the difference in the moments.

WORKING STRESSES MAY BE INCREASED. "In calculations for wind bracing, the working stresses set forth in this code may be increased by fifty per centum.

WHEN WIND PRESSURE MAY BE DISREGARDED. "In buildings under one hundred feet high, provided the height does not exceed four times the average width of the base, wind pressure may be disregarded."

Chicago (1915)

"All buildings and structures shall be designed to resist a horizontal wind pressure of twenty pounds per square foot for every square foot of exposed surface. In no case shall the overturning moment due to wind pressure exceed seventy-five per cent of the amount of stability of the structure due to the dead load only.

"For stress produced by wind forces combined with those from live and dead load, the unit stress may be increased fifty per cent over those given above; but the section shall not be less than required if wind forces be neglected."

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* Quoted literally. Form in general not edited or changed. Some paragraph-captions added by associate editor.

Philadelphia (1915)

Wind Pressure. "In all buildings allowances shall be made for wind pressure, which shall not be figured at less than thirty pounds per square foot of elevation where erected in open spaces or upon wharves. In high buildings, erected in built-up districts, the wind pressure shall not be figured for less than twenty-five pounds at tenth story, two and one-half pounds less on each succeeding lower story, and two and one-half pounds additional on each succeeding upper story, to a maximum of thirty-five pounds at fourteenth story and above.

Wind Bracing. "Wind bracing may be provided by making the connection joint between girders and columns sufficient for the vertical load as well as the bending due to side pressure; or brackets may be placed at this joint, proportioned for the side pressure; or diagonal bracing may be placed between columns, proportioned to transfer the shear of the side pressure to the footings.

Base of Column must be Anchored. Where buildings are narrow and tall, so that the overturning due to wind is more than the down pressure of the unloaded building, the base of column must be anchored down to a sufficient foundation to counteract this upward strain." *

Baltimore (1914)

Wind Pressure. "All new buildings exposed to wind shall be made strong enough to resist a horizontal wind pressure in any direction of thirty pounds per square foot of exposed surface, measuring the entire height of the building.

Calculation of. "The additional loads caused by the wind pressure upon beams, girders, walls and columns must be determined by calculation and added to other loads for such members, as provided for in Section 19 of this Article.†

Special Bracing. "Special bracing shall be employed wherever necessary to resist the distorting effect of the wind pressure.

Overturning Moment. "In no case shall the overturning moment due to the wind pressure exceed fifty per cent of the moment of the stability of the structure."

Magnitude of Unit Stresses Used for Wind-Pressure. As the above extracts indicate, it is generally considered proper to use high unit stresses when allowing for wind-pressure. The practice is based on the assumption that the highest unit wind-pressure will occur very infrequently and that its duration usually will be limited to a very few moments. It should be noted that the combined stresses due to wind-loads and dead and live loads should not exceed ordinary stresses by more than 50%. If stresses developed by the wind alone do not exceed 50% of those due to dead and live loads, they may be neglected.

2. Conditions Determining or Affecting Wind-Bracing

Construction which Resists Wind-Pressure. The dead weight of a building, the exterior walls, the interior partitions and the ordinary connections of beams to columns, all aid in resisting wind-pressure, but to a degree which is not determinable in any exact way; and these factors vary greatly, also, in different buildings. Any allowance for these factors must be largely a question of pure guesswork, or it may be judgment, based on the resistance which other buildings have offered when no special bracing was provided. It is therefore best to make special bracing take care of all, or very nearly all, of an assumed maximum pressure, when the building under consideration is unusually light in construction, or when its proportions are such as to make resistance to wind-pressure a prime consideration.

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* Stress is meant.

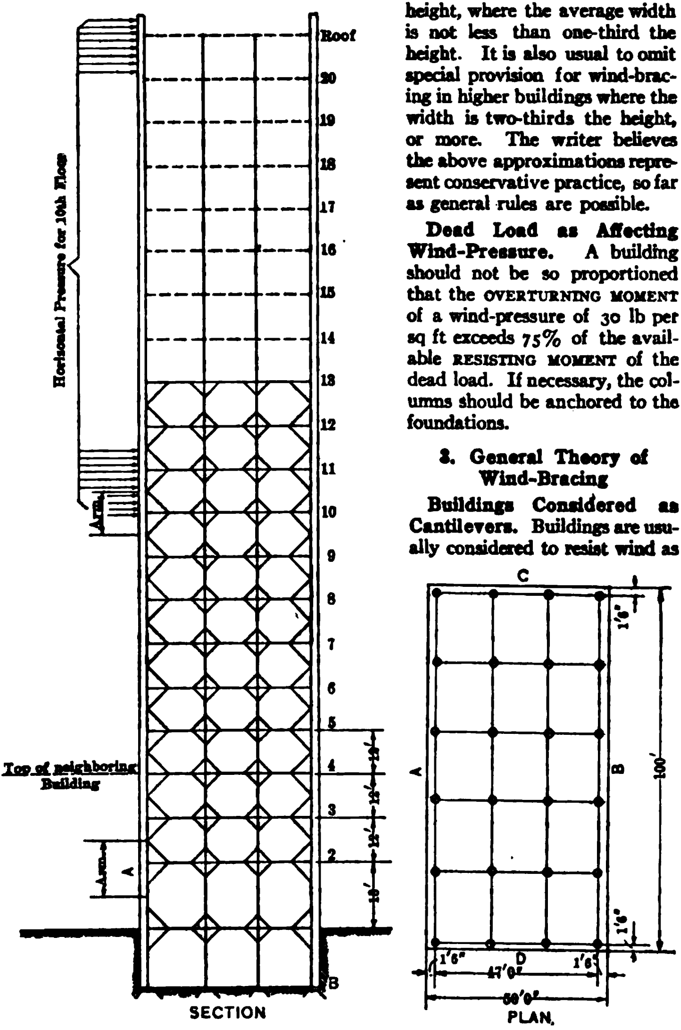
† This refers to a section of the Baltimore building laws.

Height and Width as Affecting Wind-Pressure. It is generally safe to neglect wind-pressure in structural designs for buildings ten stories or less in height, where the average width is not less than one-third the height. It is also usual to omit special provision for wind-bracing in higher buildings where the width is two-thirds the height, or more. The writer believes the above approximations represent conservative practice, so far as general rules are possible.

Dead Load as Affecting Wind-Pressure. A building should not be so proportioned that the OVERTURNING MOMENT of a wind-pressure of 30 lb per sq ft exceeds 75% of the available RESISTING MOMENT of the dead load. If necessary, the columns should be anchored to the foundations.

2. General Theory of Wind-Bracing

Buildings Considered as Cantilevers. Buildings are usually considered to resist wind as CANTILEVER GIRDERS or trusses, planted in the earth. Assuming a building of the general dimensions shown in section and plan in Fig. 1, with a wind-



SECTION PLAN.

Fig. 1. Section and Plan of Wind-braced Building

pressure against side *A*, the walls *A* and *B*, together with the columns, beams, etc., in these walls, are the FLANGES of the girders. Walls *C* and *D*, with their framing, together with other intermediate lines of vertical framing, form the WEB of the cantilever and transmit the vertical shears. Steel bracing in horizontal planes is seldom necessary, as ordinary floor-constructions are generally sufficient to transmit wind-loads to the vertical bracing. In some cases, however, it is necessary to add steel bracing in the floors. Such a case is found in the tower of the new Custom-House, in Boston, Mass. The elevators and stairs are next to the west wall throughout the typical stories. Under this arrangement there is no adequate provision in the ordinary floor-construction for a wind-pressure on the north or south face to reach the resisting bracing in the west face, as the various open wells cut off nearly all direct connection between the floors and this wall. Flat plates were therefore added on top of the floor-beams at each floor-level, running out from the wall girders behind the wells into the main floor-construction, and attached at each end with connections sufficient to transmit the horizontal increment of the wind-pressure at each floor to the bracing which resists it.

4. Arrangement of Wind-Bracing

Usual Position of the Bracing. As wind-pressure is assumed to be uniformly distributed over the face of a building, it is best to arrange systems of bracing, as nearly as may be, symmetrically about the axis of each face. It is generally easier to conceal in the exterior walls the required knees, gussets, or other braces, and bracing is usually placed there. When the lines of bracing have been selected, the areas of wall-surfaces which bring wind-pressure to each are readily determined.

Bracing of Buildings of Irregular Plan. Some buildings are of such shape that it is impossible to provide bracing of equal stiffness in lines symmetrical about the center of wind-pressure. This is notably true when the plan is TRIANGULAR, as in the so-called Flatiron Building or in the Times Building, New York City. The result is a tendency in such buildings to TWIST ABOUT A VERTICAL AXIS. The analysis of the resistance offered by a building to a twist of this sort is unsatisfactory and complicated. The stresses produced in any usual case, however, are small, if not negligible. In the examples mentioned above, provision against twist is made by the use of deep spandrel girders all around the building at each floor-level.

5. Types of Wind-Bracing

Ordinary Beam and Girder Column-Connections. Wind-bracing should be so proportioned that the joints between horizontal and vertical members are sufficient to prevent the distortion of the frame, and the main horizontal and vertical members sufficient to resist any bending moments produced throughout the joints, as well as any direct loads coming on them. The ORDINARY CONNECTIONS of steel beams to steel columns (Fig. 2) provide considerable resistance to a distortion from side thrust. This is also true, of course, of connections between beams and columns made of cast iron or concrete; but as these types are not well adapted to construction where wind-bracing is required, they will not be considered. A usual connection for beams or girders to columns consists of CLIP-ANGLES above and below the beam, and perhaps a STIFFENER below, if the beam is large. Usually, in high buildings, four rivets are used to connect either flange to the clip-angles above and below, and four to connect each clip to the column. The value of four rivets, in single shear, multiplied by the depth of the beam, gives the RESISTING VALUE of such a connection against a moment due to side thrust. In lower buildings it is usual to specify two rivets instead of four in each flange, and in the case of very high or narrow buildings, six rivets are sometimes used.

Resistance of Beam and Girder-Connections to Wind-Pressure. It is sometimes assumed that the connections of all beams or girders (running in the same direction as the wind) to columns act at their full value to resist the wind. This is undoubtedly wrong, because the many connections could probably not be made to work at the same time, and also because building-frames are seldom arranged so that such a result could be possible, under any rational assumption, in regard to the distribution of the vertical shears. SIDE CLIPS are sometimes added to the column-connections to furnish additional stiffness. They are not of great value, however, as on most beams they are not deep enough to help much.

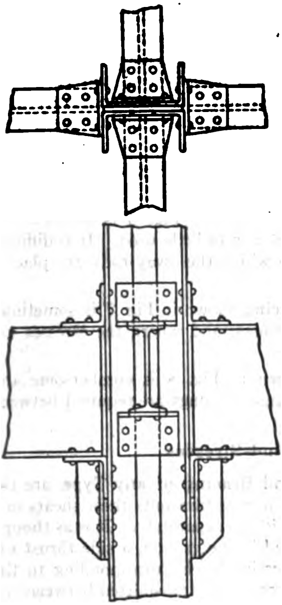


Fig. 2. Ordinary Girder and Column-connections

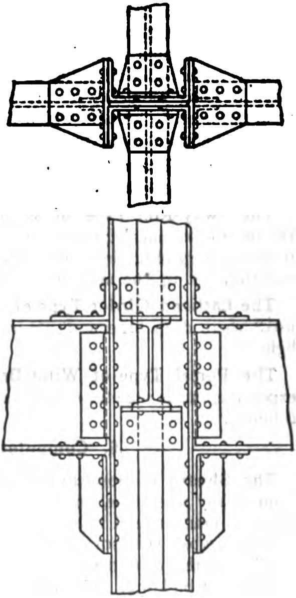


Fig. 3. Heavy Girder and Column-connection

Heavy Column-Connections in Wind-Resistance. Column-connections are sometimes made very heavy, as shown in Fig. 3. A connection of this kind can be arranged to resist a large TWIST. The RESISTING VALUE is, of course, measured by the resisting moment of the rivets connecting the beam to the clip-angles, or by the connection of the angles to the column. This type is used where the resistance to wind is provided for in a very large number of connections, perhaps in all the column-connections, throughout the buildings. Such an arrangement was used in the Hudson Terminal Buildings, New York City. There are several objections to this type of connection. Double beams or girders are required, and the resulting finish is awkward in appearance; the cost, also, of double, compared with single, beams and girders, is high. The additional fireproofing, also, increases the expense, and on the whole, it does not generally prove a satisfactory method of stiffening a building.

The Gusset-Plate Type of Wind-Bracing. In addition to ordinary beam and girder-connections, as described in the preceding paragraphs, there are several distinct types of special wind-bracing commonly employed. Perhaps the most common form is the GUSSET-PLATE, shown in Fig. 4. This is not usually an economical type, as it requires much field-riveting and results in large bending moments in the columns and girders. It accommodates itself well, however, to walls in which there are openings, and is generally easily concealed by architectural treatments.

The Knee-Brace Type of Wind-Bracing shown in Fig. 5 is also commonly used where wind-bracing is placed in exterior walls.

The Sway-Rod Type of Wind-Bracing shown in Fig. 6 is theoretically the most economical type of wind-bracing, but is now little used. It is difficult to arrange openings in walls or partitions in which the sway-rods are placed, and they cut up the masonry considerably.

The Latticed-Girder Type of Wind-Bracing shown in Fig. 7 is sometimes used where deep bracing is desirable for stiffness, and where the stresses are light.

The Portal Type of Wind-Bracing shown in Fig. 8 is cumbersome and expensive, but is sometimes necessary where large openings are required between columns.

6. Computation of Wind-Stresses

The Shears to be Transmitted by Wind-Bracing of any Type are the same in any given case, but the bracing of each type transmits these shears in a different manner, and thus each must be considered separately. It is as though a PLATE GIRDER with SOLID WEB were set on end in the ground, a side thrust exerted, and the WEB THEN CUT AWAY at successive levels corresponding to the stories in a building. The amount of the shears to be transmitted between the flanges would not vary as holes in the web were made, but the road by which the shears traveled would need to be determined by the character of the resulting construction after the holes were cut; and the exact character of the secondary stresses, also, set up in the remaining portions of the web, would depend entirely upon the number and size of holes and their position in the web. The investigation of the shears and moments taken care of by the individual members of a bracing-system may be likened to a study of the secondary stresses in the mutilated web in the imaginary plate girder described above. For a building it is generally convenient to determine the VERTICAL-SHEAR INCREMENTS at each level of bracing, and use these increments in the further analysis of the bending moments and shears in the individual members of the system.

7. Illustration of Method of Computing Wind-Stresses

Thrusts, Vertical Shears and Moment-Increments. If bracing is placed in the walls *C* and *D*, Fig. 1, it is assumed that one-half the length of the building contributes pressure to each line. Let it be further assumed, for the present, that these lines of bracing are the only features of the construction offering a resistance to wind-bracing against side *A*. Then, assuming the wind to blow at 30-lb pressure per sq ft, perpendicular to side *A*, there are HORIZONTAL THRUSTS in each story, on each line of bracing, of 50 by 12 by 30 lb, or 18 000 lb. Referring to Table I, page 1178, there are found listed in the second column of the table these horizontal thrusts at each floor. It is assumed that no additional wind-pressure reached the building below the fourth floor. In the third column of the table these horizontal thrusts, ΣH, are summarized from the top down to each floor-level, giving the TOTAL HORIZONTAL THRUSTS. For example, 202 500 lb is the total horizontal thrust down to and including the tenth floor. Each tier of bracing must transmit a VERTICAL SHEAR equal to the difference in flange-stress between a point midway in the story above the tier in question, and a point midway in the story below. This difference of flange-stress can, of course, be found by ascertaining the difference in bending moments between the two points, and dividing by the effective depth of the system, as in a plate girder or truss. It will now appear that the differences in moments applying to each tier may easily be found and tabulated. These will be called the MOMENT-INCREMENTS. They have been tabulated for the assumed case in the fifth column of the table. Of course, the sum of all the moment-increments must equal the TOTAL OVERTURNING MOMENT of the wind. The simplest way to obtain the moment-increment for any tier is to multiply the total horizontal thrust, ΣH, down to the level in question by the distance between points midway in the stories above and below the tier. Thus, for the tenth floor, 202 500 by 12 equals 2 430 000 ft-lb.

The Increments of Vertical Shear are found by dividing the moment-increments by the effective depth of the cantilever, in this case, 47 ft. The VERTICAL INCREMENTS are listed in the sixth column of the table. It is usual to take the full depth between outside columns as the effective depth of the cantilever. This is not strictly correct where there are four or more columns in the plane of the bracing, but the assumption is made on the ground that the walls *A* and *B* furnish flanges which are so many times more effective than the intermediate columns that the latter may be neglected. If there are a number of columns in the plane of the bracing, say six or seven, this assumption becomes rather too inaccurate, and the effective depth should be reduced. The function of the bracing, as heretofore stated, is to carry between the flanges at each floor-level the increments of vertical shears thus found. The summation of all the vertical increments from the top down gives the TOTAL VERTICAL LOAD and UPLIFT due to wind, on the corner-columns, or more correctly, on the outside flanges of the girder.

Excess Vertical Shear. In this assumed case, the total uplift exceeds the probable dead and live loads on the corner-columns. This, however, is not serious, provided there are sufficient means furnished for transferring any excess of load or uplift into the walls *A* and *B*, which act as flanges to the wind-resisting girder. As a general rule, the side walls of a city building are not much reduced by windows, and in higher buildings there are usually spandrel beams in the walls at each floor. With such an arrangement a considerable amount of EXCESS SHEAR can be taken care of. In some cases special bracing may be necessary, at least in the end-panels of walls *A* and *B*.

The Total Vertical or Flange-Stress. When considering any question regarding the VERTICAL LOAD or UPLIFT, such as the one described in the preceding paragraphs, it should be kept in mind that totals should be used without reductions of any sort. Vertical forces forming couples to resist the wind must be the same whether they are transmitted through the masonry walls or through special steel bracing. Referring again to the illustration of the plate girder set up in the earth, the vertical shears are dependent only on the force of the wind and the effective depth of the girder. The exact WEB-STRESS will vary with the form and arrangement of the web, but the TOTAL VERTICAL OF FLANGE-STRESS must remain the same in any case.

Indeterminate Resistance-Factors. An analysis which makes no allowance for the resistance of walls, ordinary connections, etc., to wind is fairly direct and simple, and the bracing can be proportioned with as much precision as any structural feature. When the wind-resistance of a building is a primary consideration, as in a tower, the analysis should be made thus, for only in this way can a result be obtained, where it is not required to rely on almost unsupported judgment for the value of INDETERMINATE FACTORS OF RESISTANCE. When, however, ordinary buildings of usual proportions are under consideration, it is customary and well to make allowance for the INTEDERMINATE FACTORS, to the best of one's judgment. This is necessary for economy, and is perfectly proper so long as usual cases are to be dealt with.

Table I. Thrusts, Shears, Moment-Increments, etc., for the Building Shown in Fig. 1

I Floor	II Horizontal thrust at each floor, *H*	III Total horizontal thrusts from roof to each floor, ΣH	IV Arm, *A*	V Moment-increment, *M*	VI Vertical increment, *V*	VII Total vertical increments from roof down, ΣV	VIII Corrected vertical increment,
	lb	lb	ft	ft-lb	lb	lb	lb
Roof	4 500	4 500	6	27 000	550	550	......
20	18 000	22 500	12	270 000	5 750	6 300	......
19	18 000	40 500	12	486 000	10 350	16 650	....
18	18 000	58 500	12	702 000	14 950	31 600	....
17	18 000	76 500	12	918 000	19 500	51 100	......
16	18 000	94 500	12	1 134 000	24 100	75 200	......
15	18 000	112 500	12	1 350 000	28 700	103 900	......
14	18 000	130 500	12	1 566 000	33 300	137 200	......
13	18 000	148 500	12	1 782 000	37 900	175 100	4 600
12	18 000	166 500	12	1 998 000	42 600	217 700	9 300
11	18 000	184 500	12	2 214 000	47 200	264 900	13 900
10	18 000	202 500	12	2 430 000	51 800	316 700	18 500
9	18 000	220 500	12	2 646 000	56 400	373 100	23 100
8	18 000	238 500	12	2 862 000	61 000	434 100	27 700
7	18 000	256 500	12	3 078 000	65 600	499 700	32 300
6	18 000	274 500	12	3 294 000	70 200	569 900	36 900
5	18 000	292 500	12	3 510 000	74 700	644 600	41 400
4	18 000	310 500	12	3 726 000	79 300	723 900	46 000
3	....	310 500	12	3 726 000	79 300	803 200	46 000
2	....	310 500	15	4 657 500	99 200	902 400	65 900
1	....	310 500	15	4 657 500	99 200	1 001 600	65 900

Scheme for Developing Special Bracing. The writer offers the foll as a reasonable and consistent scheme for DEVELOPING SPECIAL BRACING wh such allowances are considered. Unfortunately, it does not seem poss recommend any method of determining the correct allowances, except such ge eral guides as are mentioned in Subdivision 2, page 1172. In each instan some one familiar with construction and usual practice should decide h down from the top it will be safe to assume the building rigid and secure against wind, without special bracing. In this case, let it be assumed that the building is capable of safely resisting the wind, without the aid of special bracing, as far down as the thirteenth floor. Then, assuming that the walls, beam-connections, etc., remain reasonably the same in the floors below, it is fair to say that the amount of the increment at the fourteenth floor can be deducted from the moment-increment at each floor below.

Corrected Vertical Increments. The corrected vertical increments found in this manner should be used only in the proportioning of special bracing. The full overturning moment of the wind, and the full vertical shears, should be used in considering all other effects of the wind and the resistance of the building to it. It should also be borne in mind that this method of proportioning bracing is, at best, largely dependent upon individual opinion, and in any unusual case it is far better to err on the safe side, even to the extent of disregarding altogether the uncertain factors of resistance. The corrected vertical increments for the assumed case have been listed in the eighth column of Table I. Since the flanges of the building, acting as an upright cantilever girder, have been assumed concentrated in the outside walls *A* and *B* (Fig. 1), it follows that the vertical-shear increments will be constant from outside to outside of bracing.

8. Analysis of Stresses in Different Types of Wind-Bracing

The Horizontal Thrusts, which must be carried by the bracing at each level as struts, are small and can usually be neglected. The maximum horizontal thrust possible can not exceed the horizontal pressure of the wind for one story, or, in the example, 18 000 lb.

The Total Horizontal Shear. The columns in the bracing-system must carry the total horizontal shear in each story, but this, also, is usually very small in comparison with the shearing resistance of the columns and can be neglected.

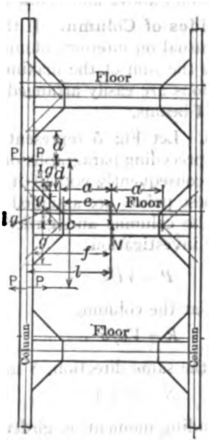


Fig. 4. Gusset-plate Type of Wind-bracing

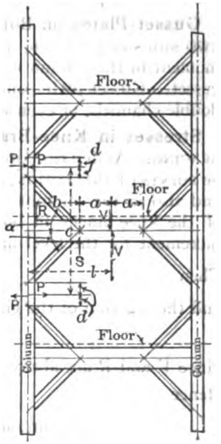


Fig. 5. Knee-brace Type of Wind-bracing

Stresses in Gusset-Plates. Fig. 4 represents a typical panel of gusset-bracing. Under the influence of a side pressure there would be a tendency to distort the frame, changing the angle between the vertical and horizontal members; that is, the columns and girders. For this investigation, a girder at any level is considered, with gusset-plates at either end, as shown. These gusset-plates act to prevent the distortion, and since they both, at either end, resist the same wind-action, the twisting moment in each has the same sign. But if they twist in the same direction at opposite ends of the girder, there is somewhere along the girder and between the gussets a POINT OF INFLECTION or a POINT OF NO BENDING. The position of this point varies with the relative strength of the two gussets, but for simplicity it is usually assumed midway between them and they are then proportioned to take care of the resulting moments. Let the point of inflection in the example be thus taken. As there is no bending moment at this point, the bending moment at any other point on the girder may be found by multiplying V, the increment of vertical shear for the level in question, by the distance from the point of inflection. So, at the toe of the gusset-plate, the bending moment on the girder equals V multiplied by e, and this is the MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT ON THE GIRDER. The flange-stress having been determined from this bending moment, it is possible to fix the number of rivets required to fasten the flanges to the gusset. The connection of the web to the gusset must provide for a shear equal to V. V multiplied by f gives the moment produced through the gusset at the face of the column. The rivets connecting the gusset to the column must be sufficient to resist this moment.

Points of Inflection occur in the columns midway between the gussets, jus as in the girders. The bending moment in the column may be obtained approxi-mately by assuming the moment exerted through the gusset-plates to be applied in the form of a couple acting at points two-thirds of the way out from the cente of the gusset to the tips, as indicated. The MAXIMUM BENDING MOMENT IN EAC COLUMN will then be the horizontal force P multiplied by d. P is obtained b multiplying V by l and dividing by c, l being the distance from the inflectio point in the girder to the axis of the column, and c being the distance betwe the inflection-points in the column above and below the girder.

Gusset-Plates on Both Sides of Column. If there are GUSSET-PLATES TWO SIDES of a column, as is usual on interior columns, the maximum bend moment in the column will be the sum of the maximum moments due to ea gusset. Gusset-plate connections are easily arranged with plate girders or w double channels, or even with I beams.

Stresses in Knee-Braces. Let Fig. 5 represent a typical panel of KN BRACING. As described in the preceding paragraphs on gusset-plates, there m be POINTS OF INFLECTION, and consequently POINTS OF NO BENDING, in the gir and also in the columns. These points are assumed midway between the e of the knee-braces in both the columns and girders. Let V be the ver increment for the level under investigation.

Then
$$P = Vl/c$$

and the reaction of the girder at the column,
$$R = Va/b$$

Since V and R act always in the same direction, S must be equal to their

Hence
$$S = R + V$$

$$\text{Maximum bending moment on girder} = Ve$$

or the equivalent

$$\text{Maximum bending moment on girder} = Rb$$
$$\text{Maximum bending moment on column} = Pd$$
$$\text{Stress in each knee-brace} = \tfrac{1}{2} S \text{ cosecant } \alpha.$$

It is evident that R is the shear anywhere between the intersection-po the center line of the knee-braces and the columns, and that V is the she where between the braces at either end of the girder. All web-splices, and also the pitch of flange-rivets, must be proportioned from these shears.

Arrangement of Braces for No Bending Moment in Girder or Column. It is apparent from the above that the nearer a and d approach zero the less the bending moments in the girder and column become. If the intersections of the center lines of the braces can be arranged so that a and d become zero, there will be NO BENDING MOMENTS in the girders or columns.

Knee-Braces on One Side, Only, of Girder. It is often necessary to arrange KNEE-BRACES ON ONE SIDE, only, of the girder, either above or below. In a case of this kind the girder itself serves as one arm of the brace, and

$$\text{The stress in the single knee} = S \text{ cosecant } \alpha$$

R and S are as determined above, but there must also be taken into account the horizontal stress in the girder, due to its action as one arm of the brace.

$$\text{Horizontal stress in girder} = Vl/(\tfrac{1}{2}c - d)$$

The connection between the column and the girder must provide for the combined action of R vertical and $Vl/(\tfrac{1}{2}c - d)$ horizontal.

Stresses in Sway-Rods. For the correct analysis of SWAY-BRACING (Fig. 6), the vertical increments should be found in a manner slightly different from that described in Subdivision 7, pages 1176–9. The horizontal pressures are found as before, except that the total pressures from the top down to each floor include, in each case, the additional pressures against areas of one-half the story below. The arm, A, for each level should be the story-height below. (See section, in Fig. 1 and fourth column of Table I.) The vertical increments are found just as for the other types, except for these slight variations; and, again, these vertical increments are constant throughout each story. The STRESS IN ANY DIAGONAL equals the vertical increment in the story multiplied by the cosecant of the angle α (Fig. 6). It is assumed that the diagonals are used for tension only and that, consequently, only one system acts at a time. Each horizontal member must take compression equal to the vertical increment in the story below, multiplied by the cotangent of α. If the joints are arranged so that axial lines of members intersect, there will be no bending either in the columns or the horizontal members.

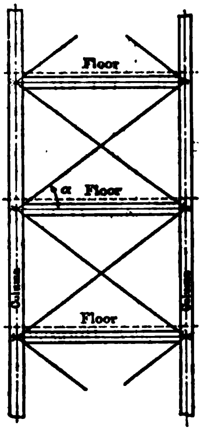


Fig. 6. Sway-rod Type of Wind-bracing

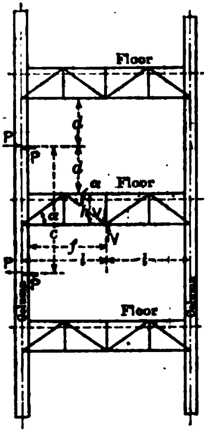


Fig. 7. Latticed-girder Type of Wind-bracing

Stresses in Latticed Girders. Let V in Fig. 7 equal the vertical increment for any story. As in the other types, V is constant between the columns, and the stress in any diagonal equals V multiplied by the cosecant of α. As in the

GUSSET-TYPE and KNEE-BRACE TYPE, there is no bending at the middle section of the girder-length, and consequently no stress in the middle section of the top chord. The maximum bending moment in the girder is at the column-face, and this

$$\text{Maximum bending moment in the girder} = Vf$$

The maximum chord-stress is at this same point, and this

$$\text{Maximum chord-stress} = Vf/h$$

The connections of the chords to the columns must provide against this maximum stress.

$$P = Vl/c$$

and the

$$\text{Maximum bending moment in the column} = Pd$$

Stresses in Portal Bracing. It is not possible to analyze exactly the stresses in PORTAL BRACING (Fig. 8), when it is used in connection with columns of continuous section. The analysis here given follows that of C. T. Purdy in "Modern Framed Structures." It is considerably on the safe side, and for ordinary cases can well be followed. In a large building, where much bracing of this type might be used, the exact form of the PORTALS should be determined, and greater allowance made for the effect of CONTINUOUS COLUMNS.

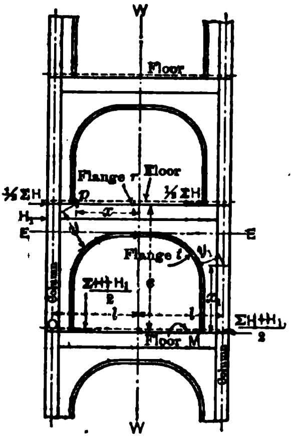


Fig. 8. Portal Type of Wind-bracing

Let ΣH equal the accumulated force of horizontal shear from the wind at the floor next above floor M, applied half on one side and half on the other. Let H_1 equal the force of the wind or the shear directly tributary to floor M. Then, taking moments about O (Fig. 8)

$$V \times 2l = (\Sigma H + H_1)c$$

or

$$V = (\Sigma H + H_1)c/2l$$

and the

$$\text{Horizontal reaction} = \tfrac{1}{2}(\Sigma H + H_1)$$

To determine the maximum stress in the curved flange t, assume a point p in the flange r, horizontally distant x from the line WW, and at the distance y, measured normal to a tangent to any point in the flange t; then, taking the center of moments at the left extremity of the distance x, the stress in the flange t multiplied by y, equals V multiplied by x, or Vx/y equals the stress in the flange t, at the section taken, and this is a maximum when x/y has its greatest value.

Each leg of the portal, including the column, may be considered as a CANTILEVER with two forces acting on it, the horizontal force $\tfrac{1}{2}(\Sigma H + H_1)$ and the vertical force $(\Sigma H + H_1)c/2l$, the flange t (of the right leg for example) being in COMPRESSION and the column itself acting as a TENSION-CHORD. Assuming a point on the axial line of the column, distant x_1 from the bottom of the leg and at right-angles to, and distant y_1, measured normal to a tangent to any point in the flange t, and taking moments about this assumed point, the stress in the flange t multiplied by y_1 equals $\tfrac{1}{2}(\Sigma H + H_1)$ multiplied by x_1, or the stress in the flange t equals ½ ($\Sigma H + H_1$) multiplied by x_1/y_1, and this is a maximum when x_1/y_1 has its greatest value. There is approximation in this treatment, but it is on the side of safety. If the flange t has a section proportioned to these maximum stresses the requirements will be fulfilled. The stress in, and section-area required for, the flange r can be obtained in a similar manner. The connection of the portal above this flange to the portal and column above must be such that it will safely resist the stress ½ ΣH at each leg.

9. Combination of Dead and Live Loads with Wind-Loads

General Principles. It usually happens that the same girders that are used as wind-bracing serve also to carry floors or walls. The dead and live loads should be considered with the wind, and the RESULTANT COMBINED STRESSES ascertained. It should be borne in mind that the maximum bending moment caused by the wind is often at a point on the girder more or less removed from the point of maximum bending moment for dead and live loads. When RESULTANT SHEARS AND MOMENTS are considered, in which the forces are the wind-load and the live and dead loads, it is generally deemed proper to use unit stresses 50% in excess of those of common practice under usual loading. The columns should be investigated for direct live, dead and wind-loads and for the bending due to wind. The RESULTANT STRESS, again, should not exceed 150% of the stresses generally used for live and dead loads only. It is often best to design columns with a special view to proper connections for bracing. This aids in

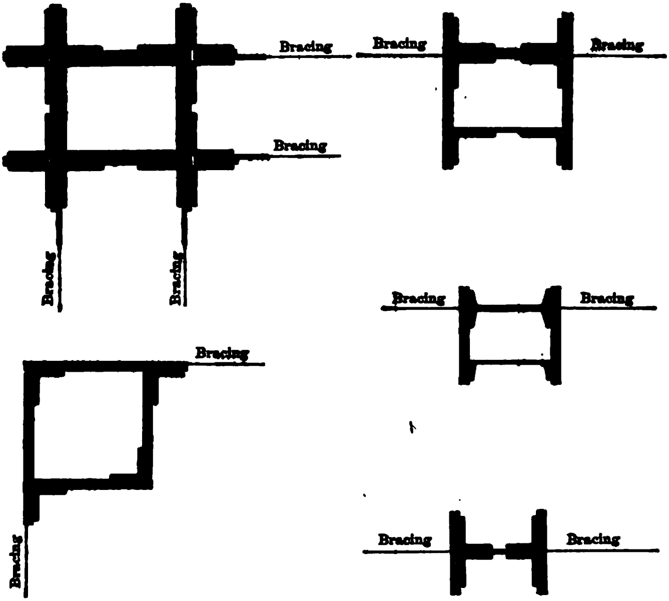


Fig. 9. Types of Columns Arranged for Wind-bracing.

both design and detail. In Fig. 9 are shown a few TYPICAL ARRANGEMENTS of column-material illustrating this point.

10. Wind-Bracing of Water-Towers and Similar Structures

The Principles Involved in Water-Tower Bracing. In the case of a TOWER WITHOUT MASONRY WALLS, a problem is presented much simpler than that of a building, as the INDETERMINATE FACTORS OF RESISTANCE are largely eliminated. The bracing should be designed to resist the full wind-pressure. It should be borne in mind that in water-towers the condition of MINIMUM STABILITY obtains when the tank is empty. The most common form for tower-bracing is the SWAY-ROD. The analysis of stresses is the same as described on page 1181. The application of the thrust is largely at the top where the tank stands, but this does not in any way alter the analysis. The legs of water-towers are frequently SLOPED to give a greater spread at the bottom. In this case the stresses are more readily determined by GRAPHIC METHODS than by algebraic or trigonometrical computation. (See Chapter XXVII.)

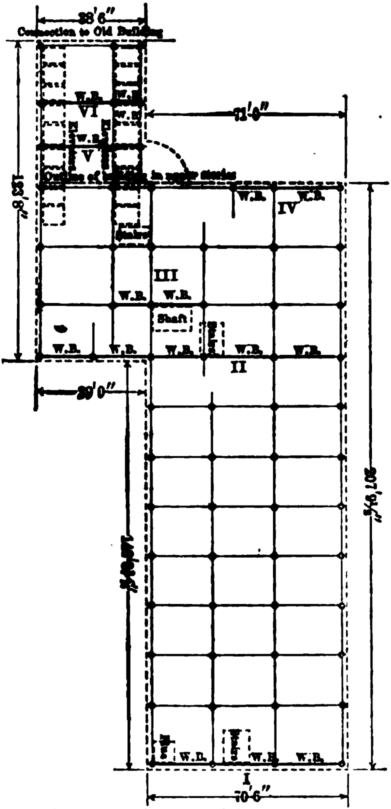

38'6"
Connection to Old Building
W.B.
VI
V
Outline of building in upper stories
71'0"
153'8"
IV
III
Shaft
II
29'0"
307'9⅝"
I
70'6"

Fig. 10. Whitehall Building. Plan and Lines of Bracing

The Assumed Unit Pressures should be somewhat greater for towers than for buildings. Towers are small in comparison with buildings, and the probability of the full wind-pressure being developed over the entire surface is greater. Probably 40 lb per sq ft is ample. Pressure against a CYLINDRICAL BODY, such as a tank, may be taken at about two-thirds of the full pressure against the projection of the diametrical plane. The stresses under this assumed pressure should be kept within usual bounds for ordinary dead or live loads. The anchorage of each post should exceed, by a safe margin, the full uplift due to the assumed pressure. The weight of water in the tank should not be considered as resisting the uplift.

A Good Example of a Steel Water-Tower is described and illustrated in the Engineering Record of June 20, 1903, the stress-diagrams and details of construction being given.

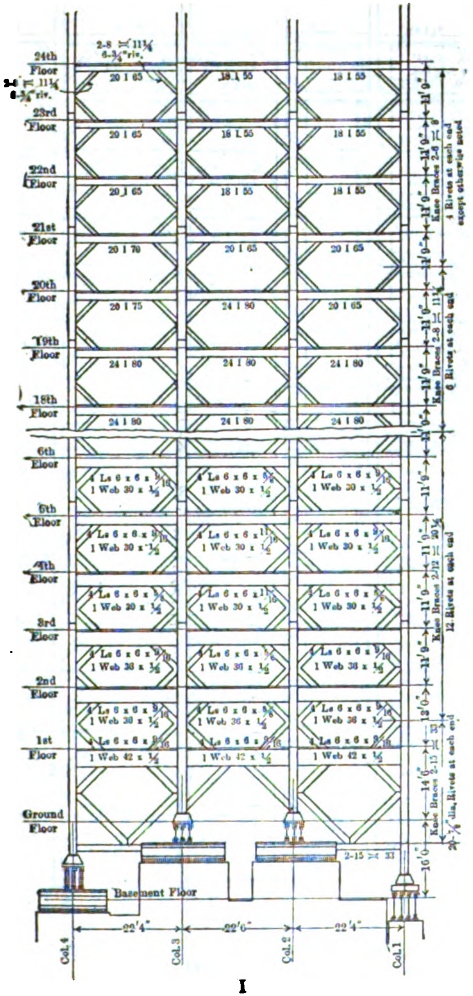


Fig. 11. Whitehall Building. Wind-bracing on Line I, Fig. 10

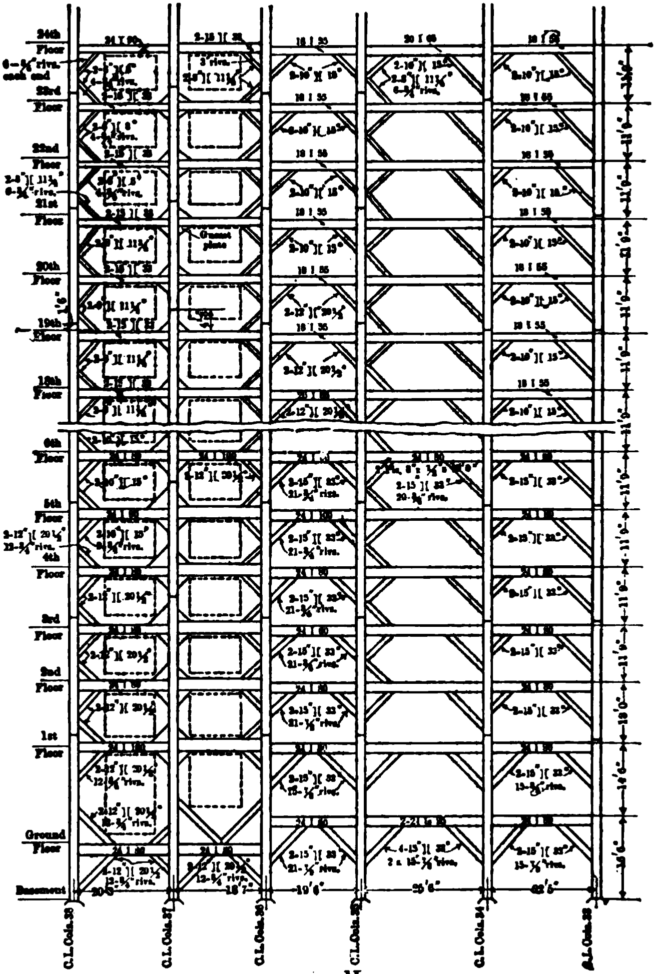


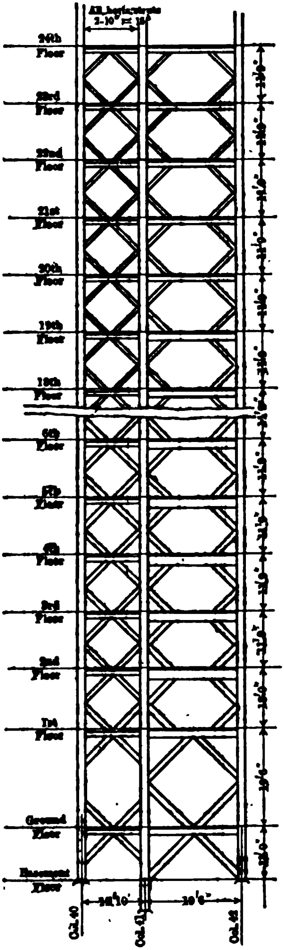
Fig. 12. Whitehall Building. Wind-bracing on Line II, Fig. 10

11. Recent Examples of Wind-Bracing in Tall Buildings*

The Whitehall Building† (Figs. 10 to 17), 2 to 14 West Street, New York City, consists of a thirty-one story addition to the earlier Battery Place Building. It joins the older twenty-story building which is on the south. As the plan, Fig. 10, indicates, the building is very long and narrow when compared with its height and it represents a type in which wind-bracing must be considered an essential feature. The six lines of bracing indicated on the plan (Fig. 10) by the Roman numerals and the letters W.B. were chosen so as to interfere as little as possible with the requirements of the plan. KNEE-BRACES were used as far as practicable, but in several instances it was necessary to use GUSSETS because of the limited space available. It was assumed that the ordinary connections of girders to columns, and the walls, furnished sufficient stiffness down to the twenty-fourth floor-level. Below that level the bracing was proportioned as described on pages 1179–80; that is, allowance was made for the INDETERMINATE FACTORS OF RESISTANCE equal to the wind-moment at the twenty-fourth floor.

The United States Realty Building‡ (Fig. 18), 115 Broadway, New York City, is another example of a building in which SPECIAL BRACING is quite essential. It is twenty-one stories high, and its width is small when compared with its length and height. Bracing was used, as indicated, in the end-walls, but it was not feasible to put enough in these lines to do all the work. Additional lines were therefore added between some of the elevator-shafts and in other places as shown on the plan. No special bracing was used above the fifteenth floor.

The Morton Building§ (Fig. 19), 681 Fifth Avenue, New York City, is but twelve stories high, but is rather narrow. The building is on an interior lot, and it was necessary to keep the openings in the exterior walls as large as possible, in order to properly light the interior. This, of course, made the exterior walls of but little value



III

Fig. 13. Whitehall Building. Wind-bracing on Line III, Fig. 10

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* Purdy & Henderson acted as designing engineers for these buildings.

† Clinton & Russell, architects.

‡ Francis H. Kimball, architect.

§ McKim, Mead & White, architects.

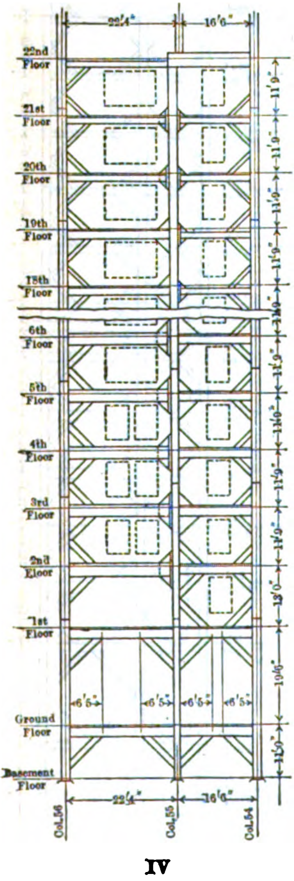

Fig. 14. Whitehall Building. Wind-bracing on Line IV, Fig. 10

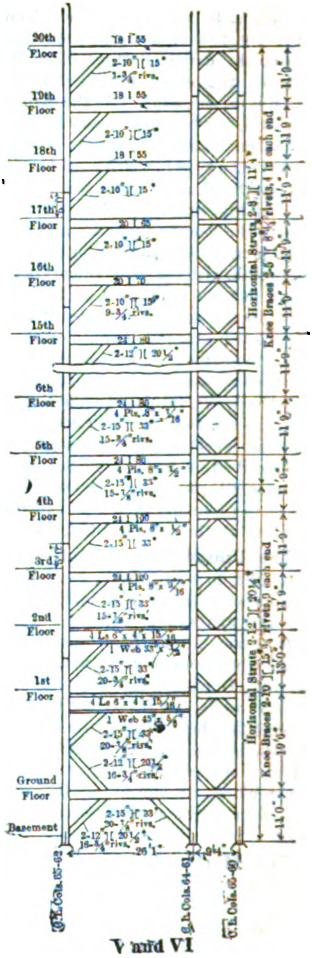

Fig. 15. Whitehall Building. Wind-bracing on Line V and VI, Fig. 10

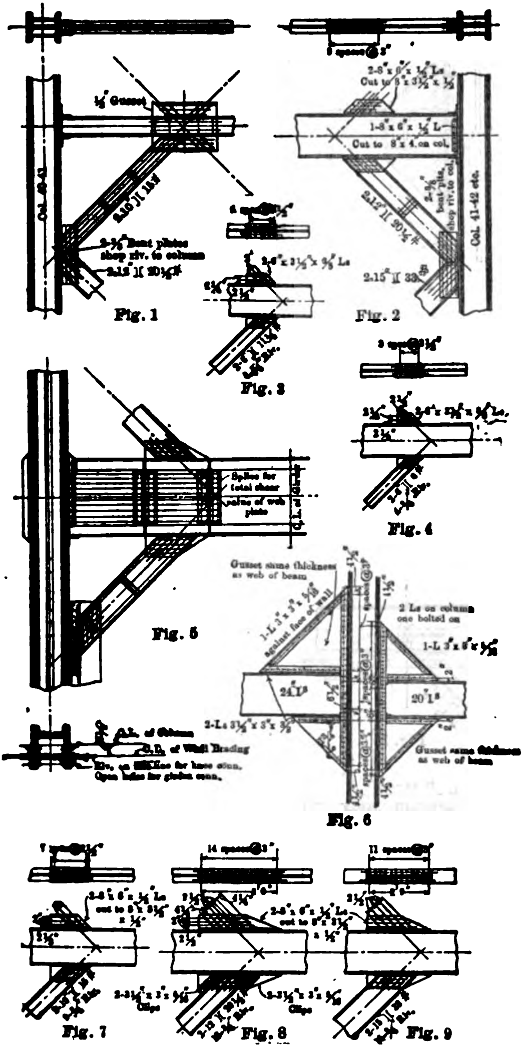

Fig. 1 Fig. 2 Fig. 3 Fig. 4 Fig. 5 Fig. 6 Fig. 7 Fig. 8 Fig. 9

½" Gusset
Col. 40-41
2-10"][15#
2-⅝" Bent plates shop riv. to column
2-12"][20½#
2-8" x 6" x ½" Ls Cut to 8" x 3½" x ½"
1-8" x 6" x ½" L Cut to 8" x 4. on col.
2-⅝" bent plts. shop riv. to col.
2-12"][20½#
Col. 41-42 etc.
2-15"][33#
2-6" x 3½" x ⅝" Ls
2½"
2½"
2-6" x 3½" x ⅝" Ls.
2½"
Splice for total shear value of web plate
C.L. of Girder
Gusset same thickness as web of beam
1-L 3" x 3" x 5/16" against face of wall
2 Ls on column one bolted on
1-L 3" x 6" x 5/16"
24" I
20" I
2-Ls 3½" x 3" x ⅜"
Gusset same thickness as web of beam
C.L. of Column
C.L. of Wall Bracing
Riv. on this line for knee conn. Open holes for girder conn.
14 spaces @ 3"
11 spaces @ 3"
2-8" x 6" x ½" Ls cut to 8" x 3½" x ½"
2½"
2½"
2-8" x 6" x ½" Ls cut to 8" x 3½" x ½"
2-3½" x 3" x ⅝" Clips
2-3½" x 3" x ⅝" Clips
2½"
2½"
2½"

Fig. 16. Whitehall Building. Wind-bracing Details

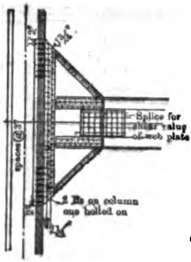
spaces @ 3"
Splice for shear value of web plate
2 Ls on column one bolted on

Fig. 10

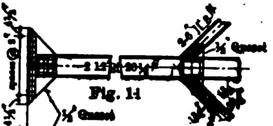

Fig. 11

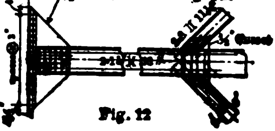

Fig. 12

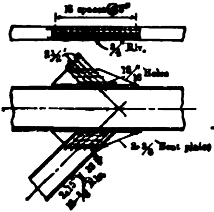

Fig. 13

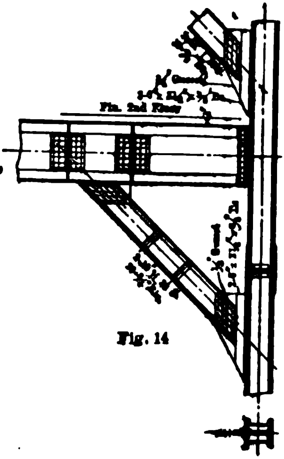

Fig. 14

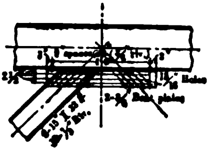

Fig. 15

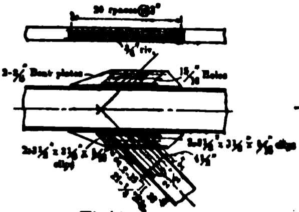

Fig. 16

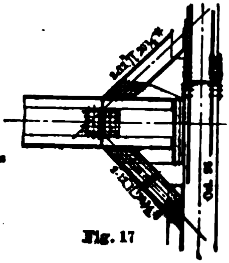

Fig. 17

Fig. 17. Whitehall Building. Wind-bracing Details

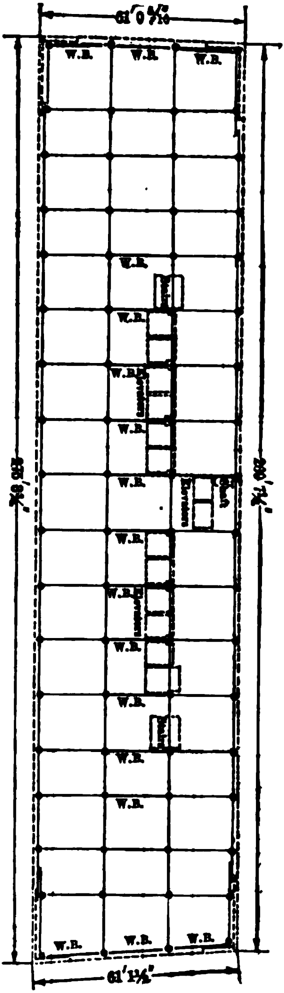

Fig. 18. United States Realty Building. Plan and Lines of Bracing

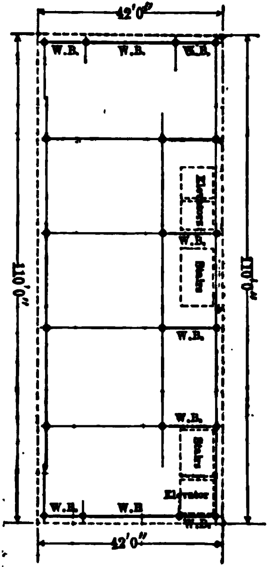

Fig. 19. Morton Building. Plan and Lines of Bracing

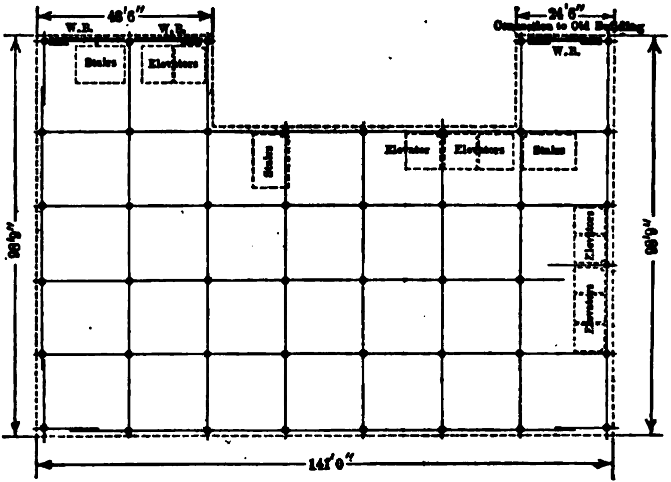

Fig. 20. Masonic Building. Plan and Lines of Bracing

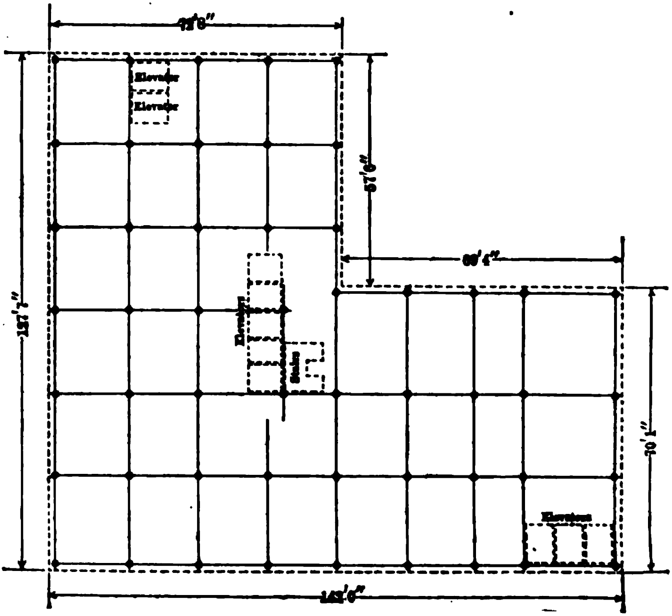

Fig. 21. Everett Building. Plan

for bracing. Small KNEE-BRACES and GUSSETS were introduced in each end-wall, and additional knee-braces next to the elevator-wells and stair-wells. The interior girder-connections to the columns, also, were made with six rivets in each flange, instead of with four as is usual. These special bracing-features were carried up to the fifth floor-level.

The Masonic Hall* (Fig. 20), 24th Street Building, New York City, twenty-two stories high, has virtually no special bracing. Light KNEE-BRACES were introduced in the two wings, but these were rather to insure the steelwork against getting out of plumb in erection, than to assist in wind-resistance.

The Everett Building† (Fig. 21), 45 East 17th Street, New York City, is a sixteen-story building, with no special bracing of any kind. It is large on the ground, and the ordinary features of construction offer ample resistance to wind.

The Metropolitan Tower‡ (Fig. 22), Madison Square, New York City, is such an unusual case that it is, perhaps, out of place to mention it as an example in any wise typical. It is 700 ft high and about 75 by 85 ft in plan throughout the lower stories. Wind-bracing in this case is a prime feature of the structural design and received much attention. It is designed from top to bottom to resist a full pressure of 30 lb per sq ft, with no reduction for the value of walls, etc. The bracing consists, in general, of PLATE GIRDERS in the walls at each level, with KNEE-BRACES and GUSSETS for the joints. The columns are designed with especial view to the manner of connection for the bracing. The dead weight of the tower offers a MOMENT OF RESISTANCE to overturning far in excess of the MOMENT OF THE WIND.

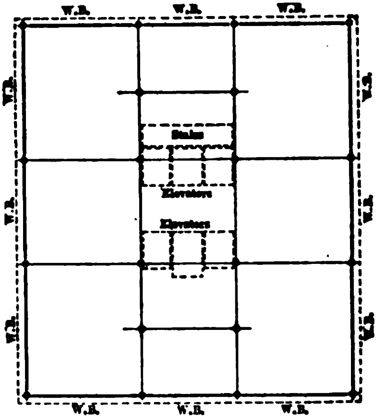

Fig. 22. Metropolitan Tower. Plan and Lines of Bracing

These examples, all drawn from New York City buildings, are perhaps as typical of the most approved modern practice in respect to wind-bracing as could be chosen. There is such an infinite variety in the shape and size of buildings that no case is ever quite like any previous example.

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* H. P. Knowles, architect.

† Goldwin Starrett & Van Vleck, architects.

‡ N. LeBrun & Sons, architects

PART III*

USEFUL INFORMATION

FOR

ARCHITECTS, BUILDERS AND SUPERINTENDENTS

AND ALL WHO HAVE TO DO WITH THE BUILDING TRADES

NOTE. The author and editors have arranged the information in Part III in the following order:

Heating and Ventilation.
Chimneys.
Hydraulics, Plumbing and Drainage, Gas and Gas-Piping.
Lighting and Illumination of Buildings.
Electric Work for Buildings.
Architectural Acoustics.
Weights, Quantities and Data for Estimating Cost.
Dimensions and Data Useful in the Preparation of Drawings and Specifications.
Miscellaneous Information for Architects and Builders.
Glossary of Architectural and Technical Terms.
Legal Definitions of Architectural Terms.

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* Throughout Part III, the subject-matter has been revised, the general order of data being left as arranged by Mr. Kidder in preceding editions or as submitted in this edition by the associate editors who have revised divisions of this part of the Pocket-Book. Editor-in-chief.

HEATING AND VENTILATION
HEAT, FUEL, WATER, STEAM AND AIR

BY
ROLLA C. CARPENTER
PROFESSOR OF EXPERIMENTAL ENGINEERING IN CHARGE OF THE DEPARTMENT OF ENGINEERING RESEARCH, CORNELL UNIVERSITY

Heat. The English unit of heat, or BRITISH THERMAL UNIT (Btu), is the quantity of heat required to raise the temperature of 1 lb of pure water 1° F. For extreme accuracy, the point on the temperature-scale at which the degree-rise is taken should be specified, and is usually taken either at 39.1° F. or at 62° F. The French unit, or CALORIE, is the quantity of heat required to raise the temperature of 1 kilogram of water 1° C (from 15° to 16° C). Heat and mechanical energy are interconvertible, the MECHANICAL EQUIVALENT OF 1 Btu being practically 778 ft-lb. The effect of heat may be noted by: (1) A change of temperature, as indicated by the ordinary thermometer; (2) a change of volume, in which mechanical work is done; (3) a change of state, such as solid to liquid or liquid to gaseous.

Thermometers. The relative values of the degrees on the different thermometers in use are given by the following table:

Thermometric Scales

Data determined	Fahrenheit	Centigrade	Réaumur
Degrees between freezing and boiling	180	100	80
Temperature at freezing-point	32	0	0
Temperature at boiling-point	212	100	80
Comparative length of degree	1	$9/5$	$9/4$
Comparative length of degree	$5/9$	1	$5/4$
Countries where used	England and America	France and Germany	Russia

$$F = 9/5\,C + 32^\circ = 9/4\,R + 32^\circ \qquad C = 5/9\,(F - 32^\circ) = 5/4\,R$$

As a general rule, thermometers are graduated to read correctly for total immersion. If the stem emerges into space either hotter or colder than that in which the bulb is placed, a STEM-CORRECTION must be applied to the observed temperature in addition to any correction that may be found in comparison with a standard.

$$\text{Stem-correction} = 0.000085\,n\,(T - t)$$

where T is the observed temperature, t the mean temperature of the emergent column, n the number of degrees of mercury column emergent, and 0.000085 the difference between the coefficient of expansion of the mercury and that of the glass in the stem. It has been found by experiment that air at 32° F. contracts 1/491.64 part of its volume if its pressure remains constant and its temperature is decreased one degree. If this law holds consistently the volume will be reduced to nothing at $(491.64 - 32) = 459.64^\circ$ below zero. This point is known as ABSOLUTE ZERO, and temperatures measured from it are known as ABSOLUTE TEMPERATURES.

Fuel. Fuels may be classified as SOLID, LIQUID and GASEOUS.

Solid fuels include the various grades of coal, lignite, peat and wood. Of the liquid fuels may be mentioned petroleum and its distillates. The most important of the gaseous fuels is natural gas, which is used quite extensively for heating purposes and for power purposes wherever it abounds.

Coal-Fields in the United States. Most of the anthracite is found in beds of less than 500 sq miles in area located in eastern Pennsylvania. The principal deposit of semibituminous coal is about 300 miles long by 20 miles wide and lies along the eastern edge of the Northern Appalachian field. The bituminous coals extend from this deposit westward. A little graphitic coal is found in Rhode Island.

Classification of Coals. The usual classification is shown by the following table:

Classification of Coals

Kind of coal	Per cent of combustible		Btu per pound of combustible
	Fixed carbon	Volatile matter	
Anthracite	97.0 to 92.5	3.0 to 7.5	14 600 to 14 800
Semianthracite	92.5 to 87.5	7.5 to 12.5	14 700 to 15 500
Semibituminous	87.5 to 75.0	12.5 to 25.0	15 500 to 16 000
Bituminous, Eastern	75.0 to 60.0	25.0 to 40.0	14 800 to 15 300
Bituminous, Western	65.0 to 50.0	35.0 to 50.0	13 500 to 14 800
Lignite*	Under 50	Over 50	11 000 to 13 500

* Lignite is an unsatisfactory fuel for furnaces.

Prepared Fuels. Under this head may be mentioned pulverized coal, pressed fuels, coke and charcoal. The most important of these is coke. It is a porous product consisting almost entirely of carbon remaining after certain manufacturing processes have distilled off the hydrocarbon gases of the fuel used. It is produced: (1) From gas-coal distilled in gas-retorts; (2) from gas or ordinary bituminous coals burned in special furnaces called coke-ovens; and (3) from petroleum by carrying the distillation of the residuum to a red heat. Coke is a smokeless fuel. It readily absorbs moisture from the atmosphere and if not kept under cover its moisture-content may be as much as 20% of its own weight. The heating value of coke per pound of carbon (combustible) is about 14 500 Btu. Gas-house coke is generally softer and more porous than oven-coke, ignites more readily, and requires less draft for its combustion.

Determination of Heating Value. The heating value of any fuel may be determined either by a calculation from a chemical analysis or by burning a sample in a calorimeter. The chemical analysis of a coal consists in determining the percentages by weight of C, H, O, N, S, and also moisture and ash. The most important of these not given by the proximate analysis is hydrogen. The following equations, worked out by H. Diederichs to fit curves given by L. S. Marks, allow the computation of the chemical analysis to be made from the proximate analysis with sufficient accuracy for engineering purposes. Let

V = the weight per cent of volatile matter in combustible,
H = the weight per cent of hydrogen in combustible,
C = the weight per cent of volatile carbon in combustible,
N = the weight per cent of nitrogen in combustible.

Then the following equations express Marks' curves:

$$H = V\left(\frac{7.35}{V - 10} - 0.013\right)$$

This gives the HYDROGEN not in moisture for all American coals, to an accuracy of about ± 0.2 of 1%.

For VOLATILE CARBON (carbon occurring in the volatile matter), with an accuracy of ± 2%, approximately:

$C = 0.02\, V^2$ or $C = 0.9\,(V - 10)$ for anthracite and semianthracite,
$C = 0.9\,(V - 14)$ for bituminous and semibituminous coals,
$C = 0.9\,(V - 18)$ for lignites.

The SULPHUR in coal directly increases the value of V; hence, the calculated value of C here will be too high practically by the S content of the combustible.

For NITROGEN (nitrogen comes off in the volatile matter), with an accuracy of ± 0.5 of 1%:

$N = 0.07\, V$ for anthracite and semianthracite,
$N = 2.10 - 0.012\, V$ for bituminous and lignite.

The occurrence of oxygen and sulphur is apparently more or less accidental in character, showing no uniformity, and is not expressible by equations. The greater part of all the sulphur and some of the oxygen will appear in the proximate analysis as volatile, and will, therefore, be accounted for as hydrogen and carbon in the use of these equations.

The DULONG FORMULA for calculating the heating value from the chemical analysis of coal is:

$$\text{Btu per pound} = 14\,540\, C + \begin{bmatrix} 52\,500 \\ \text{or} \\ 61\,950 \end{bmatrix} \times \left[H - \frac{O}{8}\right] + 4\,020\, S$$

The coefficients are the heating powers of the separate chemical elements, with that of hydrogen, giving either the lower or the higher heating value according to the coefficient used. The formula is in a sense rational, but owing to minor discrepancies the results obtained are usually from 5 to 10% high. This formula is also applicable to gas when another term is added to provide for any carbon monoxide present. But a simpler method of computation is to take the proportional constituents of the gas separately with their calorific values, and combine the results. In doing this the following table will be useful:

Weight and Calorific Value of Various Gases at 32 Degrees Fahrenheit and Atmospheric Pressure with Theoretical Amount of Air Required for Combustion

Gas	Symbol	Cubic feet of gas per pound	Btu		Cubic feet of air required per cubic foot of gas
			Per pound	Per cubic foot	
Hydrogen	H	178.0	62 000	348	2.408
Carbon monoxide	CO	12.81	4 380	342	2.388
Methane	CH_4	22.4	23 842	1 065	9.57
Ethane	C_2H_6	12.0	22 400	1 865	16.74
Ethylene	C_2H_4	12.8	21 430	1 675	14.33
Acetylene	C_2H_2	13.79	21 430	1 555	11.93

Approximate Composition and Calorific Value of Some of the Eastern American Coals

State	County	Field, bed or vein	Mine	Moisture	Air-drying loss	Proximate analysis, dry-coal basis			
						Vol.	Fixed C	Ash	Btu
		ANTHRACITES							
Pa.	Lackawanna	....	Scranton	5.41	3.4	7.42	75.90	16.68	12 737
Pa.	Schuylkill	Diamond	Phœnix Park	2.76	1.6	2.55	84.40	13.05	12 933
Pa.	Schuylkill	Mammoth	St. Nicholas	2.80	1.5	1.19	90.75	8.06	13 682
Pa.	Schuylkill	Lykens	West Brookside	3.33	2.6	3.38	87.19	9.43	13 810
R. I.	Newport	500-foot level	Portsmouth	16.80	14.0	2.76	77.44	19.80	11 093
R. I.	Providence	....	Cranston	2.41	2.0	5.04	75.43	19.53	11 268
		SEMIANTHRACITES							
Ark.	Johnson	Spadra	Needmore	2.15	1.4	11.05	78.56	10.39	.....
Ark.	Pope	Shinn Basin	Southern	2.07	1.4	10.02	80.48	9.50	13 991
Pa.	Sullivan	"B"	Connell	3.38	2.6	8.77	79.33	11.90	13 617
Pa.	Sullivan	....	O'Boyle and Fay	3.66	3.0	9.51	76.90	13.59	13 321
Va.	Montgomery	....	Big Vein	2.05	1.6	6.72	59.44	33.84	9 891
Va.	Montgomery	Big Seam	Poverty	4.80	4.1	10.63	70.43	18.94	12 564
		SEMIBITUMINOUS							
Ark.	Franklin	Denning	No. 2	0.84	......	16.60	75.96	7.44	14 769
Ark.	Sebastian	Hartshorne	No. 26	1.99	1.7	16.22	76.58	7.20	14 373
Geor.	Chattooga	Little River	Lookout	2.85	2.3	17.64	74.29	8.07	14 614
Md.	Allegany	Big Vein or Pittsburg	Ocean No. 7	3.42	2.7	18.27	74.39	7.34	14 665
Md.	Garrett	Washington No. 3	"6-foot"	2.33	1.4	16.49	70.07	13.44	13 572
Okla.	Haskell	Hartshorne	San Bois No. 2	2.37	1.9	19.73	71.23	9.04	14 177
Okla.	LaFlore	....	Panama	5.11	4.5	14.39	77.15	8.46	14 398
Pa.	Cambria	Miller	No. 3	3.49	2.8	16.70	77.38	5.92	15 041
Pa.	Cambria	Upper Kittanning	Sunnyside	5.60	5.1	14.87	75.07	10.06	14 074
Pa.	Cambria	Upper Kittanning	Vinton No. 1	1.93	......	19.83	71.8	8.37	14 416
Pa.	Huntingdon	Barnett	Barnett or "B"	2.09	1.6	18.59	75.03	6.38	14 722
Pa.	Indiana	B or Miller	Lackawanna No. 4	2.57	2.1	18.57	70.83	10.60	14 074
Pa.	Somerset	Upper Kittanning	Jenner No. 2	3.99	3.2	16.32	77.14	6.54	14 722
Pa.	Somerset	Lower Kittanning	Kimmelton	3.09	2.6	17.84	70.47	11.69	13 853
Pa.	Somerset	Lower Freeport	Stauffer	2.18	......	18.18	73.63	8.19	14 428
Pa.	Somerset	"B"	Pen Mar No. 3	2.57	......	16.41	74.02	9.57	14 193
Pa.	Somerset	Pittsburg	Elk Lick No. 1	2.71	2.0	19.88	73.27	6.85	14 692
Pa.	Somerset	Lower Kittanning	Eureka No. 31	1.10	......	15.98	76.53	9.49	14 659
Pa.	Westmoreland	Lower Kittanning	Seward	4.00	3.6	16.55	72.47	10.98	13 903
W. Va.	Fayette	Fire Creek	Alaska	3.07	2.2	17.36	77.63	5.01	14 980
W. Va.	M'Dowell	Sewell	Big Sandy	1.72	1.1	18.16	71.85	6.99	14 827

W. Va.	M'Dowell	No. 6	Premier Pocahontas	2.10	......	18.00	76.00	6.00	14 830
W. Va.	M'Dowell	Pocahontas	Zenith	4.07	3.3	17.03	71.38	11.59	14 081
W. Va.	Mercer	Pocahontas	Pinnacle	3.40	2.9	16.73	79.70	3.57	15 214
W. Va.	Mineral	Upper Freeport	Kittanning No. 14	2.03	......	15.05	78.01	6.94	14 695
		BITUMINOUS							
Ala.	Bibb	Youngblood	Cane Creek No. 2	6.43	5.5	30.52	55.67	13.81	13 247
Ala.	Jefferson	Pratt	No. 2	3.23	2.4	27.03	66.04	6.93	14 544
Ill.	Franklin	No. 6	Benton	8.31	4.6	34.52	54.05	11.43	12 789
Ky.	Bell	Straight Creek	Straight Creek No. 2	3.10	1.2	37.28	58.19	4.53	14 602
Mich.	Saginaw	Saginaw	Bernard	11.91	7.9	35.76	56.48	7.76	13 374
Mo.	Adair	Bevier	Rombauer No. 2	16.36	14.15	34.82	41.85	23.33	10 769
Mo.	Lafayette	Lexington	Black Diamond	12.34	7.7	39.20	47.87	12.93	12 546
Ohio	Belmont	No. 8	Empire No. 1	4.14	2.6	41.00	49.21	9.79	13 430
Ohio	Guernsey	No. 7	Forsyth	6.65	2.6	36.36	52.34	11.30	13 046
Okla.	Pittsburg	Lower Hartshorne	No. 8	4.45	2.8	37.83	50.66	11.51	13 194
Pa.	Allegheny	Pittsburg	Bertha	3.67	1.8	35.32	59.01	5.67	14 402
Pa.	Allegheny	Upper Freeport	Creighton	2.53	1.0	34.87	55.92	9.21	13 703
Pa.	Cambria	Upper Freeport	Peerless No. 4	3.30	2.7	25.64	65.25	9.11	14 296
Pa.	Clarion	Brookville	Sligo	2.35	1.1	38.37	50.19	11.44	13 435
Pa.	Fayette	Pittsburg	Leisenring No. 1	5.13	4.2	29.38	61.44	9.18	14 089
Pa.	Greene	Waynesburg	Crabapple	2.79	1.2	37.08	49.74	13.18	......
Pa.	Indiana	....	Lucerne No. 1	3.31	2.7	27.13	64.47	8.40	14 241
Pa.	Jefferson	Lower Freeport	Florence	2.53	1.1	28.54	65.61	5.85	14 670
Pa.	Washington	Pittsburg	Blanche	1.70	......	37.84	56.80	5.36	14 584
Pa.	Washington	Pittsburg	Ellsworth No. 1	1.22	......	36.73	56.93	6.34	14 423
Pa.	Westmoreland	Pittsburg	Keystone No. 1	3.98	3.1	29.30	60.12	10.58	13 864
Tenn.	Anderson	Dean	Windrock	6.39	4.7	34.53	55.29	10.18	13 441
Tenn.	Cumberland	....	....	3.53	2.3	21.51	49.60	28.89	10 640
Tenn.	Cumberland	Lower Sewanee (?)	Yellow Creek No. 1	3.89	2.9	28.73	56.26	15.01	13 021
Tenn.	Fentress	Wilder	Fentress	3.03	3.7	36.00	50.75	13.25	12 996
Tenn.	Grundy	Sewanee	"B"	5.68	4.7	26.89	53.44	19.67	12 172
Tenn.	White	Sewanee	Clifty No. 1	3.01	1.9	35.78	53.13	11.09	13 511
Va.	Lee	Darby	Darby	3.35	2.0	38.57	56.90	4.53	14 573
Va.	Tazewell	....	....	......	......	......	......	......	......
Va.	Tazewell	No. 4	Richlands	5.62	5.0	24.44	65.18	10.38	14 053
W. Va.	Fayette	Ansted	Gauley Mountain	4.16	2.6	32.64	59.88	7.48	14 384
W. Va.	Harrison	Pittsburg	Pitcairn	1.95	0.5	40.73	51.25	8.02	14 083
W. Va.	Kanawha	No. 2 Gas	Keystone	2.82	2.1	33.13	58.61	8.26	14 166
W. Va.	Monongalia	Upper Freeport	Richard	2.29	1.3	30.56	58.97	10.47	13 876
W. Va.	Tucker	Lower Kittanning	Coketon	2.21	......	24.82	66.99	8.19	14 330

* Bulletin 22, Bureau of Mines, 1913.

Calorimetric Determinations. The only accurate and reliable way to determine the heating value of a fuel is to do so experimentally with a calorimeter. For solid fuels, the BOMB CALORIMETER is the most practical. The various types on the market include the Mahler, the Hempel, the Atwater and the Emerson. These consist essentially of a tight vessel containing a weighed sample and oxygen under pressure. This receptacle is placed within another vessel containing a known weight of water and surrounded by heat-insulating material to minimize radiation. The sample is EXPLODED electrically, and the heat absorbed by the surrounding water is determined by means of a very accurate thermometer reading hundredths of a degree. Correction has to be made for the heat absorbed by the instrument itself, and for radiation.

The CARPENTER CALORIMETER, using the principle of the expansion of water with heat, works satisfactorily when properly calibrated.

The PARR CALORIMETER uses the bomb-idea, but instead of supporting combustion by compressed oxygen, a chemical powder (sodium peroxide) is mixed with the powdered fuel. This instrument is not as reliable as the ordinary bomb calorimeter.

The JUNKER CALORIMETER is almost always used for liquid and gaseous fuels. It consists in burning the fuel within an inverted water-jacketed vessel so that the heat is entirely absorbed by water flowing at a uniform rate through the jacket. The calorimeter is CONTINUOUS, and by metering the gas (or weighing, in case of liquid fuel), and measuring the rate of flow and temperature-change of the jacket-water, the amount of heat given up by the fuel is readily calculated. For a complete description of these calorimeters and their use, see Carpenter and Diederichs' "Experimental Engineering."

Temperature of Fire. Of the different methods devised for ascertaining high temperatures, some of the most important are as follows:

(1) Mercurial Pyrometers, for Temperatures up to 1 000° F. The boiling-point of mercury at atmospheric pressure is 676° F. If some inert gas, such as nitrogen or carbon dioxide, is forced under pressure into the upper part of the thermometer-stem, the boiling-point is increased. For use up to 1 000° F., the pressure should be about 300 lb.

(2) Pressure-Pyrometers, for Temperatures up to 1 000° F. These consist of an iron bulb filled with ether or hydrocarbon vapor and connected to an ordinary pressure-gauge. The increase in pressure of the vapor due to its temperature moves the dial of the gauge over a calibrated temperature-scale.

(3) Expansion Pyrometers, for Temperatures up to 1 500° F. Two dissimilar metals, such as iron and brass, may be utilized to measure high temperatures that do not overheat them. The metals must be rigidly fastened together at one end, and the other end free to expand separately and move a pointer through a multiplying gear. Such an instrument must be carefully calibrated, and the whole length of the expansion-piece must be at a uniform temperature before a correct reading can be obtained.

(4) Calorimetry, for Temperatures up to 2 000° F. A given weight of some substance (w), such as iron, nickel or fire-brick, is heated to the unknown temperature (X), and then plunged into a known weight of water (W). From the rise in temperature (t), of the water and the specific heat of the material used (s), the temperature may be computed from the formula

$$X = T + Wt + ws$$

T is the original temperature of the water. This method is, at best, only approximate.

(5) Temperature by the Color of Incandescent Bodies.[*] "Pouillet concluded that all incandescent bodies have a definite and fixed color corresponding to each temperature. This temperature-scale follows, and applies only to bodies that shine by incandescent light and not from actual combustion."

Different Colors of Iron Caused by Heat

Degrees Centigrade	Degrees Fahrenheit	Color
210	410	Pale yellow
221	430	Dull yellow
256	493	Crimson
261	502	Violet, purple and dull blue, between 261° and 370° C. it passes to bright blue, to sea-green, and then disappears
370	680	
500	932	Commences to be covered with a light coating of oxide, loses a good deal of its hardness, becomes a good deal more impressible to the hammer, and can be twisted with ease
525	977	Becomes nascent red
700	1 292	Somber red
800	1 472	Nascent cherry
900	1 657	Cherry
1 000	1 832	Bright cherry
1 100	2 012	Dull orange
1 200	2 192	Bright orange
1 300	2 372	White
1 400	2 552	Brilliant white, welding heat
1 500	2 732	Dazzling white
1 600	2 912	

(6) Thermoelectric Pyrometers, for Temperatures up to 2 900° F. When wires of two different metals are joined at one end and heated, an electromotive force will be set up between the free ends; then if this THERMO-COUPLE is connected to a delicate galvanometer of high resistance or a millivoltmeter, the deflection of the needle, after a careful calibration, will indicate the temperature very accurately. It is only necessary to heat the ELEMENT at the junction. Platinum and its alloys with iridium and rhodium have given the best results.

Melting-Points of Metals

Machinery's Handbook

Metals	Degrees Fahrenheit	Metals	Degrees Fahrenheit	Metals	Degrees Fahrenheit
Aluminum..	1 200	Iridium......	4 100	Platinum..	3 200
Antimony...	1 150	Iron, cast.....	2 300	Silver.....	1 740
Bismuth....	500	Iron, wrought	2 900	Steel......	2 500
Brass........	1 700 to 1 850	Lead.........	620	Tin.......	446
Bronze......	1 675	Magnesium...	1 200	Titanium .	3 360
Chromium..	2 740	Manganese...	2 200	Tungsten..	5 400
Cobalt......	2 700	Mercury......	−39	Vanadium.	3 200
Copper......	1 940	Molybdenum.	4 500	Zinc	785
Gold........	1 930	Nickel.......	2 600	....	....

[*] Carpenter's Heating and Ventilating.

(7) **Melting-Points of Metals which flow at various temperatures up to the melting-point of tungsten, 5 400° F.** A series of metals having melting-points differing by 100 or 200°, say, are introduced into the furnace, and the temperature can thereby be fixed between the melting-points of two of them. This method is, therefore, only approximate. A table of melting-points follows.

(8) **Radiation-Pyrometers, for Temperatures up to 3 600° F.** The heat-rays given out by the hot body fall on a concave mirror and are brought to a focus upon the junction of a thermo-couple. The temperature readings are obtained from an indicator similar to that used with thermoelectric pyrometers.

(9) **Optical Pyrometers, for Temperatures up to 12 600° F.**, but ordinarily used in boiler-practice from 1 600 to 3 600° F. The principle on which the Wanner instrument is constructed is that of comparing the quantity of light emanating from the heated body with a constant source of light, in this case a two-volt osmium lamp. The lamp is placed at one end of an optical tube, while at the other an eye-piece is provided with a scale. A battery of cells furnishes the current for the lamp. On looking through the pyrometer, a circle of red light appears, divided into distinct halves of different intensities. Adjustment may be made so that the two halves appear alike and a reading is then taken from the scale. The temperatures are obtained from a table of temperatures corresponding to scale-readings. For standardizing the osmium lamp, an amylacetate lamp is provided, with a stand for holding the optical tube.

(10) **Determination of Temperature from Character of Emitted Light.** As a further means of determining approximately the temperature of a furnace, the following table may be of service. The color at a given temperature is approximately the same for all kinds of combustibles under similar conditions.

Character of Emitted Light and Corresponding Approximate Temperature *

Character of emitted light	Temperature, degrees Fahrenheit
Dark red, blood-red, low red	1 050
Dark cherry-red	1 175
Cherry, full red	1 375
Light cherry, bright cherry, light red	1 550
Orange	1 650
Light orange	1 725
Yellow	1 825
Light yellow	1 975
White	2 200

Properties of Water. Pure water is a chemical compound of one volume of oxygen and two volumes of hydrogen. In its natural state it is never found absolutely pure, as it has a greater range of solvent power than any other liquid. For all practical purposes it is non-compressible, the coefficient of compressibility ranging from 0.000040 to 0.000051 per atmosphere at ordinary temperatures. The weight of water depends upon its temperature, and varies as shown by the following table. Maximum density is reached at about 39.2° F.

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* Messrs. White and Taylor, Trans. Am. Soc. M.E., Vol. XXI, 1900.

Weight of Water, Freezing to Boiling-Point

Temperature, Fahrenheit	Density, lb per cu ft	Temperature, Fahrenheit	Density, lb per cu ft
32	62.42	130	61.56
45	62.42	135	61.47
50	62.41	140	61.37
55	62.39	145	61.28
60	62.37	150	61.18
65	62.34	155	61.08
70	62.31	160	60.98
75	62.28	165	60.87
80	62.23	170	60.77
85	62.18	175	60.66
90	62.13	180	60.55
95	62.08	185	60.44
100	62.02	190	60.32
105	61.96	195	60.20
110	61.89	200	60.07
115	61.82	205	59.95
120	61.74	210	59.82
125	61.65	212	59.76

For water at saturation-pressure, Marks and Davis give the following, which checks very closely with figures given by Thurston:

Weight of Water at Saturation-Pressure

Temperature, Fahrenheit	Pressure, lb	Density, lb per cu ft
220	17.19	59.63
230	20.77	59.37
240	24.97	59.11
250	29.82	58.83
260	35.42	58.55
270	41.85	58.26
280	49.18	57.96
290	57.55	57.65
300	67.00	57.33
310	77.67	57.00
320	89.63	56.66
330	103.0	56.30
350	135.0	55.57
400	247.0	53.5

Water has a greater specific heat or heat-absorbing capacity than almost all other known substances. Its specific heat is the basis for measurement of the capacity of heat-absorption of all other substances. By definition, the SPECIFIC HEAT OF WATER is the number of Btu required to raise the temperature of 1 lb of water 1 degree. For all practical purposes this may be considered unity, although there is a slight variation with the temperature. The specific heat of ice at 32° F. is 0.463.

Properties of Saturated Steam

Pressure, absolute	Temperature, Fahrenheit	Specific volume, cu ft per lb	Heat of the liquid, Btu	Latent heat of evap., Btu	Total heat of steam, Btu
5	162.28	73.33	130.1	1 000.3	1 130.5
8	182.86	47.27	150.8	988.2	1 139.0
10	193.22	38.38	161.1	982.0	1 143.1
11	197.75	35.10	165.7	979.2	1 144.9
12	201.96	32.36	169.9	976.6	1 146.5
13	205.87	30.03	173.8	974.2	1 148.0
14	209.55	28.02	177.5	971.9	1 149.4
14.7	212.0	26.80	180.0	970.4	1 150.4
15	213.0	26.27	181.0	969.7	1 150.7
16	216.3	24.79	184.4	967.6	1 152.0
17	219.4	23.38	187.5	965.6	1 153.1
18	222.4	22.16	190.5	963.7	1 154.2
19	225.2	21.07	193.4	961.8	1 155.2
20	228.0	20.08	196.1	960.0	1 156.2
25	240.1	16.30	208.4	952.0	1 160.4
30	250.3	13.74	218.8	945.1	1 163.9
35	259.3	11.89	227.9	938.9	1 166.8
40	267.3	10.49	236.1	933.3	1 169.4
45	274.5	9.39	243.4	928.2	1 171.6
50	281.0	8.51	250.1	923.5	1 173.6
55	287.1	7.78	256.3	919.0	1 175.4
60	292.7	7.17	262.1	914.9	1 177.0
65	298.0	6.65	267.5	911.0	1 178.5
70	302.9	6.20	272.6	907.2	1 179.8
75	307.6	5.81	277.4	903.7	1 181.1
80	312.0	5.47	282.0	900.3	1 182.3
85	316.3	5.16	286.3	897.1	1 183.4
90	320.3	4.89	290.5	893.9	1 184.4
95	324.1	4.65	294.5	890.9	1 185.4
100	327.8	4.429	298.3	888.0	1 186.3
110	334.8	4.047	305.5	882.5	1 188.0
120	341.3	3.726	312.3	877.2	1 189.6
130	347.4	3.452	318.6	872.3	1 191.0
140	353.1	3.219	324.6	867.6	1 192.2
150	358.5	3.012	330.2	863.2	1 193.4
160	363.6	2.834	335.6	858.8	1 194.5
170	368.5	2.675	340.7	854.7	1 195.4
180	373.1	2.533	345.6	850.8	1 196.4
190	377.6	2.406	350.4	846.9	1 197.3
200	381.9	2.290	354.9	843.2	1 198.1

Properties of Steam. Water boils or vaporizes at a temperature depending on the pressure upon its surface. The thermal units necessary to heat the water from 32° F. to the temperature of ebullition is termed the HEAT OF THE LIQUID and is approximately 1 Btu per degree. The marked characteristics of vaporization are: (1) The very great increase of volume at constant temperature and pressure; (2) the change of the physical state of the material from liquid to vapor; and (3) the enormous quantity of heat absorbed. The heat absorbed during the process of vaporization is termed LATENT HEAT. When steam is condensed, the same quantity of heat that was received, from whatever source, is again given off to any substance within its influence as air, water, iron pipes, etc., colder than itself; and it is this property, together with its great power of absorbing and retaining heat, that makes water and its vapor such a valuable medium for conveying heat from the furnace to the rooms to be warmed.

Saturated Steam is the steam existing at the temperature and pressure of its vaporization.

Dry Saturated Steam is steam free from liquid in suspension. If the steam carries particles of water it is said to be WET, and the percentage of dryness is termed the QUALITY of the steam.

Superheated Steam is steam heated above the temperature normal to its pressure as saturated steam. The HEAT OF SUPERHEAT may be found by multiplying the degree of superheat of the steam by its specific heat, approximately 0.5.

Marks and Davis' Steam-Tables and Diagrams are generally accepted standards. (See table, page 1206.)

Factor of Evaporation equals total heat per pound above feed-water temperature divided by 970.4, and expresses the number of pounds of steam that could have been made FROM AND AT 212° F. with the expenditure of an equal amount of heat.

Equivalent Evaporation equals actual evaporation times factor of evaporation. This serves as a basis for comparison of tests under different conditions of pressure and feed-water temperature. Each degree of difference in temperature of feed-water makes a difference of 0.00104 in the amount of evaporation.

Air. Pure air is a mixture of oxygen and nitrogen in the proportion of 20.9% oxygen and 79.1% nitrogen by volume or 23% oxygen and 77% nitrogen by weight. Air in nature always contains other constituents in varying amounts, such as dust, carbon dioxide, ozone and water-vapor. The CO_2-content in the open varies from 4 to 6 parts in 10 000 by volume, and the moisture varies from a very small amount to as high as 4% by weight. These ingredients spread out nearly uniformly in the atmosphere by the law of diffusion of gases, a property that gases have of mixing and diluting so as to prevent gases of different specific gravities from stratifying for any considerable time. This property is of the utmost importance to air; for if any inert or poisonous gas were to remain separated in the atmosphere, any one breathing it would be killed. CO_2 is not poisonous, but if present in large proportions a person might die from suffocation. It is regarded as an index of the quality of the air, and the amount present indicates the character of ventilation. It should not exceed from 8 to 10 parts in 10 000 for good ventilation. There are various devices in use for the determination of CO_2 in air, but the most common consists of a burette containing a saturated solution of caustic potash (KOH) into which a measured amount of air is passed. The KOH absorbs the CO_2, and the amount is read directly on a graduated scale. The degree of moisture in the air has an important influence on ventilation. If the air is saturated no evaporation can take place from the body, but if the air is very dry, very rapid evaporation will take place. A mean condition is required for ventilating purposes, so that air should be from 50 to 70% saturated in order to feel pleasant. The percentage of saturation is termed RELATIVE HUMIDITY, while the actual weight of moisture in a given space (usually 1 cu ft) is called the ABSOLUTE HUMIDITY.

Weights of Air, Vapor of Water, and Saturated Mixtures of Air and Vapor at Different Temperatures, under Atmospheric Pressure of 29.921 Inches of Mercury

Temperature, degrees F.	Volume of dry air at different temperatures, the volume at 32° being 1.000	Weight of cubic foot of dry air at the different temperatures, pounds	Elastic force of vapor in inches of mercury (Régnault)	Mixtures of air saturated with vapor						Cubic feet of vapor from one pound of water, at its own pressure in column 4
				Elastic force of the air in the mixture of air and vapor in inches of mercury	Weight of cubic foot of the mixture of air and vapor			Weight of vapor mixed with one pound of air in pounds	Weight of dry air mixed with one pound of vapor in pounds	
					Weight of the air in pounds	Weight of the vapor in pounds	Total weight of mixture in pounds			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0	0.935	0.0864	0.044	29.877	0.0863	0.000079	0.086379	0.00092	1092.4	....
12	0.960	0.0842	0.074	29.849	0.0840	0.000130	0.084130	0.00155	646.1	....
22	0.980	0.0824	0.118	29.803	0.0821	0.000202	0.082302	0.00245	406.4	....
32	1.000	0.0807	0.181	29.740	0.0802	0.000304	0.080504	0.00379	263.81	3 289
42	1.020	0.0791	0.267	29.654	0.0784	0.000440	0.078840	0.00561	178.18	2 252
52	1.041	0.0776	0.388	29.533	0.0766	0.000627	0.077227	0.00810	122.17	1 595
62	1.061	0.0761	0.556	29.365	0.0747	0.000881	0.075581	0.01179	84.79	1 135
72	1.082	0.0747	0.785	29.136	0.0727	0.001221	0.073921	0.01680	59.54	819
82	1.102	0.0733	1.092	28.829	0.0706	0.001667	0.072267	0.02361	42.35	600
92	1.122	0.0720	1.501	28.420	0.0684	0.002250	0.070717	0.03289	30.40	444
102	1.143	0.0707	2.036	27.885	0.0659	0.002997	0.068897	0.04547	21.98	334
112	1.163	0.0694	2.731	27.190	0.0631	0.003946	0.067046	0.06253	15.99	253
122	1.184	0.0682	3.621	26.300	0.0599	0.005142	0.065042	0.08584	11.65	194
132	1.204	0.0671	4.752	25.169	0.0564	0.006639	0.063039	0.11771	8.49	151
142	1.224	0.0660	6.165	23.756	0.0524	0.008473	0.060873	0.16170	6.18	118
152	1.245	0.0649	7.930	21.991	0.0477	0.010716	0.058416	0.22465	4.45	93.3
162	1.265	0.0638	10.099	19.822	0.0423	0.013415	0.055715	0.31713	3.15	74.5
172	1.285	0.0628	12.758	17.163	0.0360	0.016682	0.052682	0.46338	2.16	59.2
182	1.306	0.0618	15.960	13.961	0.0288	0.020536	0.049336	0.71300	1.402	48.6
192	1.326	0.0609	19.828	10.093	0.0205	0.025142	0.045642	1.22643	0.815	39.8
202	1.347	0.0600	24.450	5.471	0.0109	0.030545	0.041445	2.80230	0.357	32.7
212	1.367	0.0591	29.921	0.000	0.0000	0.036820	0.036820	Infinite	0.000	27.1

Column 5 gives the barometer pressure of 29.921, minus the proportion of this due to vapor-pressure from column 4.

The apparatus generally used for humidity-determinations consists merely of two thermometers mounted side by side so as to be swung from a handle. One of the bulbs is covered with a piece of moistened cloth to keep the atmosphere around it saturated, and the other bulb is exposed to normal conditions. The thermometers will read differently by an amount depending upon the humidity, as shown by the following table condensed from the Psychrometric Tables of the Department of Agriculture:

Relative Humidity, Per Cent, for Barometer 30 Inches

Air-temperature, dry bulb, deg F.	Depression of wet-bulb thermometer, degrees																			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
32	89	79	69	59	49	39	30	20	11	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
35	91	81	72	63	54	45	36	27	19	10	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
40	92	83	75	68	60	52	45	37	29	22	15	7	0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
45	93	86	78	71	64	57	51	44	38	31	25	18	12	6	...	...	...	...	...	...
50	93	87	80	74	67	61	55	49	43	38	32	27	21	16	10	5	0	...	...	...
55	94	88	82	76	70	65	59	54	49	43	38	33	28	23	19	14	9	5	0	...
60	94	89	83	78	73	68	63	58	53	48	43	39	34	30	26	21	17	13	9	5
65	95	90	85	80	75	70	66	61	56	52	48	44	39	35	31	27	24	20	16	12
70	95	90	86	81	77	72	68	64	59	55	51	48	44	40	36	33	29	25	22	19
75	96	91	86	82	78	74	70	66	62	58	54	51	47	44	40	37	34	30	27	24
80	96	91	87	83	79	75	72	68	64	61	57	54	50	47	44	41	38	35	32	29
90	96	92	89	85	81	78	74	71	68	65	61	58	55	52	49	47	44	41	39	36
100	96	93	89	86	83	80	77	73	70	68	65	62	59	56	54	51	49	46	44	41
110	97	93	90	87	84	81	78	75	73	70	67	65	62	60	57	55	52	50	48	46
120	97	94	91	88	85	82	80	77	74	72	69	67	65	62	60	58	55	53	51	49

	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
60	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
65	9	5	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
70	15	12	9	6	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
75	21	18	15	12	9	7	4	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
80	26	23	20	18	15	12	10	7	5	3	0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
90	34	31	29	26	24	22	19	17	15	13	11	9	7	5	3	1	...	...	...	...
100	39	37	35	33	30	28	26	24	22	21	19	17	15	13	12	10	8	7	5	4
110	44	42	40	38	36	34	32	30	28	26	25	23	21	20	18	17	15	14	12	11
120	47	45	43	41	40	38	36	34	33	31	29	28	26	25	23	22	21	19	18	17

The specific heat of air for ordinary temperatures, as determined by Régnault, is 0.2374. Hence one Btu will raise the temperature of 4.2 lb of dry air (56 cu ft at 70° F.) 1° F. As air for ventilation contains more or less moisture, which must also be warmed, 55 cu ft at 70° F., or 50 cu ft at 32° F., is generally considered the equivalent of 1 lb of water in heating. Furthermore, since 1 lb of steam at atmospheric pressure condensed to water gives off about 970 Btu, it will warm approximately 50 000 cu ft of air 1° F.

Linear Expansion of Solids at Ordinary Temperatures

British Board of Trade, from Clark

Substances	For 1° F.	For 1° C.	Coef. of expansion from 32° to 212° F.	According to other authorities
	Length = 1	Length = 1		
Aluminium (cast)	0.00001234	0.00002221	0.002221	....
Antimony (cryst.)	0.00000627	0.00001129	0.001129	0.001083
Brass, cast	0.00000957	0.00001722	0.001722	0.001868
Brass, plate	0.00001052	0.00001894	0.001894	....
Brick	0.00000306	0.00000550	0.000550	....
Bronze (Cu, 17; Sn, 2½; Zn, 1)	0.00000986	0.00001774	0.001774	....
Bismuth	0.00000975	0.00001755	0.001755	0.001392
Cement, Portland (mixed), pure	0.00000594	0.00001070	0.001070	....
Concrete: cement, mortar and pebbles	0.00000795	0.00001430	0.001430	....
Copper	0.00000887	0.00001596	0.001596	0.001718
Ebonite	0.00004278	0.00007700	0.007700	....
Glass, English flint	0.00000451	0.00000812	0.000812	....
Glass, thermometer	0.00000499	0.00000897	0.000897	....
Glass, hard	0.00000397	0.00000714	0.000714	....
Granite, gray, dry	0.00000438	0.00000789	0.000789	....
Granite, red, dry	0.00000498	0.00000897	0.000897	....
Gold, pure	0.00000786	0.00001415	0.001415	....
Iridium, pure	0.00000356	0.00000641	0.000641	....
Iron, wrought	0.00000648	0.00001166	0.001166	0.001235
Iron, cast	0.00000556	0.00001001	0.001001	0.001110
Lead	0.00001571	0.00002828	0.002828	....
Magnesium	....	....	....	0.002694
Marbles, various from	0.00000308	0.00000554	0.000554	....
to	0.00000786	0.00001415	0.001415	....
Masonry, brick from	0.00000256	0.00000460	0.000460	....
to	0.00000494	0.00000890	0.000890	....
Mercury (cubic expansion)	0.00009984	0.00017971	0.017971	0.018018
Nickel	0.00000695	0.00001251	0.001251	0.001279
Pewter	0.00001129	0.00002033	0.002033	....
Plaster, white	0.00000922	0.00001660	0.001660	....
Platinum	0.00000479	0.00000863	0.000863	....
Platinum, 85% Iridium, 15%	0.00000453	0.00000815	0.000815	0.000884
Porcelain	0.00000200	0.00000360	0.000360	....
Quartz, parallel to major axis, t 0° to 40° C.	0.00000434	0.00000781	0.000781	....
Quartz, perpendicular to major axis, t 0° to 40° C.	0.00000788	0.00001419	0.001419	....
Silver, pure	0.00001079	0.00001943	0.001943	0.001908
Slate	0.00000577	0.00001038	0.001038	....
Steel, cast	0.00000636	0.00001144	0.001144	0.001079
Steel, tempered	0.00000689	0.00001240	0.001240	....
Stone (sandstone), dry	0.00000652	0.00001174	0.001174	....
Stone (sandstone), Rauville	0.00000417	0.00000750	0.000750	....
Tin	0.00001163	0.00002094	0.002094	0.001938
Wedgewood ware	0.00000489	0.00000881	0.000881	....
Wood, pine	0.00000276	0.00000496	0.000496	....
Zinc	0.00001407	0.00002532	0.002532	0.002942
Zinc, 8 Tin, 1	0.00001496	0.00002692	0.002692	....

Cubical expansion, or expansion of volume = linear expansion × 3.

Systems of Heating

The various systems employed for the warming of buildings, aside from the use of stoves and fireplaces, may be classified as follows:

- Furnace-heating........
  - Natural-draft, or gravity-system
  - Forced-draft, or fan-system
- Steam-heating.........
  - Gravity, or low-pressure systems
    - (1) Direct radiation
    - (2) Direct-indirect radiation
    - (3) Indirect radiation
  - Vacuum-systems
    - (1) Paul system
    - (2) Webster system
  - High-pressure systems
    - (1) Gravity-circulation with return-trap or pump
    - (2) Fan, or forced-blast system
- Hot-water heating......
  - Open system
    - Direct or indirect
  - Closed system
    - Direct or indirect

These systems are briefly described in the following pages and sufficient data given to enable an architect to specify or design, in a general way, an ordinary heating-plant. The limits of the book preclude the going into many of the minor details, which are usually left to the judgment of the contractor, or to a discussion of the high-pressure systems, which are generally employed only for very large buildings or for power-plants, and for which the plant should be designed by an expert. For further information on this subject the reader is referred to Heating and Ventilating Buildings, by R. C. Carpenter.

Gravity Systems of Steam-Heating

A Steam-heating Plant may be divided into three distinct parts: (1) The boiler, or steam-generator; (2) the radiators; and (3) the supply and return-pipes connecting the two.

Radiators. Radiators are generally made of iron, and may be of any shape that will allow of a good circulation of steam through them, and also permit the air to circulate freely about the outside. It is also desirable that the thickness of the metal shall be only enough to give sufficient strength.

Classes of Radiators. Radiators are divided into three classes, those affording: (1) Direct radiation; (2) direct-indirect radiation; (3) indirect radiation.

Direct-radiating Surfaces embrace all heaters placed within a room or hall to warm the air already in the room.

Indirect-radiating Surfaces embrace heating-surfaces placed outside the rooms to be heated, and should only be used in connection with some system of ventilation.

Direct-indirect Radiation is a mean between the other two methods. The radiators are placed in the rooms to be heated, as in the first method, and a supply of fresh air brought to them through openings in the outside wall of the room or through a space under the lower sash of a window.

Efficiency of Radiators. The condensation of one pound of steam at atmospheric pressure to water at 212° F. gives out 970 thermal units. Hence, to determine the amount of heat given out by any radiator in a given time, it is only necessary to determine the amount of water in pounds which the radiator condenses in the same time and multiply it by 970. The radiator which, under the same conditions of steam-pressure, volume and temperature of surrounding air, will condense the most water in a given time is the most efficient.

Measurement of Radiators. Radiators are rated, or measured, not according to their size, but according to the amount of heating-surface coming in contact with the air. The size of radiator for a given amount of heating-surface will depend entirely upon the form or shape of the radiator.

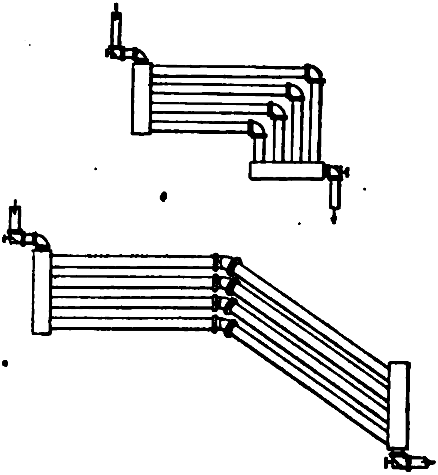

Fig. 1. Pipe-coils

Heating by Direct Radiation. Direct radiation being much more economical than indirect radiation, it will always be much more commonly used for steam or hot-water heating; and in buildings not requiring a great amount of ventilation it offers a nearly perfect mode of heating.

Description of Pipe-Coils. The cheapest direct radiator is one formed of wrought-iron pipes, 1-in pipes being generally preferred, placed against a wall one above the other and connected with return-bends or branch-tees and elbows, to afford a circulation. The length of pipe required to make up a given amount of heating-surface can easily be determined by the use of the tables on pages 1274-6. For rooms in which it is desirable that the heating-apparatus shall present a neat appearance and occupy as little space as possible some form of upright radiator is generally employed. Fig. 1 shows pipe-coils made up of piping and manifolds. The piping must turn an angle to allow for the unequal expansion of the top and bottom pipes. Pipe-radiators are formed of a number of short upright 1-in tubes from 2 ft 8 in to 2 ft 10 in long, screwed into a hollow cast-iron base or box, and are either connected in pairs by return-bends at their upper ends or else each tube stands singly, with its upper end closed, and having a hoop-iron partition extending up inside it from the bottom almost to the top. The radiators are also made circular in form, either in one piece, or in halves for encircling iron columns. The table following shows the dimensions of 1-in pipe-radiators for different heating-surfaces.

Cast-Iron Direct Radiators. Until quite recently direct radiators were made almost exclusively of cast iron. Since about 1905 considerable improvement has been made in the design and quality of cast-iron radiators, so that the newer patterns have very largely superseded those made previous to that date.

The principal manufacturers of radiators are the American Radiator Company, Pierce, Butler & Pierce, Fowler & Wolfe Manufacturing Company, and the H. B. Smith Company, all of whom make several complete lines. There are also a number of smaller companies who make two or three styles.

Table of Vertical Pipe-Radiators

No. of rows and width of base	Tubes in each row	Surface in sq ft*	Length, ft in	No. of rows and width of base	Tubes in each row	Surface in sq ft*	Length, ft in
Single rows, width of base, 4¼ in	4	4	0 10¼	Two rows, width of base, 6¼ in	8	16	1 6¼
	6	6	1 2¼		10	20	1 10¼
	8	8	1 6¼		12	24	2 2¼
	10	10	1 10¼		14	28	2 6¼
	12	12	2 2¼		16	32	2 10¼
	16	16	2 10¼		18	36	3 2¼
	20	20	3 6¼		20	40	3 6¼
	24	24	4 2¼		24	48	4 2¼
	28	28	4 10¼		28	56	4 10¼
	32	32	5 6¼		32	64	5 6¼
	38	38	6 6¼		38	76	6 6¼
Three rows, width of base, 8¼ in	8	24	1 6¼	Four rows, width of base, 10 in	4	16	0 10¼
	12	36	2 2¼		8	32	1 6¼
	16	48	2 10¼		12	48	2 2¼
	20	60	3 6¼		16	64	2 10¼
	24	72	4 2¼		20	80	3 6¼
	28	84	4 10¼		24	96	4 2¼
	32	96	5 6¼		28	112	4 10¼
	38	114	6 6¼		32	128	5 6¼

* For radiators 35 in high.

Heating-Surface in Square Feet per Section of American Direct Radiators

Name of radiator	Width at base	Length per section	Height of radiator in inches											
			45	38	32	26	23	22	20	18	16	15	14	13
Rococo, 1 column	5⅜	2½	..	3	2½	2	1⅔	..	1½	...	...	...	..	...
Rococo, 2 columns	8 3/16	2½	5	4	3⅓	2⅔	2⅓	..	2	...	...	...	..	...
Rococo, 3 columns	9⅞	2½	6	5	4½	3¾	...	3	...	2¼	...	...	..	...
Rococo, 4 columns	11¼	3	10	8	6½	5	...	4	...	3	...	...	..	...
Rococo, window	12½	3	..	..	...	...	...	..	5	...	3¾	...	..	3
Peerless, 1 column	5⅜	2½	..	3	2½	2	1⅔	..	1½	...	...	...	..	...
Peerless, 2 columns	8¼	2½	5	4	3⅓	2⅔	2⅓	..	2	...	...	1½	..	...
Peerless, 3 columns	9¾	2½	6	5	4½	3¾	...	3	...	2¼	...	...	..	...
Peerless, 4 columns	11¼	3	10	8	6½	5	...	4	...	3	...	...	..	...
Peerless, hospital	8¼	3	5	4	3⅓	2⅔	2⅓	..	2	...	...	...	..	...
Italian flue	8½	3	..	7	5¾	4½	...	..	3¼	...	...	...	..	...
Verona	8⅜	2½	..	4	3⅓	2⅔	...	..	2	...	...	...	..	...
Ætna flue	12½	3	..	..	...	...	...	..	6	5⅓	4⅔	...	4	3⅔

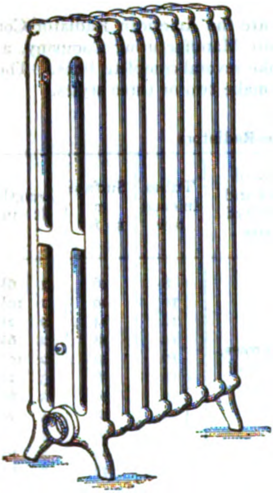

Fig. 2. Rococo Three-column Radiator

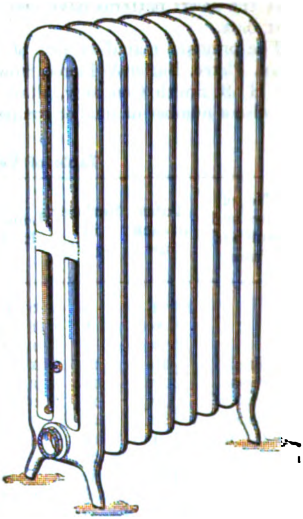

Fig. 3. Peerless Three-column Radiator

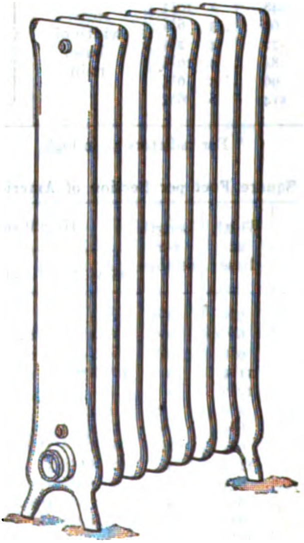

Fig. 4. Verona Radiator

The radiators made by the American Radiator Company, however, are probably more extensively used than those of any other make, and it is for this reason that they have been selected for illustration. Nearly all of the patterns made by this company are very closely duplicated by the companies above named, the variation being principally in the ornamentation. Figs. 2, 3 and 4 illustrate three of the most popular styles of radiators made by this company, although a large variety of radiators in one-column, two-column, three-column and four-column and in extended single-column and flue-construction are also made by them. Fig. 5 shows three sections of the Colonial wall-radiator made by this company, which is very convenient for use in halls and bath-rooms, as it projects only from 3½ to 4½ in from the wall. Corner, circular, curved, and column-radiators; dining-room, window, stairway, box-base, and direct-

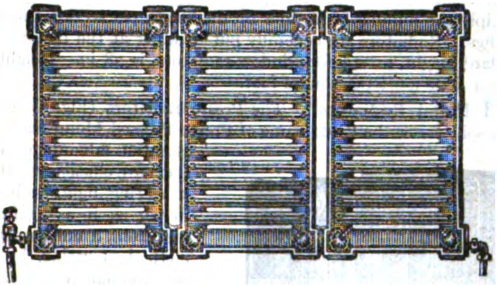

Fig. 5. Three Sections of Colonial Wall-radiator

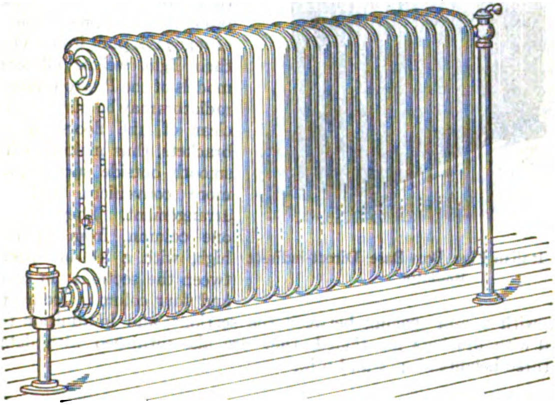

Fig. 6. Presto Pressed Metal Radiator

indirect radiators; such auxiliaries as brackets, pedestals, tops, dampers, and wall-boxes; special radiator-sections with high, low, or single legs are also made by the American Radiator Company, and by all of the other companies above mentioned.

To find the number of sections required, divide the required heating-surface in feet by the values given in table on page 1213. To find the length of the radiator, multiply the number of sections by the length per section and add 1 in for two bushings. Radiators are generally put together at the factory as ordered. The standard height, except for window-radiators, is 38 in. Heights less than 38 in cost a little more per square foot.

Pressed Metal Radiators.* The Presto radiators (Fig. 6) are manufactured and sold under the trade name of Presto Pressed Metal Radiators. The essential advantages claimed for them are efficiency and uniformity in heating, lightness in weight (2½ lb per sq ft as against 7 lb for cast iron), a uniform standardized method of rating, by the use of the decimal system, and guaranteed actual surface-measurements; rapid heating and quick cooling, large air-spaces between sections, smooth surfaces inside and outside, occupying from one-fourth to one-third less space than that of cast iron. It is also claimed that they are unbreakable and they are guaranteed to be leak-proof and rust-proof, being made of 99.672% pure iron. Owing to their light weight all sizes and models of the Presto pressed metal radiators may be hung on the walls clear of the floors by suitable brackets, thus making, with their smooth outside surfaces, a much more convenient and sanitary arrangement. They are made in one column, from 14 to 32 in high, with a 1½-in spacing between the sections; in two, three and four columns, from 14 to 38 in high, with a 2-in spacing between the sections; and in addition to being furnished with brackets mentioned, they are also furnished with detachable legs, in three heights of 4, 5 and 6 in.

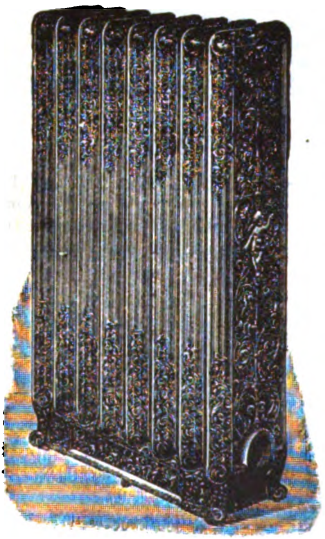

Fig. 7. Italian Flue Box Base Direct-indirect Radiator

Direct-Indirect Radiation

Heating by Direct-indirect Radiation. The only difference between this method of heating and the direct method is that external air is introduced into the room in such a way that it shall come in contact with the radiator and, becoming heated, circulate through the room, and unless other means are provided pass out through the cracks around the doors and windows. By this arrangement sufficient ventilation is afforded for living-rooms and offices. With direct radiation no ventilation at all is afforded. There are several methods of arranging the radiators and cold-air inlets, although nearly all require that the radiator shall be located against an outside wall. The simplest method of providing direct-indirect radiation is by using a radiator that has the lower portion encased so as to form a box, as shown in Fig. 7. Cold air can be conducted from the outside of the house and admitted to the bottom of the radiator, as in Fig. 8. It is then obliged to pass upward between the radiator-flues their entire length and is brought into the room at a comparatively high temperature. A small damper-door is placed in the front of the box, and a damper should also be put in the cold-air supply, so that the radiator can be converted into the ordinary direct-type by simply closing the damper and opening the doors. This would probably be required in very cold weather. The outside of the radiator, of course, heats by direct radiation at all times. If a large amount of ventilation is required, some form of indirect radiator should be enclosed in an incombustible casing and the outside air admitted below the radiator. A very good arrangement to accomplish this purpose is shown in Fig. 9. It consists of a stack of pin or other indirect radiators enclosed in a box of either iron, marble, or wood lined with tin, and provided with registers at the top for the escape of the heated air. The cold air enters through a hollow iron sill placed above the wooden sill of a window and passes down back of the radiator, through a galvanized-iron pipe, to the space under the

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* Manufactured by the Pressed Metal Radiator Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

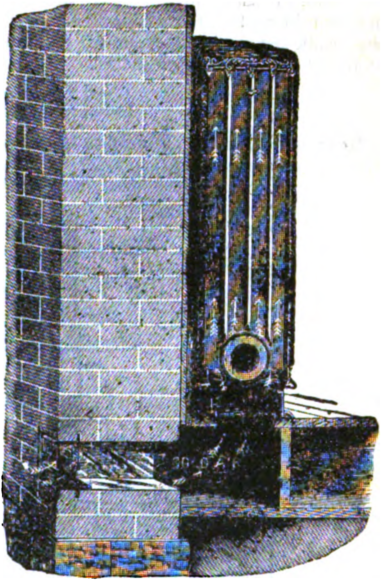
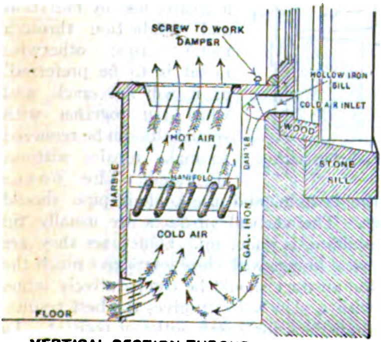


Fig. 8. Direct-indirect Radiator and Cold-air Inlet



VERTICAL SECTION THROUGH RADIATOR, CASING AND WINDOW SILL.

Fig. 9. Vertical Section Through Radiator, Casing and Window-sill

radiator. The cold-air inlet is provided with a damper so that it can be closed, and registers are also placed at the base of the radiator-casing, so that in very cold weather the cold-air inlet may be partially or wholly closed and the air allowed to circulate through the bottom register, up through the radiator, and out of the top registers.

Indirect Radiation

Heating by Indirect Radiation is accomplished by two methods, the more general method being the one which includes separate radiators for each room, located in the cellar or basement, incased with metal, or wood lined with tin, and provided with a fresh-air inlet and tin pipe to convey the hot air to the room to be heated. The other method provides for one cold-air inlet for the whole building and a large coil of steam-pipes placed behind it, so that all the air entering the building must pass through this coil. Such a method can only be used in connection with fan ventilation. Fig. 10 shows the usual method of casing indirect radiators. The casing is generally of galvanized iron, or of wood lined with tin. The latter is better when the cellar is to be kept cool, as there is a greater loss by radiation and conduction through metal cases; otherwise metal is to be preferred, as it will not crack, and when put together with small bolts can be removed to make repairs without damage. The boxes should be fitted with a door in the bottom, and the cold-air pipe should always be provided with a damper. The vertical air-ducts are usually tin flues built into the wall when the building is going up. Sometimes they are only plastered; but round, smooth metal linings with close joints give much the best results. The cross-section of the air-duct should be comparatively large, as a large volume of warmed air with a slow velocity gives the best results. There should be a separate vertical air-duct for every outlet or register. In branched vertical air-ducts one is generally a failure. The heated air from one heater may be taken to two or more vertical air-ducts when they start directly over it; the duct to the lower room being taken from the top and that to the upper room from the side, or both from the top. If both rooms are on the same level, both ducts should be taken from the top of the box. Inlet or cold-air ducts are best when there is one for every coil or heater. Sometimes only

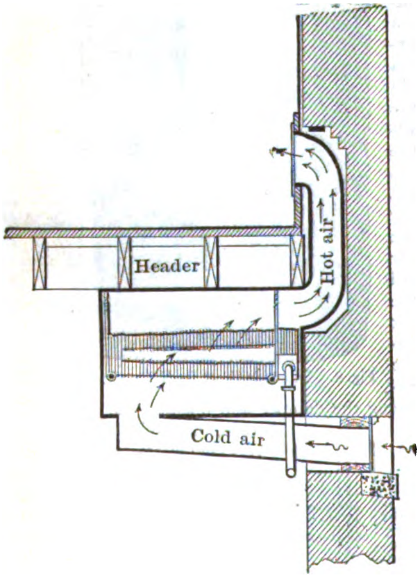


Fig. 10. Section Through Indirect Radiator-stack

one large-branched cold-air duct is used, but this system will give trouble unless all the rooms are ventilated by forced ventilation.

The Radiators. For indirect heating a form of radiator is employed different from those used for direct radiation. In this method the desideratum is to have as many square feet of heating-surface in as little space as possible, appearance being of no importance. The earliest form used, and which is still used in the fan or hot-blast systems, is the pipe-coil radiator, formed of a coil of pipes connected at the ends with return-bends. For ordinary indirect heating cast-iron radiators of one of the types shown in Figs. 11, 12 and 13 are now

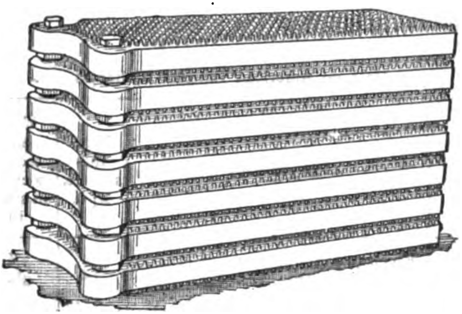


Fig. 11. Perfection Indirect Pin Radiator

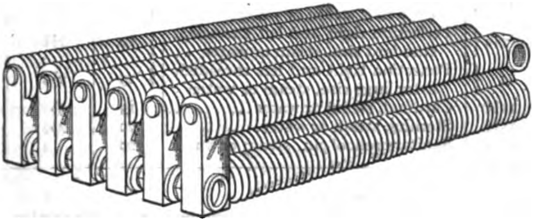


Fig. 12. Excelsior Indirect Radiator for Steam

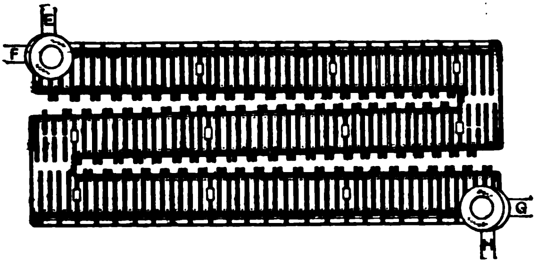


Fig. 13. Sterling Indirect Radiator

used almost exclusively, as they are fully as cheap if not cheaper than pipe-radiators and more satisfactory. The pin-radiator is made by several manufacturers and is one of the earliest types of indirect radiators. That shown in Fig. 11 is made in two sizes, STANDARD, with 10 sq ft of heating-surface, and EXTRA LARGE, with 15 sq ft of heating-surface. They are also made for connecting the sections by FLANGE AND BOLT or by right-threaded and left-threaded couplings.

Data on American Indirect Radiators

Length of section, in	Extreme height, in	Pattern-name	Heating-surface, sq ft	Width each section occupies in stack, in	Regular tapping, in
23¾	8	Excelsior junior, steam	8	3⅝	*1½
36	8	Excelsior, steam	12	3⅝	*1½
36¾	8	Excelsior, water	12	3⅝	*1½
36¼	11½	Perfection flange and bolt, standard size, steam or water	10	2¾	†2
36¼	15½	Perfection flange and bolt, extra-large size, steam or water	15	2⅞	†2
36¼	9¹³⁄₁₆	Perfection right and left threaded, standard size, steam or water	10	2¾	†2
36¼	14	Perfection right and left threaded, extra large size, steam or water	15	2⅞	†2
37¼	11¼	Cardinal, steam or water	15	3½	†2
36¾	15¾	Sterling, steam or water	20	3½	†2
36⅛	15¼	Sanitary school pin, steam or water	20	4	†2

* Bushing reduction cannot be made.

† These radiators are all regularly tapped 2 in, and bushed according to the size specified in order.

Data for Excelsior Indirect Steam-Radiators

Heating-surface, sq ft	Cold-air supply, sq in	Diameter of duct if round, in	Hot-air flue, sq in	Size for brick-work for hot-air flues, in	Size of register, in	Ratio of 1 to 30, cu ft	Ratio of 1 to 35, cu ft	Ratio of 1 to 40, cu ft
24	36	6.8	48	4×12	8×8	720	840	960
36	54	8.3	72	8×12	9×12	1 080	1 260	1 440
48	72	9.6	96	8×12	10×14	1 440	1 680	1 920
60	90	10.0	120	12×12	12×15	1 800	2 100	2 400
72	108	11.7	144	12×12	12×19	2 160	2 520	2 880
84	126	12.7	168	12×16	14×22	2 520	2 940	3 360
96	144	13.5	192	12×16	14×24	2 880	3 360	3 840
108	162	14.4	226	12×20	16×20	3 240	3 780	4 320
120	180	15.2	240	12×20	16×24	3 600	4 200	4 800
132	198	15.9	264	12×24	20×20	3 960	4 620	5 280
144	216	16.6	288	12×24	20×24	4 320	5 040	5 760

Nearly all indirect radiators may be used for either water or steam-circulation. Indirect radiators are generally hung from the ceiling by four iron hangers attached to the floor-joists and having their lower ends shaped so as to hold the iron pipe or bar-iron on which the radiator rests. The hanger supporting the return-end of the stack should be slightly lower, from ¼ to ½ in, than the others, so that the water of condensation may have a positive flow toward the return-connection. The distance from the top of the stack to the ceiling should be from 10 to 12 in, and the air-space below the stack to the bottom of the casing, from 6 to 8 in. The ceiling over the stack is usually covered with galvanized iron or tin. The SUPPLY and RETURN-PIPES should always be of ample size. The space required for any quantity of heating-surface of any one of the three radiators described above may be readily determined by means of the data given. The preceding table will be found useful in proportioning the size of air-ducts.

The Boiler

Classes of Heating-Boilers. There are a great many varieties of steam-boilers in use for generating steam for heating purposes besides several types that were on the market some years ago and are now practically obsolete. The larger proportion of the boilers used at the present time may be classed under the following heads:

(1) Horizontal tubular boilers.
(2) Fire-box boilers.
(3) Sectional boilers.
    (*a*) Boilers with vertical sections.
    (*b*) Boilers with horizontal sections.

Horizontal Tubular Boilers. This boiler has been very extensively used both for heating and power and is still preferred by many engineers for heating large buildings or generating steam for hot-blast heating-systems. It is an efficient type of boiler, is easily cleaned, and is usually the most economical type for a large amount of radiation, say over 2 500 sq ft, and particularly when soft coal is used for fuel. The chief objection to its use is that if there is an explosion, it is liable to do great damage and may possibly demolish the building. The chance of an explosion, however, is very small indeed,* with low-pressure steam. Tubular boilers are manufactured in nearly every city of importance and can be purchased in every market at a reasonable price. The boiler should be provided with manholes with strongly reinforced edges, so that a person can enter for cleaning. The heads of the boiler above the tubes should be thoroughly braced in order to sustain safely any pressure from the inside.

Domes. Domes were formerly placed above the horizontal part of a boiler to increase the capacity for the storage of steam and to afford a ready means of drawing off dry steam, but they are poor substitutes for properly-designed dry-pipes. The dome is always an element of weakness in a boiler, and many

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* "The claim for safety can also be made for the horizontal return tubular boiler. The fact is that when boilers of this type are properly constructed they do not explode. When one compares the few explosions which occur with the great number of boilers of this type which are manufactured every year and the vastly greater number which are in use, a large number of them carelessly constructed and carrying a greater pressure than they were designed to carry, it is a strong argument in support of this claim, that they are safety boilers when proper care and inspection are given to their construction. Moreover, the horizontal return tubular boiler when well designed and carefully constructed is not only a safety boiler, but when compared with water-tube boilers we do not hesitate to say that it is more economical." Edward Kendall & Sons.

Horizontal Tubular Boilers

Manufactured by Edward Kendall & Sons, Cambridge, Mass.*

Diameter of boiler	Length of boiler		Number of tubes	Diameter of tubes	Length of tubes	Thickness of shell	Heating-surface	Nominal horse-power	Approx. weight of boiler and castings	Square feet of grate-surface†	Square feet of radiating surface that can be supplied‡
in	ft	in		in	ft	in	sq ft				
30	6	0	36	2	5	¼	114	7⅔	3 600	5	684
30	7	0	36	2	6	¼	137	9⅓	3 750	5	822
30	8	0	36	2	7	¼	160	10⅔	3 900	6	990
30	9	0	36	2	8	¼	182	12	4 050	8	1 092
36	8	0	34	2½	7	¼	189	12½	4 390	8	1 124
36	9	0	34	2½	8	¼	216	14½	4 600	8	1 296
36	10	0	34	2½	9	¼	243	16	4 810	10	1 458
36	11	0	34	2½	10	¼	270	18	5 090	10	1 620
36	12	0	34	2½	11	¼	297	20	5 300	12	1 782
36	13	0	28	3	12	¼	321	21	5 510	12	1 926
42	10	0	45	2½	9	¼	315	21	6 610	12	1 890
42	11	0	45	2½	10	¼	350	23	7 030	12	2 100
42	12	0	45	2½	11	¼	384	26	7 300	14	2 304
42	13	0	45	2½	12	¼	420	28	7 660	14	2 520
42	12	0	38	3	11	¼	389	26	7 320	14	2 334
42	13	0	38	3	12	¼	425	28	7 680	14	2 550
42	14	0	38	3	13	¼	460	31	7 950	16	2 760
42	15	0	38	3	14	¼	495	33	8 220	16	2 970
48	12	2	69	2½	11	5/16	566	38	9 750	18	3 396
48	13	2	69	2½	12	5/16	617	41	10 150	18	3 702
48	15	2	49	3	14	5/16	626	42	10 685	18	3 756
48	16	2	49	3	15	5/16	671	45	11 035	18	4 026
48	17	2	49	3	16	5/16	716	48	11 485	20	4 296
48	17	2	38	3½	16	5/16	658	44	12 085	20	3 948
48	18	2	38	3½	17	5/16	700	47	12 535	20	4 200
54	15	2	60	3	14	11/32	759	51	14 015	24	4 554
54	16	2	72	3	15	11/32	954	63	15 074	26	5 724
54	17	2	72	3	16	11/32	1 018	68	15 584	28	6 108
54	18	2	72	3	17	11/32	1 082	72	16 094	28	6 492
54	17	2	54	3½	16	11/32	905	60	15 458	26	5 430
54	18	2	54	3½	17	11/32	961	64	15 980	26	5 766
54	19	2	54	3½	18	11/32	1 018	68	16 552	28	6 108
60	18	2	92	3	17	⅜	1 364	91	19 000	34	8 284
60	18	2	64	3½	17	⅜	1 133	76	18 468	30	6 798
60	19	2	64	3½	18	⅜	1 200	80	19 227	32	7 200
66	18	2	110	3	17	⅜	1 615	108	22 430	40	9 690
66	18	2	82	3½	17	⅜	1 426	95	22 190	36	8 556
72	18	2	130	3	17	7/16	1 900	127	26 036	48	11 400
72	18	2	100	3½	17	7/16	1 721	115	25 980	44	10 326

* Selected from 156 sizes listed by this firm. These boilers are made up to 96 in diam and 21 ft long.

† For hard coal or coke.

‡ Proportion 6 to 1. The last two columns were added by Mr. Kidder.

engineers claim that a boiler is better without it. For gravity-heating, boilers without domes are probably most used. There seems to be no STANDARD PROPORTIONS for tubular boilers, as the practice of different makers and engineers varies somewhat. The proportions given in the accompanying tables, however, are fairly representative of most of the boilers made, those in the first table being designed for hard coal and those in the second table for soft coal.

When soft coal is used for fuel the efficiency of the boiler may be increased by increasing the grate-area about 20%.

Proportions of Horizontal Tubular Boilers

Made by the Atlas Engineering Works, Indianapolis, Ind.

These are about the standard proportions as used in the Western States for ordinary purposes

Nom. rated h.-p.*	Shell†		Mean thickness		Tubes			Heating-surface, sq ft	Grate-surface, sq ft
	Diameter, in	Length, ft	Shell, in	Heads, in	Number	Diameter, in	Length, ft		
15	36	8	¼	⅜	26	3	8	214	5.8
20	36	10	¼	⅜	26	3	10	266	8.3
25	36	12	¼	⅜	26	3	12	318	9.5
30	40	12	¼	⅜	34	3	12	404	12.0
35	42	12	¼	7/16	40	3	12	464	12.8
40	46	12	9/32	7/16	42	3	12	491	14.6
45	48	12	9/32	7/16	48	3	12	551	15.3
50	48	14	9/32	7/16	40	3½	14	630	16.0
55	52	14	5/16	7/16	44	3½	14	693	16.7
60	54	14	5/16	½	46	3½	14	721	18.0
70	54	16	5/16	½	40	4	16	817	20.8
75	60	14	11/32	½	62	3½	14	940	21.5
85	60	16	11/32	½	52	4	16	1 045	22.2
100	66	16	⅜	½	64	4	16	1 265	25.0
125	72	16	7/16	½	82	4	16	1 578	29.5
150	72	18	7/16	½	82	4	18	1 775	36.5

* It will be noticed that these boilers are rated a little higher than the usual standard of 15 sq ft of heating-surface to 1 h.-p.

† In these boilers the smoke-box is made of a separate piece, so that the actual length of boilers is 15 in more than length of shell.

Size of Tubes. In the Eastern States where hard coal is used, 2½-in tubes are commonly placed in boilers up to 12 ft long, but where soft coal is used for fuel, the tubes should not be less than 3 in in diameter even for the smallest boiler, while for boilers 16 ft long and over 3½-in or 4-in tubes should be used.

Setting of Horizontal Tubular Boilers. Boilers are set with HALF-FRONTS and FULL FRONTS. With half-front setting, the front end of the boiler projects 12 in or more beyond the brickwork and is covered with a cast-iron frame containing two doors for giving access to the flues. With a full front, a cast-iron front is provided the full width of the boiler and extending from the floor to the top of the brick setting. Fig. 14 shows the usual method of setting a horizontal tubular boiler with full front, and the table opposite it gives the dimensions indicated by the letters, and the quantities of bricks required. These will be found useful in showing the boiler-setting on the foundation-plan of the building, and also in estimating the cost of setting.

Measurements for Setting Tubular Boilers with Full Fronts

Reference-letters in Fig. 14

A	B	C	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R		S		Common brick	Firebrick
in	ft	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	ft	in	ft	in		
30	8	12½	14	30	44	80	18	18	18	8	18	13	35	16	36	5	2	11	7½	5 200	320
30	10	12½	14	36	50	80	18	18	18	8	18	13	35	16	36	5	2	13	7½	5 800	320
36	8	12½	14	36	50	80	18	18	18	8	18	13	35	16	42	5	8	11	7½	6 200	480
36	10	12½	14	36	50	80	18	18	18	8	18	13	35	16	42	5	8	13	7½	7 000	480
40	10	14¾	14	30	44	92	21	20	21	8	18	18	40	21	46	6	10	14	2¾	7 700	600
40	12	14¾	14	36	50	92	21	20	21	8	18	18	40	21	46	6	10	16	2¾	8 800	600
42	10	14¾	14	36	50	92	21	20	21	9	20	18	40	21	48	7	0	14	4¾	10 000	720
42	12	14¾	14	42	56	92	21	20	21	9	20	18	40	21	48	7	0	16	4¾	10 800	720
42	14	14¾	14	42	56	92	21	20	21	9	20	18	40	21	48	7	0	18	4¾	11 600	720
48	12	14¾	15¾	42	57¾	100	22	21	24	9	20	18	42	21	54	7	6	16	4¾	13 200	980
48	14	14¾	15¾	48	63¾	100	22	21	24	9	20	18	42	21	54	7	6	18	4¾	14 200	980
48	16	14¾	15¾	54	69¾	100	22	21	24	9	20	18	42	21	54	7	6	20	4¾	15 200	980
54	14	16½	15¾	48	63¾	110	25	22½	24	10	24	22	46½	25	60	8	8	19	2½	14 900	1 154
54	16	16½	15¾	54	69¾	110	25	22½	24	10	24	22	46½	25	60	8	8	21	2½	16 000	1 154
60	14	16½	16	54	70	118	27½	22½	24	10	24	22	49	25	66	9	2	19	2½	16 100	1 280
60	16	16½	16	54	70	118	27½	22½	24	10	24	22	49	25	66	9	2	21	2½	17 400	1 280
60	18	16½	16	60	76	118	27½	22½	24	10	24	22	49	25	66	9	2	23	2½	18 700	1 280

Fire-Box Boilers. A fire-box boiler is a horizontal tubular boiler with a fire-box formed in the front end, as in Fig. 15. The fire-box has double walls, the space between being filled with water, so that the fire is entirely surrounded with water, the object being to utilize a greater percentage of the heat generated by combustion than is possible with the ordinary tubular boiler. The American Radiator Company makes a fire-box boiler intended especially for heating purposes, which would seem to be a very efficient type of boiler for buildings having from 1 000 to 3 000 ft of direct-steam radiation or 1 500 to 6 000 ft of hot-

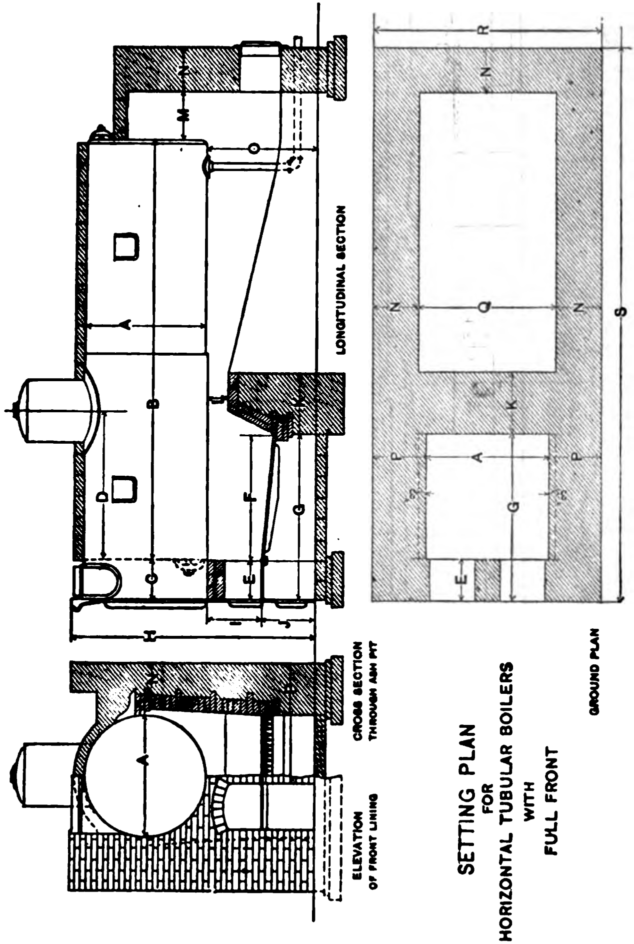
LONGITUDINAL SECTION
CROSS SECTION THROUGH ASH PIT
ELEVATION OF FRONT LINING
GROUND PLAN
SETTING PLAN FOR HORIZONTAL TUBULAR BOILERS WITH FULL FRONT
A
B
C
D
E
F
G
H
I
J
K
M
N
O
P
Q
R
S

Fig. 14. Setting-plan for Horizontal Tubular Boilers with Full Front

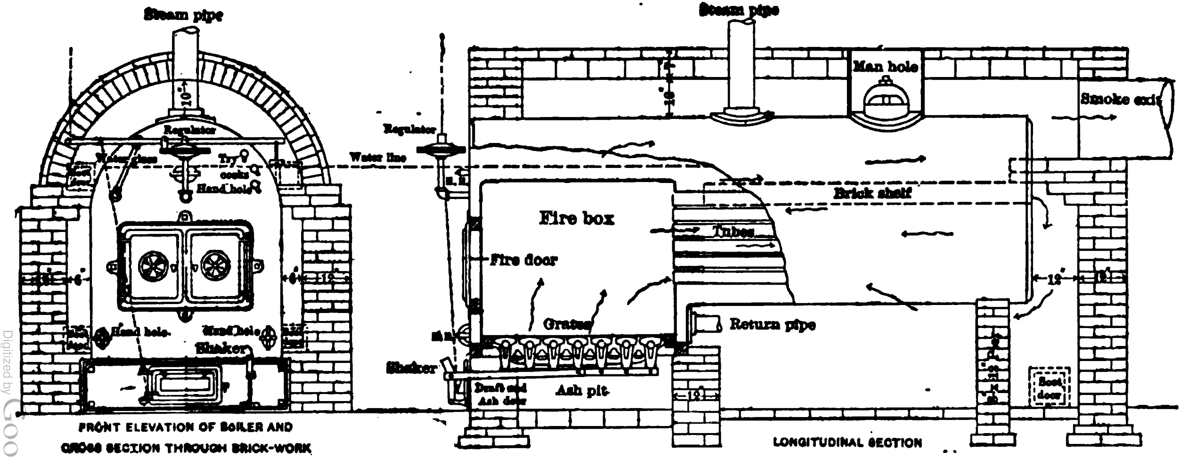

Fig. 15. Fire-box Boiler

water radiation, and particularly where hard coal or coke is used for fuel. These boilers may be installed in very low cellars. The danger from explosion with these boilers, however, when used for steam-heating is about the same as with plain tubular boilers. Fire-box boilers require a brick setting which is shown in Fig. 15.

Sectional Cast-Iron Boilers. Boilers of this class have been used for a great many years, and have very largely taken the place of tubular boilers for the heating of large private and public buildings, principally on account of their safety from dangerous explosions. This, in fact, is the chief advantage of the sectional boiler over a tubular boiler. In a sectional boiler, should an explosion occur from gross carelessness of the attendant, it would probably be confined to not more than two sections, and do but little damage to the building. Many improvements have been made in these boilers, so that some of the latest patterns seem to be about perfect for the class of work for which they are intended.

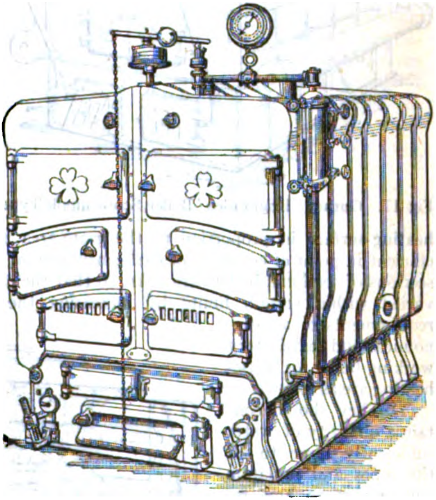

Fig. 16. "Ideal" Sectional Steam-boiler

Types of Sectional Boilers. There is such a great variety of small sectional boilers for house-heating that it is impossible to describe them in a work of this character. Nearly all are of a portable pattern and are generally made with horizontal sections, that is, with sections fitting one on top of the other. For buildings having more than 400 ft of direct radiation in the radiators, a vertical sectional boiler is to be preferred to one with horizontal sections. The vertical sectional boiler is made up of a number of cast-iron vertical sections set one in front of the other on a cast-iron base which forms the ash-pit. The sections are connected together either by means of push-nipples fitting tightly into adjacent sections or by connecting each section to three drums, one above the boiler and one on each side near the bottom. The latter type of boiler is designated as a SCREW-NIPPLE boiler and the former as a PUSH-NIPPLE boiler. The push-nipple boiler is the later type and seems to be most in favor with steam-fitters. It affords a freer circulation of steam and water than the screw-nipple type and is more quickly erected. On the other hand, if any section of a push-nipple boiler becomes disabled, the entire boiler must be thrown out of use until a new section can be put in; while with the screw-nipple boiler, if an intermediate section is disabled it can be disconnected from the drums and the openings plugged, so that the boiler can be run temporarily, or even permanently, if it is large enough, without taking out the disabled section. Fig. 16 shows the general external appearance of push-nipple boilers and Fig. 17 of the screw-nipple boilers. Fig. 18 is a sectional view of the Gurney Bright Idea sectional water-tube hot-water boiler, 1 200 SERIES, adapted to from 5 000 to 11 000 sq ft of radiation. Boilers constructed on the same principle are also made for house-heating.

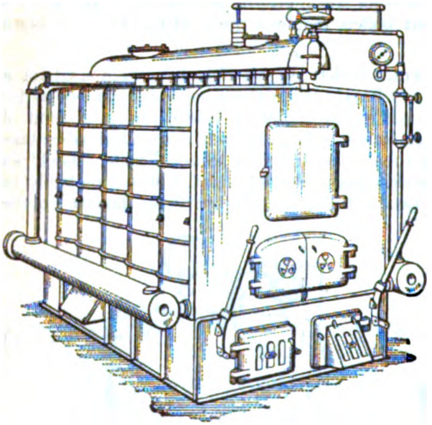

Fig. 17. Gurney "Bright Idea" Boiler, Screw-nipple Type

Although the external appearance of nearly all vertical sectional boilers is quite similar, the arrangement of the flues or passages for the gases of combustion differs somewhat in each different line of boilers; and between some lines, as between the Gurney Bright Idea and the Ideal line of the American Radiator Company, it is very great. In general, it may be said that those heaters which have the greatest amount of heating-surface in proportion to the grate-area are likely to prove the most efficient in point of economy of coal-consumption. As a rule, the intermediate sections of sectional boilers are alike, so that the capacity of the boiler may be varied within certain limits by increasing the number of sections. The requirements of an economical and satisfactory working-boiler for house-heating are as follows:

(1) They should contain a quantity of water sufficiently large to fill the pipes and radiators with steam to any required pressure WITHOUT LOWERING THE WATER IN THE BOILER TO REQUIRE AN ADDITION WHEN STEAM IS UP; for should the steam go down suddenly, there will be too much water in the boiler. This occurs in boilers made with very small parts or pipes which have a small capacity at the water-line. Such a boiler requires great care, for if it has an automatic water-feeder set for the TRUE water-line, it will fill up, but cannot discharge again when the steam goes down; while if it has no feeder, it is in danger of being spoiled, as the water is in the pipes IN THE FORM OF STEAM.

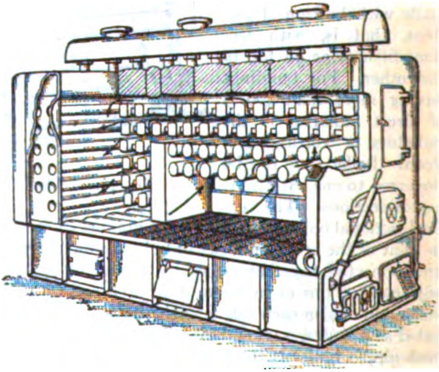

Fig. 18. Sectional View of Gurney Boiler

It is true that a boiler which contains a small amount of water in proportion to its heating-surface will GET UP STEAM quicker than one containing a larger quantity of water, but the latter will keep steam much better when the fire is renewed; and boilers which contain small quantities of water are rapidly chilled as well as rapidly heated and must be fired often and regularly.

(2) The fire-box should be of iron, with a water-space around it, to prevent clinkering on the sides and the necessity of repairs to brickwork, which are unavoidable in brick furnaces.

(3) The fire-box should be DEEP below the fire-door, to admit of a thick fire to last all night and thus keep up steam. For large boilers which require the services of an engineer it is desirable to have a large grate-area and a thin fire; but such a fire requires to be renewed too often to be suitable for a house-boiler.

(4) The fire-box should be SPACIOUS, for the sake of good combustion.

(5) The boiler should have few parts, and the FLUES and tubes should be LARGE and in a vertical position, so that they will not foul easily, and so that any deposit may fall to the bottom. For dwellings the writer advises those forms of boilers which are without tubes, or with but a very few, as the tubes will invariably give out long before the shell, and if the tubes are not kept clean they will transmit but a small percentage of heat.

(6) All parts should be readily accessible for cleaning and repairs. This is a point of the greatest importance and economy. When the heating-surfaces become covered with soot and ashes, the economy of the boiler greatly decreases as the soot acts as an insulator and prevents the heat reaching the boiler. It is for this reason that boilers which work well when new are found insufficient to do the work required of them when they become dirty.

(7) The heating-surface should be arranged as nearly as possible at right-angles to the currents of heated gases and so break up the currents as to extract the entire available heat therefrom.

(8) It should have, if possible, no joints exposed to the direct action of the fire.

(9) It should have a great excess of strength over any legitimate stress, and should be so constructed as not to be liable to be stressed by unequal expansion.

(10) It should be durable in construction and not liable to require early repairs.

(11) The water-space should be divided into sections, so arranged that should any section fail, no general explosion can occur and any destructive effects will be limited to the simple escape of the contents.

(12) It should be proportioned for the work to be done, and be capable of working to its full rated capacity with the highest economy.

(13) It should be provided with the very best gauges, safety-valves and other fixtures.

The boiler should be set so that its water-line will be at least 2 ft below the main horizontal supply-pipe. The more prominent lines of sectional boilers for low-pressure steam or hot-water heating are: The Ideal line, made by the American Radiator Company; the Bright Idea, made by the Gurney Heater Manufacturing Company; the Mercer and Gold, made by the H. B. Smith Company; and the Spencer, made by the Spencer Heater Company. Cast-iron boilers are very extensively used. Besides being very efficient they also have the merit of being low in stature, thus fitting them, without constructing special pits, for installation in buildings with low cellars. The American Radiator Company makes twenty different types of sectional boilers for steam and water, adapted to all kinds of fuel, and fifteen different types of round boilers.

Setting and Covering of Sectional Boilers. The only brickwork required for any of the boilers named above is a suitable foundation with watertight ash-pit about 12 in deep. The outside of the boilers, however, should be plastered with a substantial covering, from 1 to 1½ in thick, of plastic asbestos.

Rating of Steam-Boilers. Tubular boilers are often designated as so many HORSE-POWER. Strictly speaking, there is no such thing as the HORSE-POWER OF a steam-boiler, as this is a measure applicable only to dynamic effect. But as boilers are necessary to drive steam-engines, the same measure applied to steam-engines has come to be universally applied to the boiler and cannot well be discarded. The standard established by the committee of judges of the Centennial Exposition in 1876, and since adopted by the Am. Soc. M.E., is "the evaporation of 30 lb of water per hour from feed-water at 100° F. into steam at 70 lb gauge-pressure." This standard is equal to 33 305 thermal units per hour. As the amount of water which any boiler will evaporate per hour depends as much upon the management of the fire and the kind of fuel used as upon the size, the above standard is a difficult one to determine with accuracy, so that in practice the commercial horse-power of a boiler has come to be measured by the amount of its heating-surface, that is, the heating-surface available in generating steam. It is the general practice to consider 12.5 sq ft of heating-surface in horizontal tubular boilers and 10 sq ft in water-tube boilers as equivalent to one horse-power, and most manufacturers rate their boilers by this standard. The rule for computing the heating-surface of horizontal tubular boilers is as follows, all dimensions being taken in inches: Multiply two-thirds the circumference of the shell by its length, multiply the sum of the circumferences of all the tubes by their common length; to the sum of these products add two-thirds of the area of both tube sheets less twice the combined area of all the tubes, and divide the sum by 144 to obtain the result in square feet. Or, the heating-surface is equal to the surface-area of all the tubes, plus two-thirds the surface of the shell and both tube-sheets, minus the area of the holes.

Steam-Heaters, that is, boilers intended only for the heating of buildings, are generally rated by the manufacturers according to the amount of direct radiating-surface they will supply, including all piping. These ratings are commonly made pretty high, so that it is a safe rule to use a boiler having a rating 40% in excess of the actual direct radiation (radiators) when the mains are covered and 50% when they are not covered. Each foot of indirect radiation should be figured as equal to 1¾ ft of direct radiation.

Proportioning Radiating Surface to Horizontal Tubular Boilers. To determine the size of boiler necessary to supply a given amount of direct radiation, allow 1 sq ft of heating-surface in the boiler to 6 or 7 sq ft of direct radiation when all mains are covered, and 1 sq ft to 5 or 6 sq ft when the mains are not covered. A large boiler will usually supply a greater amount of radiation in proportion to its heating-surface than a small one. In these rules the piping is not to be included in the radiating-surface. It should be borne in mind that no hard and fast rule can be given for proportioning heating-surfaces; hence in laying out a heating-plant the architect will do well to be guided by the advice of an experienced engineer.

Amount of Coal Burned per Hour. The amount of coal burned per square foot of grate-surface per hour is rarely less than 15 lb with power-boilers, and in some cases is very much greater, but it is usually less than 10 lb, and is sometimes as small as 3 or 4 with heating-boilers.

Boiler-Trimmings. Every steam-boiler should be provided with a brass-cased steam-gauge, safety-valve, and water-column with gauge, water-gauge, and glass. An automatic damper-regulator with connections for operating the draft-door and cold-air check is also desirable on house-heaters. The best safety-valve for low-pressure boilers is the single-weighted type; it should be connected at the top of the heater.

Systems of Piping for Steam-Heating

Distinction Between Gravity and Non-Gravity Systems. The various systems of steam-heating are divided into two general classes, GRAVITY CIRCULATING SYSTEMS and NON-GRAVITY SYSTEMS. The former embraces all systems in which the water of condensation from the various radiators returns to the boiler by its own weight, that is, by gravity, without the aid of any mechanical device. Non-gravity systems require some special machinery, such as a pump or return-trap, to return the water to the boiler, or, in some cases, the water of condensation is wasted. The kind of boiler used or the character of the radiation has nothing to do with the distinction between the two systems, although with the non-gravity systems tubular or power-boilers are generally employed. Wherever high-pressure steam is carried in the boiler, the non-gravity system must be used; hence, this system is often designated as the high-pressure system, but it is very seldom that high-pressure steam is carried into the radiators. If high-pressure steam is generated for power-purposes, that portion of live steam which is used for heating is generally passed through a reducing valve, so that the pressure in the radiators does not exceed 10 lb per sq in, and if exhaust-steam is used it can be mixed with the reduced live steam; otherwise the heating-system is exactly the same as a gravity-system, except in returning the water of condensation to the boiler. On the other hand, where low-pressure steam is used and it is necessary to place radiators below the water-line in the boiler, a non-gravity system must be used because the water of condensation must be collected in a tank or receiver and returned to the boiler by a return-trap or pump. For gravity-circulation the lowest radiation must be at least 4 ft above the water-line in the boiler. The same system of piping may be used for both systems, except that with the non-gravity systems the return-pipe must terminate in a receiver placed below the level of the lowest radiator. (See page 1234.)

Definitions of Terms Used in Describing Steam and Hot-Water Piping. There are certain terms used in describing steam or hot-water piping with which an architect or superintendent should be familiar. The MAIN or DISTRIBUTION-PIPE is the pipe leaving the boiler and which conveys the steam or hot water to the risers or branches which supply radiating surfaces. In steam-heating this pipe is termed the MAIN STEAM-PIPE, and in hot-water heating the MAIN FLOW-PIPE. The term SUPPLY-PIPE is sometimes applied to main steam-pipes, but it is not technically correct. The pipes in which the flow takes place from the radiator are called RETURN-PIPES. The MAIN RETURN is the pipe which connects with the boiler below the water-line, or, in a non-gravity system, connects with the receiver. The RISERS are those pipes which extend in a vertical direction to supply radiators. The vertical pipes in which the flow is downward are called RETURN-RISERS. A RELIEF or DRIP is a small pipe run from a steam-main to a return. It must be used at all points where water is likely to gather in the main. The PITCH is the inclination given to any pipe when running in a nearly horizontal direction. The term WATER-LINE is used to denote the height at which the water will stand in the return-pipes. In a low-pressure gravity-system the water-line is practically the level of the water in the boiler. The term WATER-HAMMER is applied to a very severe concussion which often occurs in steam-heating pipes and radiators. It is caused by cold water accumulating to such an extent as to condense some of the steam in the pipe, thus forming a vacuum which is filled by a very violent rush of steam and water. The water strikes the sides of the radiators or pipes with great force and often so as to cause considerable damage. In general, water-hammering may be prevented by arranging the piping in size and pitch so that the water of condensation will immediately drain out of the radiators or pipes. An AIR-TRAP is an upward bend in a pipe which accumulates air to such an extent as to prevent circulation in the system. When an air-trap cannot be avoided, a small pipe or air-valve for the escape of air should be connected with the highest portion of the bend and led to some pipe which will freely discharge the entrapped air.

Systems of Steam-Piping. Three systems of piping are employed in gravity steam-heating which may be briefly described as follows:

(1) **The Mills or Complete-Circuit System** introduced into this country by J. H. Mills and sometimes called the OVERHEAD SINGLE-PIPE SYSTEM. In this system the main pipe is led directly to the highest part of the building, usually to the attic, whence distribution-pipes are run to the various return-risers, which extend to the basement and discharge into the main return. The supply for the radiating-surfaces is all taken from the return-risers, and in some cases the entire downward circulation passes through the radiating-system. In this system the radiators in the top story receive steam first, and the steam and water of condensation is always flowing in the same direction except in the main steam-riser. But one connection is made to each radiator, the steam and water of condensation flowing through the same opening and riser. Below the first floor the piping carries only the return-water and steam. This system is equally well adapted for either steam or hot-water heating, and on the score of positiveness of circulation and ease of construction is no doubt to be commended as superior to all others. It is also the best system for compensating for the expansion in the risers in tall buildings. The principal objections to it are: (a) The necessity of placing the distribution-pipes in the attic or top story instead of in the basement, which may or may not be of serious importance; and (b) the slightly greater cost of piping than that of the usual one-pipe system; but as a rule this will be more than offset by the better working of the system. This system is especially recommended for high buildings and for mills and factories (see page 1240).

(2) **Ordinary One-Pipe System or One-Pipe Basement-System.** In this system one large steam-main runs around the basement to a point where the last radiator or riser is taken off and is then connected into a return-main, which conveys the water of condensation back to the boiler, or if there is no occasion for dropping the return below the basement-floor, the steam-main is continued around the basement and connected to the return in the back of the boiler. The steam-main when it leaves the boiler is elevated close under the ceiling, and is graded down from the boiler about ½ in in 10 ft, so that the water of condensation will flow towards the return. In this system as in the Mills system there is only one connection made to each direct radiator, which is an advantage over the double-pipe system, as there is only one valve to open or close in turning on or shutting off a radiator. Unlike the Mills system, however, the steam and water flow in opposite directions in the risers. With this system a good automatic air-valve should be placed on the extreme end of the horizontal return-main, above the water-line, to allow the escape of air that cannot escape through the radiators. This method of piping is the one now used most extensively and when correctly installed gives good satisfaction.

(3) **The Two-Pipe System.** This system consists in having steam and return-mains in the cellar and two connections to each radiator. The steam-main is graded down from the boiler about ¼ in in 10 ft, and is reduced in size as radiator or riser-connections are taken off; at the end it is connected into the return-main below the water-line. The return-main increases in size as it goes towards the boiler, as connections are made to it from risers or radiators. Each radiator receives steam from a riser or connection taken from the steam-main and empties into the return through a return-riser or connection, so that there is a complete circulation throughout the entire system. This system is now confined mainly to large buildings and to buildings heated by indirect radiation. INDIRECT RADIATORS must always have a flow and return-pipe, and when used in buildings heated by the one-pipe system the return-riser must be entered into a return-main below the water-line. The two-pipe system is naturally much more expensive than the one-pipe system, because twice as many radiator-valves are required for the former and 50 to 75% more piping.

The Vacuum-Systems of Heating. Several vacuum-systems of heating are now on the market. All of these systems are provided with an exhausting-device for producing a vacuum either on the return or on a pipe-line connecting to the air-valves. In most of the vacuum-systems a pump is applied to the return-pipe and by its action the pressure is removed from the entire system. The best known and most widely used vacuum-system is the Webster, which is described in detail later in the second paragraph following.

The Paul System of Heating.* This is a patented system of exhausting all air from the radiators and piping, so that the steam circulates below or a little above atmospheric pressure. This is accomplished by attaching a patented air-valve to each radiator, and at any points where air might possibly collect in the returns, and connecting these valves by means of small air-pipes with an exhausting-apparatus placed in the boiler-room. The valves are so constructed that while they permit of the passage of air no water can escape through them. The only difference between the PAUL SYSTEM and the ORDINARY SINGLE-PIPE GRAVITY-SYSTEM lies in reducing the pressure by exhausting the air so that the resistance is lessened in pipes and radiators. The exhausting-apparatus may be operated by steam, electricity, gas, or water, water being usually employed with low-pressure systems. The cost of operating the exhausting-apparatus when low-pressure boilers are used need not exceed 3 cts per day for a building containing 4 500 sq ft of radiation. To install the system the steam-fitter must purchase the valves and exhausting-apparatus from the Automatic Heating Company and pay a small royalty, the amount depending upon the amount of radiation in the building. As by this system better circulation is provided than when the air discharges into the rooms through ordinary automatic air-valves the radiators are made more effective; consequently a little less radiation and smaller piping are required to do the same work. The cost of installation under the Paul system is, therefore, but little if any more than for the ordinary single-pipe gravity-system, while it is claimed that the system will effect an economy of at least 20% in the amount of coal required for heating. The system is in successful operation in a great many public and private buildings, and the company has agents in most of the larger cities from whom further information can be obtained. One great advantage of the system is that people in the rooms cannot tamper with the air-valves and there is no danger of leaks in the valves.

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* See foot-note, page 1234.

The Webster System * (controlled by Warren Webster & Company). This, like the Paul system, is a vacuum-system of steam-heating, but, unlike the Paul system, it exhausts all WATER of condensation as well as air, so that the flow-pipes are at all times filled with dry steam. This system can also be applied to all classes of non-gravity heating-apparatus and where exhaust-steam is used. A Webster radiator-trap is placed on the drip-end of each radiator and a small pipe connects each valve with the exhausting-apparatus near the boiler. The water of condensation is taken to a receiver, from which it is fed back to the boiler. With this system comparatively small supply and return-mains may be employed, but the radiation should, if anything, be increased. The kind of radiator-trap furnished will depend upon the relative amounts of water and air to be handled and upon the vacuum which is maintained in the return-pipes, etc. As air is heavier than steam it will flow out from the bottom of the radiator. The trap may be operated either by a float or by a thermostatic element consisting of an aneroidial corrugated copper disk containing a volatile liquid. This system is especially adapted to large heating-plants, hot-blast systems, and dry-kilns, and may be successfully and economically applied to a great variety of manufacturing processes by making slight modifications in its working-details. It has been successfully installed in a great many large buildings through the country and in many factories and manufacturing plants. Further information concerning this system may be obtained at any of the offices of the company.

Return of Water to Boiler in Non-Gravity Systems of Steam-Heating. As stated on page 1231, whenever the steam-pressure in the radiators is less than that in the boiler, or when a radiator is placed below the water-line, then the water of condensation must be returned to a tank, called a receiver, placed below the lowest radiator, and returned from the receiver to the boiler by means of some mechanical device. As a rule, either a pump or a return-trap is used for this purpose. For high-pressure systems, that is, when steam is used to run machinery or to run the fan in a hot-blast system, a steam-pump running automatically is generally considered the most satisfactory device for returning the water to the boiler. Where there is no engineer in constant attendance, a return-trap will generally be preferable. The return-trap works automatically and will return the water as effectively as a pump, besides being less expensive. The greatest objection to a return-trap seems to be that if it gets out of order from any cause, it is not as easily or quickly repaired as a pump. A return-trap should be placed on or near the boiler and the bottom of the trap should be at least 2 ft above its water-line. A pump may be placed any distance below the water-line of the boiler and at a considerable distance from the boiler. In hot-blast heating the pump and receiver are generally placed near the heating-stacks and fan.

Fan-System of Warming and Ventilating. This system is used principally in buildings where a large amount of ventilation is required. The principle of the system is the forcing of large volumes of air over or through a heater and thence into the rooms to be warmed, and necessitates a fan for driving the air. It may be successfully operated in connection with hot-air furnaces (see F. E. Kidder's work on Churches and Chapels), but, as a rule, the heat is furnished by indirect steam radiation. An ordinary fan-heating and ventilating-plant consists of a steam-boiler, one or more stacks of steam-coils, a fan or fans driven either by a small steam-engine or electric-motor, receiver and pump. The heating-coils are usually collected in a STACK, over which all of the air for the building is passed, and from the stack the air is drawn or forced through hot-air pipes to all parts of the building. Direct radiation may also be employed in connection with this system for warming the halls and corridors or any rooms which do not require ventilation. This system is especially adapted to the warming and ventilating of schools, churches, hospitals and public buildings, and to many kinds of manufacturing plants. To insure successful results, however, it must be laid out by an engineer familiar with this system of heating. Full information regarding it may be obtained from the American Blower Company, the Buffalo Forge Company, or the B. F. Sturtevant Company.

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* The vacuum-system of heating was first introduced to the heating trade in this country some time in the past seventies by N. Y. Williams, a heating engineer of Philadelphia, Pa. His plan was to plug up all air-vents and to attach a pump to the main return-pipe and exhaust all air and water from the steam-pipes, coils and radiators in a system. The plan was an improvement to the many poorly constructed plants in use at the time, but it was not a complete success in itself. It would SHORT-CIRCUIT, that is, the pump would act only on a portion of the system. The Warren Webster Company bought the inventor's rights and some other patents and in time introduced the Webster thermostatic valve, which is now used in all their work on all radiators, and has had much to do in making their system a success. The Paul and other vacuum-systems have been introduced since.

Pipe, Fittings and Valves. The pipe used for conveying steam or hot water was formerly made exclusively of wrought iron, but at the present time the term WROUGHT-IRON PIPE is used merely to distinguish wrought from cast pipe. It is construed to mean welded pipe, which is generally made from soft steel.* Persons desiring IRON PIPE should specify GENUINE WROUGHT-IRON PIPE, for which an extra charge is made. Up to the present time the pipe made of steel has not been as soft as that of wrought iron, and is often not so well welded and is more likely to split. Nevertheless, steel pipe is much more extensively used than the genuine wrought-iron pipe, although the latter is better. Steam-pipe is put on the market in three grades, or thicknesses, STANDARD, EXTRA STRONG and DOUBLE-EXTRA STRONG (see tables of Wrought-iron Pipe, pages 1275 to 1276). Each length of pipe as sold is provided with a collar or coupling (Fig. 19) on one end and has a thread cut on the other. Connections are made by screwing the threaded end of one pipe into the coupling on the other. Pipe is sold in random lengths varying from 16 to 24 ft. With the exception of couplings, the fittings used for connecting pipes and for giving them any desired direction with each other are made of cast and malleable iron. For use on heating-pipes, cast-iron fittings are generally to be preferred to those of malleable iron. (See Carpenter, Heating and Ventilating Buildings.)

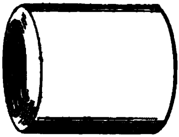

Fig. 19. Wrought-iron Coupling

Fittings for Joining Pipes. For joining pipes in the same straight line, so as to make a continuous pipe from end to end, the coupling, Fig. 19, with right-hand threads cut in both ends is commonly used. With right-hand couplings it is impossible to disconnect the pipe at any place without commencing at the farther end and disconnecting the pipe section by section. Reducing-couplings are made for uniting pipes of different sizes. To connect two lengths of pipe, so that they can be disconnected at that point without interfering with other joints, three kinds of connections are in use:

(1) **Right and Left Couplings.** The most common fitting for joining pipes 2 in in diameter and under. It requires, however, that there shall be room for end-motion of one of the pipes sufficient to insert it.

(2) **Lip-Unions.** These are generally used on pipes up to 1½ or 2 in in diameter where it is desirable to have a joint that may be readily disconnected.

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* See National Tube Company's Handbook.

The union consists of three pieces; two of these parts screw on to the ends of the pipe and are drawn together by a revolving collar which engages with the thread on one of the pieces, as shown in Fig. 20. With this connection no appreciable play is required in the piping. Unions are now commonly used in connecting radiators, the union being attached to the radiator-valve.

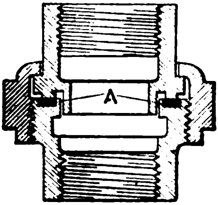

Fig. 20. Lip-union

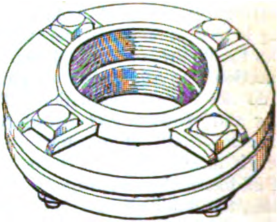

Fig. 21. Flange-union

(3) **Flange-Unions** (Fig. 21). These are used on pipes exceeding 2 in in diameter. The two parts of the union are first screwed to the pipes and then bolted together. A ring of packing must be placed between the flanges to make a tight joint.

Nipples (Fig. 22) are frequently used in steam-fitting for connecting pipes, radiators, and sectional boilers. They are made with right threads on both ends or with a right thread on one end and a left thread on the other.

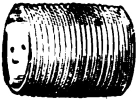

Fig. 22. Close Nipple

Fig. 23. Bushing and Plug

Push-Nipples are made with ends beveled and ground perfectly true, so as to make a tight joint by contact of the metal. Their use is confined to radiators and sectional boilers.

Bushings (Fig. 23) are used for reducing the size of an opening in a fitting.

Plugs and Caps. A plug is used for closing the end of a fitting and a cap for covering the end of a pipe. A great variety of cast-iron fittings are carried in stock, such as elbows, tees, crosses, branch tees, Y bends, return-bends, etc., each of these being made in a great variety of sizes and shapes. A description of them may be found in the catalogues of dealers in steam-fitters' supplies.

Valves and Cocks. Three classes of valves are used in steam-fitting, globe valves (Figs. 24 and 26), gate-valves (Fig. 25) and check-valves (Figs. 29 and 30). The valve shown in Fig. 27 is a GLOBE VALVE, but is commonly designated as an ANGLE-VALVE, the term globe valve being commonly restricted to those valves which go on a straight line of pipe. In the GATE-VALVE (Fig. 25) the disk which closes the opening is at right-angles to the pipe. The gate-valve when open offers less obstruction to the flow of steam or water, and for this reason is largely used on water-pipes. Some steam-fitters contend that a gate-valve should not be used for steam, except on the main return, near the boiler. A **disk-valve** (Figs. 26 and 27) is commonly a globe or angle-valve with a composition disk or ring similar to the washer on a compression-cock, which fits against the seat of the valve. A Jenkins disk is a valve in which the disk or the entire valve is made by Jenkins Brothers. The common globe valve has no removable disk or washer. (See Fig. 28.) Disk-valves should always be used on steam-radiators. All valves used for hot water should not entirely stop the flow when closed. A **union valve** is a globe or angle-valve with a union on one side of the valve. Globe valves are made for screw, union, or flange-connections, although the latter is commonly used only on large pipes. Globe and angle-valves for 2-in pipes and under are commonly made with brass bodies and either iron or wooden handles. The larger sizes are commonly made with iron bodies. Radiator-valves should have brass bodies and wooden wheels. When it is desired that radiators shall not be under the control of the occupants of the room, valves operated by a key may be used. Hot-water radiator-valves may also be had with pedal attachments so that they may be

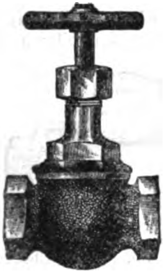
Fig. 24. Brass Globe Valve

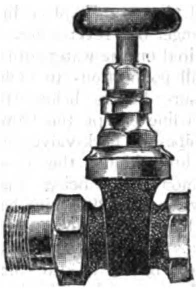
Fig. 25. Brass Gate-valve with Union

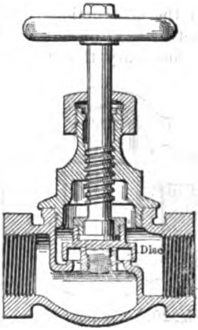

Fig. 26. Section of Disk Globe Valve

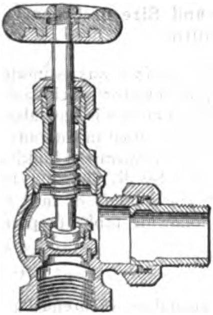
Fig. 27. Angle-valve with Union and Copper Disk

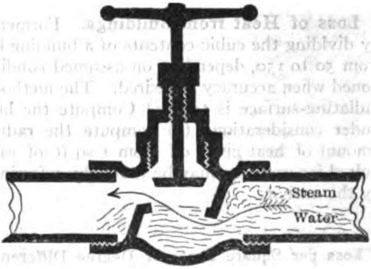

Fig. 28. Showing Obstruction to Flow of Water in Globe Valves

opened or closed with the foot. Special forms of quick-opening valves are largely used on hot-water radiators.

Obstruction to Flow Offered by Globe Valves. When globe valves are placed on horizontal steam-mains, the stem should always be placed in a horizontal position, for if set vertically the seat of the valve forms an obstruction sufficient to fill the pipe at least half full of water, as shown in Fig. 28. Because of the obstructions which they offer to the flow of water, globe valves should not be used on hot-water pipes. A CHECK-VALVE must be employed where it is necessary that the flow shall always take place in one direction and there is danger of a reverse-flow. A check-valve is always required on the water-supply to a steam-boiler and on all connections to high-pressure boilers below the water-line except the blow-off pipes. Check-valves are of three kinds, the most common form being that shown in Fig. 29, which has a valve which slides up and down. The swinging check-valve, Fig. 30, is also commonly employed. The third kind utilizes a ball in place of the sliding valve for closing the opening. The ball check-valve, however, is not much used in steam-fitting. A COCK operates by means of a turned plug which has one or two holes bored transversely to its axis. When the plug is turned so that the hole is in line with the pipe the water flows through, and when the plug is turned the water is shut off. Cocks are not much used in steam-fitting, except on the blow-off pipe.

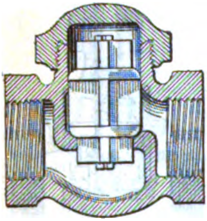

Fig. 29. Common Type of Check-valve

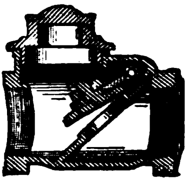

Fig. 30. Swing Check-valve

Rules for Proportioning Radiating-Surface, and Size of Steam and Hot-Water Mains and Returns

Loss of Heat from Buildings. Formerly radiating-surface was estimated by dividing the cubic contents of a building by an empirical factor which varied from 50 to 150, depending on assumed conditions. This practice is now abandoned when accuracy is desired. The method now generally used in computing radiating-surface is to: (1) Compute the heat required to warm the building under consideration; (2) compute the radiating-surface by dividing by the amount of heat given off from 1 sq ft of radiation. The amount of heat required for warming may be found by referring to the following tables prepared by the author:

Loss per Square Foot per Degree Difference of Temperature (Fahrenheit) per Hour for Windows

Height of window	3 ft 3 in	6 ft 7 in	10 ft	13 ft 3 in	16 ft 3 in
Loss in Btu per square foot per degree difference of temperature per hour	0.98	0.945	0.93	0.92	0.91

For multiple glass, multiply the numbers in the table by $2/(1 + n)$, where n is the number of thicknesses.

Amount of Heat in British Thermal Units Passing through Walls per Square Foot of Area per Degree Difference of Temperature (Fahrenheit) per Hour

Thickness, inches	Single wall		Wall with air-space
	Brick or stone	Wood*	Brick or stone
4	0.43	0.12	0.36
8	0.37	0.065	0.30
12	0.32	0.045	0.25
16	0.28	0.033	0.21
18	0.26	0.031	0.19
20	0.25	0.03	0.18
24	0.24	0.029	0.17
28	0.22	0.027	0.15
32	0.21	0.025	0.13
36	0.20	0.020	0.12
40	0.18	0.018	0.10

* This experiment applies to solid wood; it is evidently of little use when applied to wooden buildings, since these buildings generally present so many opportunities for loss of heat through crevices.

Values for the loss of heat through brick walls given by Recknagel and Reitchel correspond very closely to the values given above. They also give values for the coefficient of heat-loss, expressed in Btu per square foot per hour per degree difference of temperature, as follows.

Single window	1.03
Double window	0.472
Single skylight	1.090
Double skylight	0.492
Doors	0.410
Plaster 1.6 to 2.6 in thick	0.615
Plaster 2.6 to 3.2 in thick	0.492

From the preceding paragraphs and tables it will be seen that the heat-transmission through ordinary walls employed in building-structures is essentially one-fourth that through glass, and glass transmits approximately 1 Btu per square foot per degree difference of temperature per hour. This leads to the following formula, in which $(T - t)$ represents the difference between inside and outside temperatures, G the glass-surface in square feet, and W the exposed wall-surface:

$$H = (T - t)\,(G + \tfrac{1}{4}W)$$

To this formula should be added a correction for the leakage, which is frequently expressed as a function of the cubic contents. For residences it is practically equal to $nC/55$, where C is the cubic contents of the room, and n is the number of times the air is changed per hour. A more rational method for computing leakage would be to take it as a function of the exposed surface, in which case

$$\text{Heat-loss} = l\,(G + \tfrac{1}{4}W)\,(T - t)$$

in which l has a value from 1⅓ to 2.

Heat from Radiating-Surfaces. The following tables give the amount of heat in Btu and also the weight of water condensed from various types of radiation on the authority of the author.

Heat-Units Emitted per Hour per Square Foot from Various Surfaces, Direct Radiation, Still Air

Difference of temperature, deg. F.	Coefficient or amount per degree difference of temperature				Total per square foot per hour *			
	Horizontal pipe, diameter				Horizontal pipe, diameter			
	6 in	4 in	2 in	1 in	6 in	4 in	2 in	1 in
	Radiator, height				Radiator, height			
	40 in Massed surface	40 in Thin	24 in Massed	12 in Thin	40 in Massed surface	40 in Thin	24 in Massed	12 in Thin
80	1.40	1.58	1.67	2.18	112	127	133	173
90	1.43	1.63	1.72	2.24	128	147	153	199
100	1.47	1.66	1.76	2.28	147	167	175	228
110	1.51	1.71	1.80	2.34	166	188	198	257
120	1.54	1.74	1.84	2.39	184	208	219	287
130	1.57	1.78	1.88	2.44	203	230	242	318
140	1.61	1.81	1.91	2.48	223	252	266	346
150	1.64	1.84	1.94	2.53	244	276	291	378
160	1.66	1.87	1.97	2.57	265	300	316	410
170	1.69	1.91	2.02	2.62	286	324	341	443
180	1.72	1.94	2.05	2.65	307	348	367	475
190	1.75	1.98	2.09	2.71	330	375	393	512
200	1.78	2.01	2.12	2.76	356	403	415	552

* Results divided by 1 000 give approximate weight of steam condensed per hour.

Overhead Steam-Pipes.* When the overhead system of steam-heating is employed, in which system direct radiating-pipes, usually 1¼ in in diameter, are placed in rows overhead suspended upon horizontal racks, the pipes running horizontally and side by side around the whole interior of the building, from 2 to 3 ft from the wall and from 2 to 4 ft from the ceiling, the amount of 1¼-in pipe required, according to C. J. H. Woodbury, for heating mills, for which this system is deservedly much in vogue, is about 1 ft in length for every 90 cu ft of space. Of course a great range of difference exists due to the special character of the operating-machinery in the mill, both in respect to the amount of air circulated by the machinery and also the aid to warming the room by the friction of the journals. For this system of radiation the Mills system of piping should be used. (See, also, page 1232.)

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* A. R. Wolff, Stevens Indicator, 1887.

Amount of Heat in British Thermal Units and Number of Pounds of Steam Condensed per Hour for Different Heating-Surfaces

Heating-surface	Low pressure. Below 7.5 pounds		High pressure. Above 7.5 pounds	
	Total Btu per hour	Pounds of steam condensed per hour	Total Btu per hour	Pounds of steam condensed per hour
STEAM. DIRECT RADIATION				
Smooth pipes, vertical	260 to 275	0.25 to 0.26	315 to 330	0.30 to 0.31
Smooth pipes, horizontal	275 to 295	0.26 to 0.28	330 to 350	0.31 to 0.33
Pipe coiled	240 to 260	0.23 to 0.25	295 to 315	0.27 to 0.29
*Cast-iron ribbed radiators	150 to 185	0.15 to 0.18	185 to 220	0.17 to 0.21
STEAM. INDIRECT RADIATION				
Pipe coiled, lower than 3 ft 3 in	405	0.39	450	0.425
Pipe coiled, higher than 3 ft 3 in	370	0.35	430	0.415
*Cast-iron ribbed heater, lower than 3 ft 3 in	295	0.28	325	0.306
*Cast-iron ribbed heater, higher than 3 ft 3 in	280	0.27	315	0.298
HOT-WATER. DIRECT RADIATION				
Vertical-pipe radiator, one row	150 to 165	....	185 to 205	....
Vertical-pipe radiator, two rows	140 to 155	....	175 to 195	....
Vertical-pipe radiator, over two rows	130 to 145	....	165 to 185	....
Smooth pipe, under 13 ft long, vertical	165 to 185	....	205 to 220	....
Smooth pipe, over 13 ft long, vertical	185 to 205	....	220 to 240	....
Pipe coiled	150 to 165	....	185 to 205	....
*Cast-iron ribbed radiators	85 to 110	....	110 to 140	....
HOT-WATER. INDIRECT RADIATION				
Pipe coiled, under 3 ft 3 in high	245	....	305	....
Pipe coiled, over 3 ft 3 in high	235	....	295	....
*Cast-iron ribbed heater, under 3 ft 3 in high	185	....	235	....
*Cast-iron ribbed heater, over 3 ft 3 in high	175	....	220	....

* These cast-iron radiators have only about two-thirds the capacity of the American radiators.

Size of Steam-Mains and Return-Pipes

Mr. George H. Babcock gives the following rule for gravity heating-systems with separate returns, two-pipe system: "The diameter of the steam-mains leading from the boiler should be equal in inches to one-tenth the square root of radiating-surface, mains included, in square feet." If the mains are covered they may be neglected in figuring radiating-surface. For the one-pipe basement-system it will be safe to use one-ninth instead of one-tenth in the above rule, unless the pipes are very long. It is always better to have the mains larger than is necessary rather than too small. Steam-mains should never be less than 1½ in in diameter. The sizes of returns that will prove satisfactory for given sizes of steam-mains are given by the author as follows, no return to be less than 1 in diameter:

Diameter steam-pipe, in	Diameter return-pipe, in	Diameter steam-pipe, in	Diameter return-pipe, in
1½	1	5	2½
2	1¼	6	3
2½	1¼	8	3½
3	1½	9	4
3½	1½	10	4½
4	2	12	5

For connecting direct radiators with the SINGLE-PIPE system, the following sizes of pipes should be used: For radiators containing 24 sq ft or under, 1-in pipe; for radiators containing 24 to 60 sq ft, 1¼-in pipe; for radiators containing 60 to 180 sq ft, 1½-in pipe; for radiators containing above 100 sq ft, 2-in pipe.

For Two-Pipe Work. Radiators containing 48 sq ft and under, 1-in supply, ¾-in return; 50 sq ft to 96 sq ft, 1¼-in supply, 1-in return; above 96 sq ft, 1½-in supply, 1¼-in return.

For Indirect Heating it will usually be sufficiently accurate to use a pipe whose diameter is 1.4 times greater than that for direct heating.

Carrying Capacity of Steam-Pipes

Table for the Capacity of Steam-Pipes 100 Feet in Length with Separate Returns

By A. R. Wolff

Diameter of supply, in	Diameter of return, in	2-lb pressure		5-lb pressure	
		Total heat transmitted, Btu	Radiating-surface, sq ft	Total heat transmitted, Btu	Radiating-surface, sq ft
1	1	9 000	36	15 000	60
1¼	1	18 000	72	30 000	120
1½	1¼	30 000	120	50 000	200
2	1½	70 000	280	120 000	480
2½	2	132 000	528	220 000	880
3	2½	225 000	900	375 000	1 500
3½	2½	330 000	1 320	550 000	2 200
4	3	480 000	1 920	800 000	3 200
4½	3	690 000	2 760	1 150 000	4 600
5	3½	930 000	3 720	1 550 000	6 200
6	3½	1 500 000	6 000	2 500 000	10 000
7	4	2 250 000	9 000	3 750 000	15 000
8	4	3 200 000	12 800	5 400 000	21 600
9	4½	4 450 000	17 800	7 500 000	30 000
10	5	5 800 000	23 200	9 750 000	39 000
12	6	9 250 000	37 000	15 500 000	62 000
14	7	13 500 000	54 000	23 000 000	92 000
16	8	19 000 000	76 000	32 500 000	130 000

In the preceding table each square foot of radiating-surface is assumed to transmit 250 heat-units per hour, a safe and conservative estimate. For pipes of greater length than 100 ft multiply results in the preceding table by the square root of 100 divided by the length. In all cases the length is to be taken as the equivalent length in straight pipe of the pipe, elbows and valves.*
For other lengths multiply above results by following factors:

Length of pipe in feet	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1 000
Factor	0.71	0.58	0.5	0.45	0.41	0.38	0.35	0.33	0.32

For Hot-Water Heating. We may take as a practical rule, applicable when the pipes are less than 200 ft in length: The diameter of main supply or main return-pipe in a system of direct hot-water heating should be one pipe-size greater than the square root of the number of square feet of radiating-surface divided by 9 for the first story, by 10 for the second story, and by 11 for the third story of a building; for indirect hot-water heating multiply above results by 1.5. In HOT-WATER HEATING the return-pipe must have the same diameter as the supply-pipe, and the capacity of both should be equal to the total capacity of the risers. For equalizing hot-water pipes the tables on page 1272 will be found very convenient. The standard tapping for hot-water radiators is as follows: Radiators containing 40 sq ft and under, 1 in; above 40 but not exceeding 72 sq ft, 1¼ in; above 72 sq. ft, 1½ in.

Boiler. To find the size of boiler necessary to supply any given amount of radiation, see page 1230.

Covering of Pipes

Principles of Insulation. Steam and hot-water mains radiate more heat in proportion to their surface than do the radiators which they supply, and unless this heat is needed for warming the space through which the pipes pass, it represents a very material loss in the consumption of fuel. To reduce this loss to a minimum, it is customary to cover all pipes in unfinished basements with some insulating substance. The saving in fuel effected by a good covering will more than pay for its cost in a few seasons.

"The best insulating substance known is air confined in minute particles or cells, so that heat cannot be removed by convection. No covering can equal or surpass that of perfectly still and stagnant air; and the value of most insulating substances depends upon the power of holding minute quantities in such a manner that circulation cannot take place. The best known insulating substance is a covering of hair-felt, wool, or eiderdown, each of which, however, is open to the objection that, if kept a long time in a confined atmosphere and at a temperature of 150° or above, it becomes brittle and partly loses its insulating power.

"A covering made by wrapping three or more layers of asbestos paper, each about 1/16 in thick, on the pipe, covering with a layer of hair-felt ¾ in in thickness, and wrapping the whole with canvas or paper is much used. This covering has an effective life of about five years on high-pressure steam-pipes and ten to fifteen years on low-temperature pipes. There are a large number of coverings regularly manufactured for use in such a form that they can be easily applied or removed if desired. There is a very great difference in the value of these coverings; some of them are very heavy and contain a large amount of mineral matter with little confined air and are very poor insulators. Some are composed entirely of incombustible matter and are nearly as good insulators as hair-felt. In general, the value of a covering is inversely proportional to its weight, the lighter the covering the better its insulating properties; other things being equal, the incombustible mineral substances are to be preferred to combustible material. The following table gives the results of some actual tests of different coverings, which were conducted with great care and on a sufficiently large scale to eliminate slight errors of observation. In general, the thickness of the coverings tested was 1 in. Some tests were made with the coverings of different thicknesses, from which it would appear that the gain in insulating power obtained by increasing the thickness is very slight compared with the increase in cost. If the material is a good conductor its heat-insulating power is lessened rather than diminished by increasing the thickness beyond a certain point."*

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* In case there are bends or obstructions consider the length of pipe increased as follows: Right-angle elbow 40 diameters; globe valve 125 diameters; entrance to tee 60 diameters. For obtaining the diameter of steam-main to be used in case there is a separate return multiply the above results by 0.82. For indirect heating without separate return multiply above results by 1.45; with separate return use the results in the form given.

Tests Made at Sibley College, Cornell University, on Various Pipe-Coverings

Kind of covering	Relative amount of heat transmitted
Naked pipe	100.0
Two layers asbestos paper, 1-in hair-felt, and canvas cover	15.2
Two layers asbestos paper, 1-in hair-felt, canvas cover, wrapped with Manila paper	15.0
Two layers asbestos paper, 1 in hair-felt	17.0
Hair-felt sectional covering, asbestos-lined	18.6
One thickness asbestos board	59.4
Four thicknesses asbestos paper	50.3
Two layers asbestos paper	77.7
Wool-felt, asbestos lined	23.1
Wool-felt with air-spaces, asbestos-lined	19.7
Wool-felt, plaster-of-Paris lined	25.9
Asbestos, molded, mixed with plaster of Paris	31.8
Asbestos, felted, pure long fiber	20.1
Asbestos and sponge	18.8
Asbestos and wool-felt	20.8
Magnesia, molded, applied in plastic condition	22.4
Magnesia, sectional	18.8
Mineral wool, sectional	19.3
Rock-wool, fibrous	20.3
Rock-wool, felted	20.9
Fossil meal, molded, ¾ in thick	29.7
Pipe painted with black asphaltum	105.5
Pipe painted with light-drab lead paint	108.7
Glossy white paint	95.0

Sectional Coverings. It may be seen from this table that magnesia, asbestos, and mineral wool are the three materials most valuable for the covering of steam-pipes, as wool and hair, although being better non-conductors, are short-lived on steam-pipes. Wool covering is extensively used, however, on hot-water pipes. Sectional coverings, molded and formed to fit different sizes of pipes, are on the market, and are used almost exclusively for covering steam and, to a large extent, hot-water pipes. After the sections are applied they are commonly secured by lacquered brass bands. The fittings, such as elbows and tees, are usually plastered with plastic asbestos or magnesia and then covered with canvas applied with flour paste.

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* R. C. Carpenter, in Heating and Ventilating Buildings.

The foregoing data, in connection with the preceding table, will enable the reader to judge which kind of covering is likely to be the most effective.

Hot-Water Heating. The system of heating by hot water consists of circulating hot water instead of steam in the radiators. The boiler, pipes and radiators are completely filled with water, the flow or circulation-pipes being attached to the top of the boiler and the return-pipes to the bottom; the water in the boiler when heated rises and circulates through the pipes and radiators, parts with a portion of its heat, thus becoming colder and heavier, and passes down through the return-pipes to the boiler, where it is again heated. There are two general systems of hot-water heating, (1) the open-tank system, and (2) the closed-tank system, or pressure-system.

(1) With the open-tank system an open expansion-tank is connected to the heating-system in such a way as to receive the increase in the volume of the water due to expansion by heat, and is connected with the outside air by a vent-pipe, so that there is no pressure on the tank. Fig. 31 shows the common type of expansion-tank.

(2) With the pressure-system a similar tank is used, but the vent-pipe is closed and a safety-valve, which will open when the pressure reaches a certain point, is placed on the overflow-pipe. By increasing the pressure on the system, the water may be heated up to the temperature of low-pressure steam, and hence less radiating-surface and smaller pipes may be used.

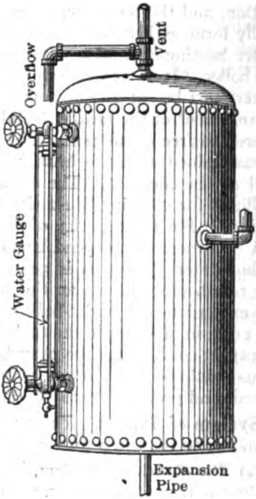

Fig. 31. **Expansion-tank**

The open system is more generally used, although the closed system is used occasionally. The closed system is always open to the danger of a serious explosion from the safety-valve becoming inoperative or from the failure of any part of the apparatus. This system cannot be recommended for house-heating. The Honeywell and other moderate-pressure systems, using a mercury scale in the connection to the expansion-pipe, are safe. Their highest pressure of 15 lb raises the maximum temperature of the radiators from 212° F. to 250° F. With the open expansion-tank, about the only chance for an explosion is by the stopping of the expansion-pipe, either through freezing or by the closing of a valve in the pipe. To avoid this, NO STOP OR VALVE should be placed on the expansion-pipe, and it should be well protected from frost. It is usually taken off from the supply to one of the radiators in the upper story and the tank should always be at least 2 or 3 ft above the highest radiator. The capacity of the tank should be somewhat greater than ONE-TWENTIETH of the total cubical contents of heater, pipes and radiators.

Boiler and Radiators. Hot-water radiators have the same appearance as steam-radiators, but as a rule there is a slight difference in the interior to improve the circulation. Almost any boiler that is suitable for steam-heating can be used for hot-water heating, and most of the sectional boilers mentioned on page 1229 are used for both kinds of heating. For hot water, the safety-valve and water-gauge are omitted. For residence-heating, a great variety of small boilers especially designed for hot water have been placed on the market, notably the Ideal Portable, Spencer, Gurney (400 series) and Palace King. Nearly all of these heaters are made up of a number of horizontal cast-iron sections, which are bolted together; the joints are packed or push-nipples are used to make them water-tight. The flow-pipes are taken from the top of the upper section, and the return-pipes are connected with the lowest section, which generally forms either the fire-pot or the ash-pit. The successful working of a hot-water heating-apparatus depends very largely upon the proper construction of the boiler. It is generally admitted that in an efficient hot-water heater the water must be cut up into small portions, so as to heat quickly, and the whole arrangement of the heater should be such that the least possible resistance is offered to free circulation. The boiler in which the most powerful circulation is maintained with the least consumption of fuel is the most satisfactory as well as the cheapest. The method employed in connecting the joints and the facilities for cleaning fire-surfaces are also points that should be carefully examined. For the capacity of the various sizes and styles of heaters the architect or owner must depend largely upon the tables given by the manufacturers. A hot-water apparatus is generally filled by connecting the house-supply to the return-pipe at or near the heater. Sometimes a supply is connected with the expansion-tank and a ball-cock placed on it to insure that there shall always be 3 or 4 in of water in the tank. At the lowest point of apparatus a draw-off, emptying-cock, should be placed, to empty the system at any time. The apparatus should be kept FULL OF WATER during the summer months. This excludes the air and prevents corrosion or oxidation of pipes.

System of Piping. Three systems of hot-water piping are in vogue, corresponding to the three systems described for steam-heating:

(1) **The Overhead System,** in which the hot water is first conducted to the highest part of the building, usually to the attic, and from thence distributed to the radiators by return-pipes, exactly as in the Mills system, except that with hot water a top and bottom connection is made with each radiator, the water flowing into the radiator at the top and out at the bottom. An improvement on this system is to have a separate return for the radiators as in the two-pipe system.

(2) **Two-Pipe System.** This is the system most commonly used. In this system the mains and distributing pipe have an inclination UPWARD from the heater; the returns are parallel to the main and have an inclination downward toward the heater, connecting at its lower part. The flow-pipes are taken from the top of the main and supply one or more radiators. The return-risers from the radiators are connected with the return-pipe in a similar manner. In this system great care must be taken to produce nearly equal resistance to flow in all branches leading to the different radiators. It will be found that invariably the principal current of heated water will take the path of least resistance, and that a small obstruction, any inequality in piping, etc., is sufficient to make very great differences in the amount of heat received in different parts of the same system. For instance, two branch pipes connected at opposite ends to a tee, which itself is connected by a center opening to a riser, are almost certain to have an irregular and uncertain circulation. Where indirect radia-

tion is used in hot-water heating, the return-pipe should be dropped below the floor and all return-risers should be separately connected with the main return.

(3) **One-Pipe System.** In this system a single pipe is run around the basement as in the one-pipe steam-system, except that the main hot-water pipe rises from the boiler; the flow-pipes are taken from the top of the main and the water after passing through the radiators is returned by a separate pipe which is connected with the bottom of the main. With this system the water in the main is chilled wherever the returns are connected with it, so that the radiators at the far end of the system cannot be heated to as high a temperature as those which receive the water as it comes from the boiler. A larger main is required for this system than for system (2). For small jobs, and particularly with boilers with horizontal sections, this system may be made to work satisfactorily, but the two-pipe system is always to be preferred. For hot-water heating, special fittings are made which insure a more positive circulation than the ordinary fittings used in steam-piping.

Rules for Computing Radiating-Surface, diameter of pipes, etc., are given on pages 1240, 1241, and 1242.

Location of Radiators and Piping. Radiators are more efficient when placed underneath the windows or on inside walls not facing the windows. Concealed radiators are very inefficient and are undesirable from a sanitary standpoint. Indirect radiators should take cold clean air from outdoors and be arranged so that they can easily be cleaned. The boiler or heater should be located as close to the chimney as possible. Steam and hot-water pipes should be thoroughly insulated where the placing of them in outside walls or close to cold-water pipes cannot be avoided. Supply or return-pipes should not be run in front of cellar or other windows. It is generally cheaper for the owner of a new building if the location of all the heating-apparatus is carefully worked out on the drawings.

Painting Radiators may increase their efficiency. Recent tests by John R. Allen at the University of Michigan give the following relative transmission-value of radiator-paints:*

Transmission-Value of Radiator-Paints

Kind of surface	Relative transmission
Bare iron surface	1.00
Copper bronze	0.76
Aluminum bronze	0.752
Snow-white enamel	1.01
No-luster green enamel	0.956
Terra-cotta enamel	1.038
Maroon glass japan	0.997
White-lead paint	0.987
White-zinc paint	1.01

"The heat-transmission depends entirely upon the last coat put on."

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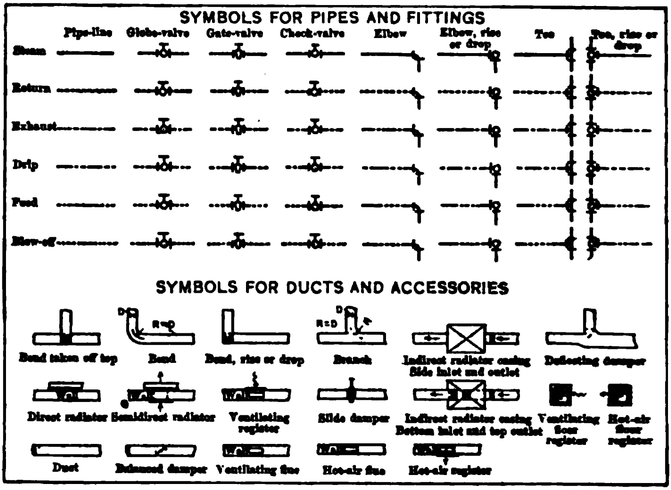
* From Notes on Heating and Ventilation by John R. Allen, published by the Domestic Engineering Company, Chicago, Ill.

Code of Symbols Used by the International Correspondence Schools to Indicate Details in Heating and Ventilating-Work



Comparative Advantages and Disadvantages of Steam and Hot-Water Heating

(1) **Safety.** An open-tank hot-water system with no valve on the expansion-tank cannot possibly explode unless the expansion-pipe should freeze, which is quite unlikely. With steam gross carelessness may cause an explosion, although explosions of gravity heating-plants are quite rare.

(2) **Comfort.** There is probably little difference in this respect between steam and hot water, if both are well designed. Hot-water radiators do not become as hot as steam-radiators, and it is claimed that for this reason they do not dry, or SCOTCH, the air as much as steam-radiators, and therefore hot-water heating must be more healthful. The heat of a hot-water apparatus can be perfectly controlled by either the fire in the heater or the valve on the radiator, by partly closing it; whereas with steam-radiators the valve must be wide open or tightly closed. Also, with a hot-water apparatus, some of the radiators may be run at their full capacity, while others may be partly or entirely shut off without causing noise or in any way interfering with the perfect working of the system. A hot-water apparatus is perfectly noiseless in operation, there being none of the snapping or gurgling noises common with steam.

(3) **First Cost.** On an average, a hot-water apparatus costs about one-third more than a steam apparatus to do the same work. This is because the hot-water apparatus requires nearly twice as much radiating-surface, larger piping and more expensive fittings.

(4) **Economy in Running.** With a steam-heating apparatus, no heat is given off unless the water is kept boiling, while hot-water radiators will give off heat with water in the boiler at a temperature of 100° F.; consequently in

moderately warm weather a hot-water plant will generally keep the rooms comfortable with a less consumption of coal than a steam-heating plant. In very cold weather, when the heating-apparatus is worked to its full capacity, there is but little difference, if any, in the amount of coal consumed for either steam or hot-water heating In considering statements as to the economy of different heating-systems, it should be remembered that the economy of any heating-apparatus depends largely on the way in which it is run or upon the person having charge of the plant.

Disadvantages of Hot-Water Heating. About the only objections that can be urged against hot-water heating are the increased first cost, danger from freezing, extra space occupied by radiators, and the fact that a building cannot be as quickly warmed by hot water as by steam. It is also more difficult to secure uniform circulation in a large hot-water plant than in a large steam plant. While in large buildings and those that are not kept warm all the time many of these objections are of considerable importance, they do not, as a rule, hold good in residences, which are kept at a uniform temperature and in which the extra size of the radiators is of little consequence. The danger of freezing is very much greater with hot-water circulation than with steam, and on this account hot-water indirect radiation must be used with much caution.

Summary. For a residence of eight, ten, or twelve rooms probably 90% of those who are familiar with both steam and hot-water heating would recommend hot water. For larger residences and small apartment-houses, about as many would recommend steam as hot water, and for still larger buildings, probably 90% of the heating engineers would recommend a gravity steam-system or either the Webster or the Paul system.

Summary of Approved Methods for Design of Steam and Hot-Water Systems of Heating. For convenience of application, the following concise summary of approved methods of computation for radiating-surface, dimensions of pipes and grate-surface are here given.*

(1) **Computing Exposed Wall-Surface.** Compute area of windows and outside doors, *G*, and one-fourth the exposed wall-surface, ¼ *W*, for each room. In computing exposed surface, estimate ceilings and partitions adjacent to unheated rooms as from 30 to 50% exposed. Denote this result by *A*.

(2) **For Direct Radiation.** Compute 2% of the cubic contents of each room. For residence heating, take once this quantity for second- and third-floor rooms, twice this quantity for first-floor rooms, three times this quantity for halls. For office-rooms, store-rooms, or bank-rooms, twice this quantity; for large assembly-rooms, lecture-halls, churches, etc., one-half this quantity under usual conditions. Denote this result by *B*.

(3) **For Radiating-Surface, Direct Heating,** multiply the sum of the results *A* and *B* by one-fourth for steam-heating; multiply this last quantity by five-thirds for direct hot-water heating.

(4) **For Dimensions of Piping, Direct Heating,** use the tables given. The table computed for one-pipe systems of steam-heating, commercial sizes of pipes, will apply with accuracy for dimensions of pipes for hot-water heating, both return-pipe and flow-pipe being of dimensions shown in the table. For two-pipe systems of steam-heating, use the special table for steam and return-pipes, or use the table referred to above for steam-pipes less than 3 in, taking the main one pipe-size smaller than tabulated when above 3 in in diameter. Take in all cases the diameter of return from the special table. In applying

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* **Taken from work on Heating by R. C. Carpenter.**

tables, in all cases, find first the diameter of branches to each radiator; second, the diameter of submain; and third, the diameter of main and return, corresponding in each case to total area of radiator and the equivalent length of pipe. The equivalent length of pipe is the actual length increased by allowance for elbows and bends as explained.

(5) **For Radiating-Surface, Indirect Heating,** multiply the result $A = G + \frac{1}{4} W$ by the following factors for steam-heating: for the first story, by 0.7; for the second story, by 0.6; for the third story, by 0.5. For hot-water heating, multiply each result as above by five-thirds.

(6) **For Dimensions of Piping, Indirect Heating,** use the table given for the one-pipe system of steam-heating, for finding the diameter of the steam-pipe in steam-heating and for the diameter of flow-pipes and return-pipes in hot-water heating. Take the diameter of the return-pipe for steam-heating from the special table. Tables to be used as explained.

(7) **Size of Air-Flues, Indirect Heating,** should be computed on the basis of a cross-sectional area for each square foot of surface in the radiator as follows: For steam-heating, from 1.5 to 2.0 sq in for the first story; from 1.0 to 1.25 sq in for the second story; and from 0.9 to 1.0 sq in for the third and higher stories. The cold-air flue supplying any radiator should have 0.8 the area of cross-section of that of the hot-air flues. The vent-flues from the room should have an area equal to that of the hot-air flues on the first story, and from 10 to 20% greater for the higher stories. For hot-water indirect heating the area of flue may be two-thirds as great, reckoned from area of radiating-surface.

(8) **Dimensions of Registers for Supplying Air** should be such as to give a net area not less than from one and two-thirds to twice that of the section of the hot-air flue; for ventilation purposes the net area should be 50% greater than the cross-sectional area of the hot-air flue.

(9) **To Compute the Heating-Surface** in the boiler or heater, divide the total radiating-surface, in which is included the surface of all uncovered pipe, by from 6 to 8 for the area of heating-surface in a steam-heater, and by from 10 to 12 for the area of the heating-surface in a hot-water heater. To compute the AREA OF THE GRATE, divide the total radiating-surface obtained as before by from 120 to 200 for steam-heating, and by from 200 to 300 for hot-water heating.

(10) **To Compute the Area of the Smoke-Flue,** first find the total radiating-surface as explained; if for steam, obtain the diameter of the flue as explained in Professor Carpenter's work on Heating, above referred to; if for a hot-water heating-system, multiply by 0.6 to reduce to equivalent steam-radiation, then proceed as before.

Hot-Air, Steam and Hot-Water Heating in Residences

Choice of a System. A great advance has been made of late years in the methods of heating residences and in the apparatus intended for that purpose. While it is impossible in this book to treat the subject in detail, it is believed that the following information will be of value in deciding upon the kind of heating to be used, in selecting an efficient apparatus and in seeing that it is properly put in. In deciding upon a heating-apparatus for a dwelling, the governing conditions are, generally, (1) the size of the building, and (2) the limit of first cost. When the latter condition is not a controlling one, the cost of running the apparatus should be given the first consideration. For residences of eight or ten rooms and covering not more than 1 200 sq ft of ground the author would recommend hot-air heating by means of a good furnace. For residences covering 1 400 sq ft, a combination hot-air-and-water system is recommended, or an entire hot-water system. For still larger residences, a steam or hot-water apparatus should be used.

Furnace-Heating. For warming residences not exceeding 1 200 sq ft of ground-area, the author believes a good furnace, properly set and with hot-air pipes of proper size, suitably located, will give the best satisfaction, as it is economical in first cost, easy to manage, costs little for repairs, and furnishes a pleasant and healthy heat at no greater expense of running than for steam or hot water. The most common defects observed in furnace-heating are over-heating of the air, vitiating of the air by the gases of combustion, and imperfect distribution of the heat. The first two defects may be entirely avoided if sufficient care is exercised in the selection and setting up of the furnace and in tending the fire, and the last defect may be reduced to a minimum by a wise location and proper proportion of the flues and registers. The cause of the unsatisfactory heating of a great many houses by furnaces is the refusal of the owner or builder to pay the necessary price for a first-class furnace and for the best workmanship and materials. The same carelessness and SKINNING that is sometimes permitted with furnace-work, if permitted on a steam or hot-water apparatus, would in most cases prevent its working at all. Furnace-heating may be divided into two parts, the PRODUCTION of heat and the DISTRIBUTION of the heat. The former depends entirely upon the furnace, its setting, cold-air supply, draft, kind of fuel and attendance.

The Furnace. In principle, a hot-air furnace is simply a stove or heater incased with iron or brick, so as to form an air-chamber between the heater and casing. The air enters at the bottom of the chamber, passes over the heated surfaces of the heater, and is conducted by the hot-air pipes to the various rooms. The external surface of the fire-pot and all portions of the heater which receive heat from the fire or smoke are called the RADIATING-SURFACE. As a rule, the furnace which has the greatest radiating-surface in proportion to the size of the fire-pot will give off the most heat for a given amount of fuel consumed. As the amount of radiating-surface largely affects the weight of a furnace.

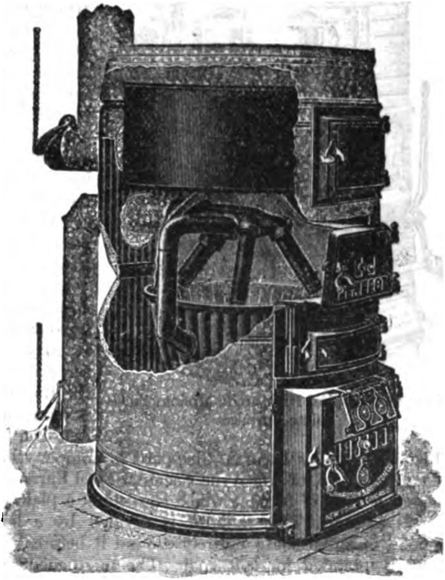

Fig. 32. Typical High-grade Cast-iron Furnace

and the latter in a great measure the selling price, it is obvious that the best furnaces must cost the most. It is true that one furnace may have its radiating-surfaces better arranged than another, so as to give off more heat for a less quantity of metal, but it is seldom that a very light furnace, particularly if of cast iron, is a good heater. Furnaces should be so designed that the smoke, after leaving the combustion-chamber, must travel around the radiator one or more times before finding an exit to the chimney. With a chimney-flue of proper size and topped out well above the roof, it is possible to make the smoke travel a long distance and thus obtain great economy of fuel. The best furnaces are designed on this principle. Besides having a large radiating-surface, the furnace should have as few joints as possible, and should be arranged so as to be easily cleaned. Furnaces are made of cast iron, wrought iron and steel, either used singly or combined. The radiating-surface above the fire-pot can be made more cheaply of wrought iron than of cast iron, and in certain arrangements it is just as serviceable. While there are excellent furnaces made of wrought iron and steel, the author believes that a heavy cast-iron furnace is the most durable, and can be made as tight. Some furnaces are made chiefly of cast iron, but with air or smoke-flues of wrought iron fitting into cast-iron sockets. This arrangement is not generally approved, as the two metals expand and contract unequally, thus tending to open the joints.

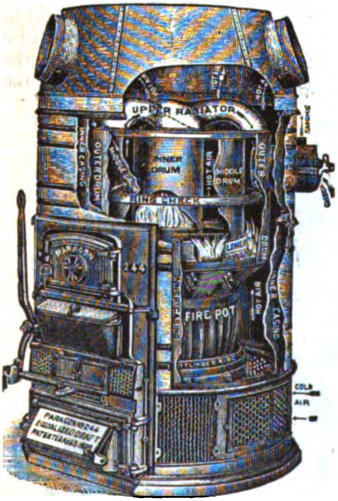

Fig. 33. Typical High-grade Modern Steel-plate Furnace

There are so many types of furnaces manufactured that it is quite impossible to go further into details. It may be said, however, that the furnace shown in Fig. 32, made by the Richardson & Boynton Company, is representative of the best type of cast-iron furnace, and that shown in Fig. 33, made by Isaac A. Sheppard & Company, of a modern steel-plate furnace. Fig. 34, of which the Excelsior Steel Furnace Company are the makers, shows a type of furnace which consists of a plain combustion-chamber with a steel radiator. This radiator is divided by a horizontal partition, so that smoke must circulate entirely around it before it enters the flue. This furnace is intended for soft coal. The more modern furnaces, constructed for burning soft coal, have provision for the introduction of preheated air into the fire-box, thereby preventing the formation of soot and causing thorough combustion and intense heat. The one shown in Fig. 32 is a hot-air-blast furnace, and is supplied with air at a high temperature for either hard or soft coal, accelerating and intensifying combustion to a very high degree.

In the Twentieth Century furnace the fire-pot contains cells and slots, cast within the walls of the pot, which admit air at twenty points equally distributed around the circumference of the same. By reason of this admission of air the fire burns from the top down and from the circumference toward the center, causing an intense heat around the outside of the bowl. This furnace can be operated successfully with steam-coal. The Thatcher Furnace Company are makers of a tubular furnace that seems to possess considerable merit. The casing surrounding the heater may be of brick or sheet iron. If of brick, it should consist of two 4-in walls with a space between, the inner wall being generally built on a circle and the outer one on a square. The BRICK-SET furnaces are not as common as they formerly were, as they can be cased as well with iron and without occupying so much space in the cellar. When cased with sheet iron, the furnace is designated as PORTABLE. Portable furnaces should always have two casings with a 1-in space between them. The inner casing may be of black iron, but the outer one should be galvanized. The hot air is thrown into the pipes better if the top of the casing is truncated, as in Fig. 33.

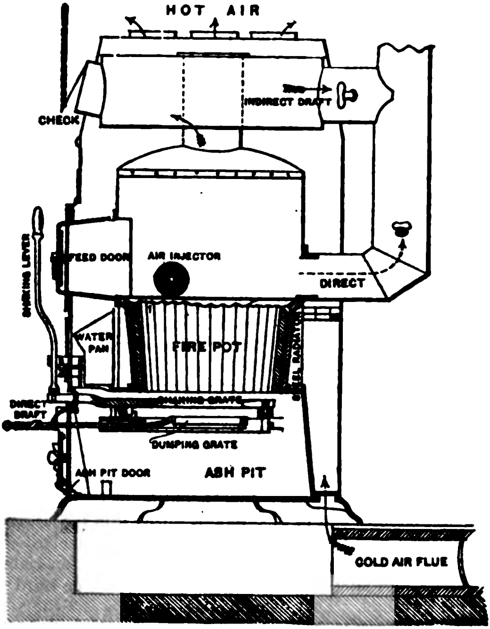

Fig. 34. Connection of Cold-air Duct with Furnace

Cold-Air Supply. In a house heated by a furnace, the temperature of the rooms is maintained by a constant incoming current of hot air, and it is ABSOLUTELY NECESSARY for satisfactory heating that proper provision be made for supplying this air to the furnace, and on no account should a hot-air furnace be used without being provided with a direct supply of air from outside the building. In dwellings this may be best accomplished by putting an opening in the external wall just beneath the first-floor joist and as far above the ground as the elevation of the building will permit. From this opening, which should be covered with galvanized wire netting of about ¾-in mesh, a duct or flue should be carried to the air-pit under the furnace, as shown in Fig. 34. The duct may be either carried horizontally under the basement-ceiling until near the furnace and then dropped to the air-pit, or it may be carried down against the cellar-wall and thence under the floor to the furnace. The portion of the duct above the floor should be built of well-seasoned matched boards or of galvanized iron. The portion below the floor should be constructed either of stone, brick, or glazed tile, and should be tightly cemented. If of brick or stone, the duct should be covered with stone slabs with the edges roughly dressed and the joints cemented. The air-ducts should not be carried under the floor if the soil is at all damp, nor near any drain. Fig. 35 shows the form and construction of the foundation and pit of a portable furnace. Besides the external air-supply, it is also a good idea to have a smaller air-duct leading from a register in the front hall to the base of the furnace. This duct may be of wood, tin, or galvanized iron, and may be connected either with the base of the furnace above the floor or feed into the outside duct, but care should be taken to prevent the air from blowing from the outside duct up through the inside one. An inside duct will produce a better circulation of air through the house, and on very cold nights the outside duct may be shut off and the air taken entirely from the front hall, as the air from this source, having nothing to contaminate it, will be reasonably pure.

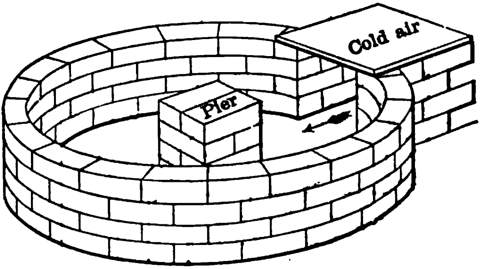

Fig. 35. Foundation and Pit for a Portable Furnace

The Hot-Air Pipes and Registers. The pipes which convey the heated air from the furnace to the various rooms should be of bright IX tin for sizes less than 14 in in diameter and of No. 26 galvanized iron for larger sizes. All pipes below the basement-ceiling should be round, and for the best work should be covered with asbestos paper, pasted to the pipe with a specially prepared paste. The vertical hot-air pipes, to rooms in the second or third stories, are frequently termed STACKS. They usually pass up between the studs of the partitions in the lower stories, and are necessarily shallow. For medium-cost and low-cost houses the stacks are usually made 3¾ in deep, of one thickness of tin, and wrapped with asbestos paper pasted on the tin. Two thicknesses of asbestos paper are but slightly better than one. Double-walled stacks greatly reduce the fire-hazard to about that of steam-heating. For a better class of buildings double pipes are, or should be, used for the stacks. These stacks have an air-space between the outside and inside pipes, affording a circulation of air, which makes the stacks absolutely safe, thus obviating the necessity of iron lath in front of the stack. The table on page 1266 gives the sizes and dimensions of safety double hot-air stacks made by the Excelsior Steel Furnace Company. In providing for hot-air stacks, it should be remembered that the friction against the sides of the pipes largely affects the volume of air conveyed, and that consequently a round pipe is always to be preferred to a square one, and a square pipe to a shallow pipe. In large residences, 5-in or 6-in studding should be used for partitions, so that thicker pipes may be used. Brick flues should not be used for conveying hot air, as the loss of heat by absorption is very great, and economical results cannot be obtained. The hot-air registers should be set in double register-boxes made of tin, and the bottom of each stack should terminate in a BOOT or FOOTING, arranged in such a way as to insure the quick and easy flow of hot air from the feed-pipe into the stack.

Ventilation. A hot-air furnace-plant, properly put in, will furnish a good supply of fresh air, and therefore afford fairly good ventilation, if means are provided for carrying off the foul air in the rooms. The warm air entering a room must of necessity force out an equal quantity of the air already in the room; exits are often found in the spaces around the doors and windows, but these are rarely sufficient to carry away the air as fast as it would enter if unimpeded. Fireplaces, especially if kept in use, afford excellent ventilation. A good arrangement for obtaining ventilation is by building a large flue in a central chimney and using a galvanized-iron smoke-stack, placed in the middle of it, for the furnace. The space surrounding the smoke-pipe may then be used for ventilation and ducts from different rooms connected with it. Cold-air or exit-registers should be placed in rooms likely to become air-bound. The space between two studs of an inside wall, if left open to the attic will form an efficient exit air-flue.

Location of Furnace. Upon the location of the furnace the successful heating of the house often depends, and it is a matter that requires careful consideration. As a general rule, the furnace should be located in the basement, near the middle of the space occupied by the registers, and a little nearer the side from which the prevailing winds come in winter. The tendency, in hot-air heating, when the wind is blowing strong in severely cold weather, is for the rooms on the further side of the house from the wind to be overheated, and for those against the wind to be poorly heated, the registers on the windward side delivering scarcely any hot air. Therefore, to counteract this tendency, the furnace should always be placed a few feet toward the windward side of the building, provided this does not make the pipes to the general, or family, living-rooms longer than the others. The height of the basement should be such that the LEADERS, or horizontal hot-air pipes below the basement-ceiling, may have a pitch of 1¼ in per running foot upward from the furnace. If there is no inclination to these pipes, the first-story rooms will be heated with difficulty. For a residence of ten rooms the furnace-room should have a clear height of at least 7 ft 6 in.

Cold-Air Opening. If only one external cold-air supply is used, it should be taken from the direction from which the prevailing winds come. For buildings in exposed situations it is desirable to have a cold-air supply from the opposite side of the building also, and to connect the ducts and furnish each with a damper, so that either duct may be used, according to the direction of the wind. Cases have been known where the wind blowing from the opposite direction of the cold-air supply has sucked the air from the house through the furnace and cold-air duct, thus actually reversing the natural operation of the furnace. Two supplies will obviate this possibility.

Location of Stacks and Registers. To insure the best results, the location of furnace, stacks and registers should be planned out before the work of construction begins, for while the building need not be planned to suit the heating-apparatus, it almost always happens that the setting of the partitions, swinging of doors, and placing of studs and joists can be arranged so as to favor the placing of stacks and registers, without seriously affecting any desired arrangement of the plan, and this can be done much better on the plans than after the house is started. It is generally conceded that the hot-air stacks should be placed in the partitions and as near to the furnace as practicable, and that all horizontal branches should be as short as possible, as the air travels much slower in the horizontal branches and more heat is lost from radiation. The registers should be placed as near the stack as possible; they should NOT be placed near the windows, nor where the doors will swing over or against them, nor in the floor near an open fireplace. Whether the register shall be placed in the floor or in a partition is a matter that should be decided by the owner. The circulation from a wall-register is not as good as from one placed in the floor, and the wall above the register generally becomes discolored after a time by the dust that is occasionally blown up through the pipes. Floor-registers catch much dirt and many owners object to having their carpets cut. The author believes that it is better to have the registers placed in the wall. The inclined baseboard registers should be used instead of floor-registers wherever possible. Convex registers are to be preferred for walls, as they deliver more air than do the ordinary flat registers. It sometimes happens that the stacks must be put in an outside wall. When this is the case, the stack should be double and wrapped with asbestos paper. Stacks should NOT be placed in outside walls, however, when it is possible to place them elsewhere.

Calculations for Size of Furnace, Pipes and Registers

Rules for Furnace-Heating.[*] From the formulas given, the following rules can be deduced, it being understood that the equivalent glass-surface is equal to the area of windows and doors plus one-fourth that of the exposed wall expressed in square feet:

(1) To find area of grate in square inches: Divide equivalent glass-surface in square feet by 1.25 or multiply by 0.8.

(2) To find area of flue for any room in square inches: Divide equivalent glass-surface in square feet by 1.2 for first story, by 1.5 for second story, by 1.8 for third story.

(3) Make area of vent-flues 0.8 of hot-air flues.

(4) Make area of cold-air box 0.8 of given areas of hot-air flues.

(5) Take area of chimney smoke-flue in square inches as one-twelfth that of grate, with 1 in added to each dimension.

Pipes and Registers. The tables given in various books and catalogues for the size of pipes and registers vary a great deal and must be used with considerable judgment. The table on page 1257 appears to the author to be as reliable as any.

This table gives different sizes of hot-air registers used in furnace-practice, together with the equivalents of the capacity of the same in round leader-pipes from furnace, with an elevation of at least 1 in to the foot; also the equivalent in riser-pipes (or stacks), and also the cubic feet of space in first, second and third stories which said registers, with their proper round and square pipes, will heat. The table is based on normal conditions, with runs of pipe of usual length, and is intended to show the size of registers and pipes necessary to raise the temperature of air from zero outside to 70° F. inside, within reasonable time, without forcing. The sizes that are marked with an asterisk are those recommended for general use. The larger the register the less resistance to the flow of the heated air, but sizes mentioned will produce good results, and, being stock sizes, will always be found in stock. In planning work arrange to use the sizes referred to. It should always be borne in mind, however, that uniform heating does not depend so much upon the ACTUAL sizes of the pipes as upon the RELATIVE sizes. For example, in a two-story house of eight rooms of EXACTLY THE SAME SIZE and the same amount of wall and glass-area the best heating-results will be obtained not by using the same size of pipes for all the rooms, even if the pipes are of ample capacity, but by carefully proportioning the sizes of the pipes according to the exposure, length of the leaders, and location of the room in either the first or second story. The registers in the rooms with north and west exposures should be a little nearer the furnace, if possible, than the others, and the pipes to the first story should be larger than those leading to the second story. The International Heater Company states that 1 sq in of capacity of hot-air pipe will heat 50 cu ft in stores and 90 cu ft in churches when there is but one pipe directly over the furnace.

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[*] R. C. Carpenter's Heating and Ventilating of Buildings.

Table of Capacity of Hot-Air Pipes and Registers

Size of register, in	Equivalent in round or leader-pipe, in	Equivalent in square or riser-pipe, in	Space in first story same will heat, cu ft	Space in second story same will heat, cu ft	Space in third story same will heat, cu ft
6×8	6	4×8	400	450	500
*8×8	7	4×10	450	500	560
*8×10	8	4×10	500	850	880
*8×12	8	4×11	800	1 000	1 050
*9×12	9	4×12	1 050	1 250	1 320
*9×14	9	4×14	1 050	1 350	1 450
*10×12	10	4×14	1 500	1 650	1 800
*10×14	10	6×10	1 800	2 000	2 200
10×16	10	6×10	1 800	2 000	2 200
12×14	12	6×12	2 200	2 300	2 500
*12×15	12	6×12	2 250	2 300	2 500
*12×17	12	6×14	2 300	2 600	2 800
12×19	12	6×14	2 300	2 600	2 800
*14×18	14	6×16	2 800	3 000	3 200
*14×20	14	6×16	2 900	3 000	3 200
*14×22	14	8×16	3 000	3 200	3 400
*16×20	16	8×18	3 600	4 000	4 250
*16×24	16	8×18	3 700	4 000	4 250
*20×24	18	10×20	4 800	5 400	5 750
*20×26	20	10×24	6 000	7 000	7 450

* Sizes recommended for general use.

Cold-Air Box. The sectional area of the cold-air box should be equal to three-fourths of the aggregate sectional area of the leaders. The box, or duct, should be 10 or 12 in deep, for dwellings, and wide enough to give the required sectional area. It should also always be provided with a damper, so that the supply may be regulated to the heavy winds and extreme cold weather.

Specifications for Furnace-Work

The following form is given as a guide to architects in preparing the specifications for furnace-work:

SPECIFICATIONS FOR FURNACE-WORK IN RESIDENCE FOR MR. .... TO BE BUILT AT.................................

...............ARCHITECT

Furnace. Furnish and set up complete, where shown on basement-plan, one No. — ——— furnace, portable-pattern, with double casings. Connect the furnace with the chimney with a No. 24 galvanized-iron smoke-pipe of the same size as the collar on the furnace; all bends or turns to be made with three-piece elbows; the pipe to be strongly supported by wire, and to be kept 12 in below the ceiling.

Air-Pit. Excavate for and build a cold-air chamber under the furnace not less than 18 in deep, with 8-in brick walls, laid and plastered with cement; also cement the bottom of the chamber. Build the cold-air duct under cellar-floor, where shown on plan,—ft long, 14 in deep in the clear, and—in wide, with sides of hard brick in cement, and with the sides and bottom smoothly plastered with cement. Cover the duct with 3-in flagstones with tight joints, leaving opening of proper size for the wooden box to be built by the carpenter (wooden box should be included in carpenter's specifications).

Hot-Air Pipes. Furnish and properly connect with furnace and register-boxes, leaders and stacks of the following sizes, all to be made of bright IX tin, and the stacks are to be double with an air-space. All turns in leaders to be made by three-piece or four-piece elbows, and the stacks to have boots or starters of approved pattern.

Sizes of Pipes and Registers

Hall................................	12″ leader	No stack	12″×15″ register
Parlor..............................	10″ leader	4″×14″ stack	10″×12″ register
Dining-room......................	12″ leader	6″×12″ stack	12″×15″ register
Library.............................	10″ leader	4″×14″ stack	10″×12″ register
Chamber No. 1....................	9″ leader	4″×14″ stack	9″×14″ register
Chamber No. 2....................	9″ leader	4″×12″ stack	9″×12″ register
Chamber No. 3....................	8″ leader	4″×10″ stack	8″×10″ register

Registers. All registers are to be of sizes given in the foregoing list, of the Tuttle & Bailey manufacture, japanned, except those in the first story, which are to be electro-bronze-plated. All floor registers are to be set in iron borders corresponding with the registers.

Register-Boxes. All register-boxes to be made double; for first-story boxes the JOISTS ARE TO BE LINED WITH TIN and provided with CEILING-PLATES the full size of register, with plaster-collar attached, so that pipes and boxes can be removed without disturbing the plastering or defacing the ceiling.

Miscellaneous. All horizontal pipes in the basement are to be round, and where they pass through partitions they are to be provided with collars, so that the pipes can be removed without disturbing the plastering. All leaders are to be provided with dampers and tin tags designating the different rooms they supply; and whenever pipes run near woodwork the same is to be properly covered with tin and protected from any danger from fire. The contractor is to remove all rubbish made by him, clean up all ironwork, and leave the whole apparatus in complete working order, and furnish a poker of proper size.

Guarantee. The contractor is to guarantee that the furnace shall, under proper management, heat all rooms with registers connected with the furnace to 70° F., when the temperature outside indicates 10° F. below zero. In the event of the failure of the furnace to do this, the contractor, at his own expense and without unnecessary delay, is either to make the furnace heat said rooms or substitute another furnace that will heat them.

Hot-Air-and-Water Combination-Furnaces

Combination-Furnaces. It is quite difficult, if not impossible, to heat dwellings covering throughout, more than 1 400 sq ft with warm air alone. On account of the much larger exposure and the increased length of leaders, it becomes necessary to supplement the warm air with an auxiliary heat which can be carried to remote and exposed parts of the house, and which will not be affected by pressure of wind or long and crooked pipes. For supplying this auxiliary heat, hot water has been found best adapted as a rule, and a great variety of COMBINATION-FURNACES are now made which contain provisions for heating water which may be carried by pipes to radiators located in those parts of the house most difficult to heat by warm air. Such combination-systems have been used with great success, and for heating dwellings of ten average-size rooms the author believes it to be the most successful system, as it guarantees the comfortable warming of the house, and, if properly put in, thorough ventilation, which cannot be obtained by any system of direct hot-water or steam-radiation. It is claimed that nearly 200 sq ft of hot-water radiation can be obtained by absorbing the surplus heat which would usually be wasted in a warm-air furnace. The construction of the parts for heating the water varies greatly with different makes of furnaces. Some furnaces have a portion of the fire-pot hollow, and the water is heated there; others have a separate heater suspended over the fire-pot. It is impossible here to consider the relative merits of the various heaters; the architect should examine the heaters for himself and look up their record before specifying any particular make. As a rule, the parts of the house which should be heated by the hot water are the halls, bath-room, and perhaps the rooms on the north or west sides of the house. The same rules govern the size of the radiators and piping and the manner of installing as in an entire hot-water plant.

Hot-Air-and-Steam Combination. There are also several furnaces which have a small steam-boiler placed above the fire by means of which a few rooms may be heated by direct steam-radiation. Safety-valves are provided so that the steam-pressure cannot exceed 5 lb, and if the directions for running the apparatus are followed, the apparatus is perfectly safe. The steam-combination possesses some advantages over the hot-water combination, and for a large residence the author believes that it will give more satisfactory results with intelligent management.

Specification for Hot-Water Heating-Apparatus in a Residence

This specification contemplates a complete two-pipe circulating-system, guaranteed perfect in every respect.

Heater. Furnish and set up in cellar, where shown on plan, one No. — ———— water-boiler, guaranteed free from all flaws and defects. The heater to be set on a substantial foundation of hard brick laid in cement mortar and put in by the heating contractor. Furnish and deliver one set of fire-tools, consisting of one poker, one slice-bar and one fine brush and handle.

Smoke-pipe. Connect the boiler to the chimney by means of smoke-pipe made of No. 20 galvanized iron, the diameter of the pipe to be equal to the outlet on the heater.

Trimmings. The boiler to be provided with one expansion-thermometer registering from 80° F. to 250° F. Attach to main flow-pipe, near the boiler, one Standard altitude gauge.*

Water-Connections and Blow-off. Feed-water with its supply-pipe will be brought within 6 ft of the boiler by the plumber and left with one ¾-in cast-iron fitting for boiler-connection, which is to be made by this contractor, with suitable cock. Draw-off cock to be placed on lowest point of system and to be fitted for hose-nipple attachment.

Pipes. Furnish and run all necessary flow-pipes and return-pipes of ample size, connecting them to radiators with pipes of ample size to insure the free and rapid flow of hot water to the radiators and easy flow of the cooler water back to the heater. All connections from risers to radiators to be made below floors.

Quality of Materials. All materials used in the construction of this apparatus are to be the best of their respective kinds, all fittings to be heavily beaded and made of the best gray iron with clean-cut threads, and, when practicable, Y's and 45° L's are to be used.

Reaming. The ends of all pipes used in the construction of this apparatus are to be reamed out and all obstructions removed before pipes are placed in position. All flow-pipes and return-pipes in basement to be supported by neat, strong, adjustable hangers, arranged to suit expansion and contraction, and properly secured to timbers overhead. At all points where pipes pass through ceilings, floors, or partitions, the pipes to be encased in iron or tin tubes and the holes protected with floor or ceiling-plates.

Expansion-Tank. The expansion-tank to be made of No. 22 galvanized iron, 30 in high and 14 in in diameter, and is to be furnished with a proper gauge-glass with brass mountings complete. It is to be placed above all the radiators in some suitable place and supported on a proper shelf. From this tank an overflow-pipe will be run to basement or other suitable place with a vent-pipe through the roof.

Radiators. Furnish and set up the following radiators:

Rooms	Number of radiators	Square feet of radiating surface, sq ft
Main hall	1 indirect radiator	108
Sitting-room	1 indirect radiator	120
Library	1 direct radiator	40
Dining-room	1 direct radiator	60
Sitting-room chamber	1 direct radiator	40
Library chamber	1 direct radiator	44
Dining-room chamber	1 direct radiator	36
Kitchen chamber	1 direct radiator	32
Bath-room	1 direct radiator	32
	9 radiators	512

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* An altitude-gauge indicates the amount of water in the system and is a convenient attachment which avoids the necessity of consulting the gauge-glass in the tank. It can be dispensed with if desired.

In all 284 sq ft of direct surface and 228 sq ft of indirect; total surface, 512 sq ft. The direct radiators to be (American Radiator Company's Rococo hot-water pattern) 38 in high.

Air-valves. Each radiator will have properly connected to it a nickel-plated air-valve to be opened and closed with a key.

Radiator-Valves. Each direct radiator will be promptly connected to the system of piping with a (Gurney) quick-opening nickel-plated radiator-valve and union elbow.

Indirect Radiation. The indirect radiators to consist of two stacks of the (American Radiator Company's Excelsior) hot-water radiator connected together with tight joints and firmly suspended from the basement-ceiling by suitable wrought-iron hangers. The stacks are to be so piped and hung as to permit a quick, noiseless and constant flow throughout of the heated water. Each stack to be enclosed in galvanized-iron chamber with proper inlet for fresh air and a corresponding outlet for warm air, connected by a galvanized pipe to the register in the room which the stack is intended to heat. The registers to be of the Tuttle & Bailey pattern, electro-bronzed plated, and of the following sizes: hall, 12 by 19; sitting-room, 14 by 22 in. Registers to have floor-borders and to be set in register-boxes. The pipe connecting the stack and register is to be so arranged that all fresh air coming in will be properly heated and conveyed, without loss, to its destination. In arranging indirect boxes, care is to be exercised in getting ample space for cold air under the stack, and a corresponding space for warm air over the stack; unless otherwise specified, this space is not to be less than 12 in above and 10 in below the stack.

Covering of Pipe. All flow and return-pipes and fittings in cellar above the floor to be properly covered with 1-in hair-felt neatly sewed up in canvas and painted one coat of good white lead, or to be covered with asbestos or magnesia sectional covering with canvas cover and secured by lacquered brass bands.

Boiler-Covering. Cover all exposed parts of boiler, except the front, with plastic asbestos 1½ in thick, neatly applied and troweled smooth.

Workmanship. All work to be done in a neat, substantial and workmanlike manner, and the apparatus, when completed, to be thoroughly tested and left in good working order.

Guarantee. The contractor is to guarantee that the apparatus, when completed in accordance with this specification, will be of ample capacity to evenly maintain a temperature of 70° F. in the rooms in which radiators are located when the outside temperature is at zero, and that the apparatus throughout will have a free and rapid circulation when in operation.

Steam-Heating for Residences

General Requirements. For indirect radiation, steam-heat is generally considered cheaper than hot-water heat, and in every way as satisfactory. For very large residences, the author would recommend steam-heat, all of the principal rooms to be heated by indirect radiation, and only the bath-room, halls, and perhaps the attic and one or two rooms on the north side, which generally includes the dining-room, by direct radiation. For dining-rooms a special direct radiator, containing a warming-closet, is made. The air-supply to the indirect stacks should be very large and provided with a damper, so that the supply may be regulated according to the weather. The same principles apply in heating a residence by steam as in heating any other building, and there is no difference in the piping and radiators. The boilers used in residence-heating, however, are generally of the cast-iron sectional type described on pages 1227 to 1230. The single-pipe system is commonly used in dwellings, all indirect radiators, however, being connected with a return-pipe dropped below the water-line. Two specifications are appended for steam-heating, one for all direct radiation and one for all indirect radiation; the latter can be easily amended to provide for some direct radiation.

Specification for a First-Class Low-Pressure Steam-Heating Apparatus for Heating by Direct Radiation

Intention. This specification is intended to cover everything necessary to fully finish and install in the above-mentioned building a complete steam-heating system in strict accordance with the plans and this specification, as prepared by ———, architect.

Plans. The plans herewith are intended to show only the location of the boiler, piping and radiators; the arrangement of the piping will be left largely to the contractor, subject to the approval of the architect.

General Requirement. This contractor is to provide all necessary tools and appliances for the erection and completion of the work, and when completed is to remove all apparatus, refuse and débris from the building and grounds, leaving the work in a clean, uninjured and perfect condition. No cutting of any description tending to weaken the building structurally is to be undertaken without consulting the architects. This contractor is to be fully responsible for the safety and good condition of the work and material embraced in this contract until the completion and acceptance of the same. All work is to be of the best quality, and should at any time improper, imperfect, or unsound material or faulty workmanship be observed, whether before or after same has been built into the structure, this contractor, upon notice from the architect, is to remove same and substitute good and proper material and workmanship without delay in place thereof, in default of which the architect is to effect same by other means as may be deemed best, and is to deduct the cost of such alterations from the sum due the contractor under this contract.

System. The heating is to be effected by direct radiation distributed throughout as shown on plans, and the circulation of the steam is to be by the one-pipe basement-system.

Boiler. This contractor is to build foundation for boiler, where shown, 12 in deep, of common hard brick laid in cement mortar. He is to leave ash-pit for boiler of proper size, 12 in deep, cemented, and made water-tight. He is to furnish and set up one (C. I. sectional) boiler, provided with 6-in low-pressure brass-cased steam-gauge, water-gauge, and glass, gauge-cocks, combination-column, safety-valves and blow-off valves, and all other usual and necessary trimmings to complete the boiler,[*] and a full set of fire-tools, consisting of one slicing-bar, one hoe, one poker and a cleaning-brush. He is to cover boiler with 1¼-in of asbestos cement, neatly troweled to a smooth finish.

Water-Feed. The plumber is to bring the water-supply to within 6 ft of boiler but this contractor is to make connection with boiler with ¾-in iron pipe, stop-cock, and check-valve.

Catch-Basin. Contractor is to furnish and set one cast-iron catch-basin, 28 by 36 in, where shown on plans. He is to connect the boiler blow-off pipe to catch-basin, connect same to sewer, and vent with 1¼-in pipe to roof. (Catch-basins are usually omitted in house-heating, a hose being attached to the blow-off-valve for blowing off.)

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[*] For house-heating plants it is well to specify also "one automatic damper-regulator of approved pattern, with connection for operating draft-door and cold-air check."

Smoke-Pipe. Contractor is to connect the boiler with the chimney with a round smoke-pipe made of No. 16 galvanized iron with suitable balance-damper. This connection to be of same size as left for this purpose by maker of boiler.

Main Pipes and Risers. The main steam-pipe is to be of ample size to carry all the risers and radiators attached to the system, and is to be so graded that all water of condensation will flow freely back to the boiler without noise. From the top of this main the various branches are to be taken to radiators and risers, the connections for which are to be so made that no traps are formed, and when horizontal runs occur they are to have a relief-pipe to carry off all water of condensation. Eccentric fittings only to be used on heating-mains where reduced in size. Sizes of supplies to radiators to be 1 in to 24 sq ft, 1¼ in to 60 sq ft, and 1½ in to all above this amount of heating-surface. Radiators on first story to be connected direct to steam-main. All horizontal pipes to be one size larger than the vertical pipes. All steam-connections from heating-main to radiators and risers to run on a 45° angle from heating-main and to be one size larger than risers and radiator-feeds.

Pipes and Fittings. All pipe used throughout is to be of the best quality wrought-iron pipe of standard weight and thickness, smooth inside, free from imperfections, and true to shape. All threads to be clean-cut, straight and true. All fittings to be of the best heavy gray iron, with taper-threads and to be heavily beaded. No inferior pipe or fittings will be allowed. All couplings used are to be of the best make, with recessed ends, except reducers, which are to be offset.

Supports. All piping to be supported by approved expansion-hangers or rollers not to exceed 10 ft apart. Neat cast-iron floor and ceiling-plates are to be used where pipes pass through floors, ceilings and partitions.

Radiators. Furnish direct radiation to the amount enumerated on the plans, of the (American Radiator Company's) make. All 38-in radiators to be the (Perfection) pattern. All radiators 14 in high to be (Ætna flue) radiators.

Radiator-Valves. The radiators are to be furnished with Jenkins disk union valves of the best nickel-plated metal and are to have hard-wood handles.

Valves. All valves 2 in and under to have brass bodies and iron wheels; over 2 in to be heavy cast iron with brass stem and trimmings and iron wheels; all valves 4 in and over to have heavy yokes. All gate-valves to be of (Jenkins) make.

Air-Valves. Radiators throughout the entire building are to be furnished with (Marsh) automatic air-valves.

Pipe-Covering. All pipes in the cellar above the floor to be covered with 1-in asbestos (or magnesia) sectional covering with canvas cover and secured by lacquered brass bands.

Painting and Bronzing. All radiators and exposed pipes in rooms or halls are to be neatly painted two coats of best radiator-enamel or bronzed in desired colors.

Finally. When completed, the apparatus is to be tested to 20-lb steam-pressure and made tight at that pressure, said test to be conducted under the supervision of the architect. Fuel for the test to be furnished by the owner, and when accepted the apparatus is to be turned over to the owner in complete working order. All valves and stuffing-boxes to be properly packed and the plant to be completed in all its parts, it being understood that this contractor is to furnish all miscellaneous material, tools, labor, etc., necessary to complete the work in a first-class and workmanlike manner.

Guarantee. This contractor shall guarantee that when the apparatus is completed in accordance with these specifications and drawings it will be free from all mechanical defects and of ample capacity to heat all rooms where radiation is placed to a temperature of 70° F. when the outside temperature is 10° F. below zero.

Specification for a Superior Low-Pressure Steam-Heating Apparatus for Heating by the Indirect System, with a Steam-Pressure of from One to Five Pounds per Square Inch

Note. This specification should be accompanied by a heating-plan showing the position of all indirect radiation-stacks in the basement, the cold-air inlets to the same, and the size and general position of the main steam and return-pipes and the connections to the radiators. The return-main should be placed at or below the floor and the steam-main close under the ceiling. The size and location of warm-air registers should be shown on the general floor-plans.

General Requirements. Boiler, trimmings, and smoke and feed-connection to be the same as in preceding specification.

System of Piping. The system of piping throughout is to be constructed on the double-pipe GRAVITY RETURN plan, and all pipes erected are to be of ample size to insure the active delivery of dry steam to the radiators and easy flow of the water of condensation back to the boiler. All supply and steam-mains and branch connection-pipes are to be furnished and erected by this contractor, and are to be of the sizes given and located in the relative positions shown on the plans. All piping to be graded and properly dripped and the steam-mains to be hung in position by means of expansion pipe-hangers. The main return to be run at or under basement-floor and protected from moisture.*

Stack-Boxes and Flues. The heating of the several apartments is to be accomplished by means of indirect radiators set in clusters of STACKS, each hung from the ceiling of the cellar, and the heat from these STACKS is to be conveyed to the room to be heated by means of tin hot-air pipes set in the walls and leading from the stack to the room to be heated; each room heated to have an independent STACK and to be connected therewith by an independent tin hot-air pipe. Each of the STACKS of indirect radiators to be enclosed in a well-made box or galvanized-iron chamber and from each STACK a galvanized-iron duct of proper size is to lead to the opening provided for the same in outside wall. A damper is to be placed in the cold-air duct and a tight door in the stack-casing below the radiator. The radiators are to be hung and the chambers made so that there will be a space of not less than (12) in above and (10) in below the stack, and the cold-air duct is to connect with the bottom of the chamber, at a point farthest from the warm-air outlet.

Radiators. Contractor is to furnish and erect in cellar, in the positions shown on plans, ten STACKS of approved-pattern indirect radiators which in the aggregate will have not less than (732) sq ft of radiating-surface, and which will be divided up for the several rooms to be heated as follows:

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* In damp situations the return-pipes, when necessary to drop below floor, should be run in brick ducts laid in cement mortar and the pipe packed with mineral wool or asbestos.

First Story	
Hall	1 stack to contain 108 sq ft
Parlor	1 stack to contain 96 sq ft
Dining-room	1 stack to contain 108 sq ft
Library	1 stack to contain 96 sq ft
Rear hall	1 stack to contain 48 sq ft
Second Story	
Chamber over parlor	1 stack to contain 72 sq ft
Chamber over dining-room	1 stack to contain 72 sq ft
Chamber over library	1 stack to contain 72 sq ft
Hall-bedroom	1 stack to contain 36 sq ft
Bath-room	1 stack to contain 24 sq ft

No VALVES are to be placed in either the supply or return to radiating-stack, but an improved automatic air-valve is to be placed on each stack.

Registers. Contractor is to furnish and set in position in each room heated, a baseboard or wall-register with a deflecting damper, of the size shown on plans. All registers for first story to be bronze finish, and all others to be black or white japanned finish, as shall be selected.

Tin and Galvanized-iron Work. Contractor is to furnish to builder (who is to set in position as shown on plans) all tin wall-pipes and register-boxes for hot air to the rooms to be heated, all to be made of IX tin and of the sizes shown on plans. Contractor is to furnish and erect the galvanized-iron casings for the ten stacks as above specified, with galvanized-iron ducts to the outside openings. All to be constructed in a substantial and workmanlike manner.

Guarantee. The contractor is to guarantee that the apparatus when completed will be of ample capacity to maintain an even temperature of 70° F. in the rooms heated when the outside temperature is zero, and that the apparatus will afford free circulation throughout and be noiseless in operation.

Books on Residence-Heating. Much valuable information on residence-heating may be obtained from pamphlets published by different manufacturers, among whom are the American Radiator Company, the International Heater Company, the Gurney Heater Manufacturing Company, Gorton & Lidgerwood Company, Isaac A. Sheppard & Company, and the Excelsior Steel Furnace Company of Chicago.

Tables

The following tables will be found useful in estimating the size of registers, piping and heating-surface of pipes and boiler-tubes:

Tables of Sizes and Dimensions of Safety Double Hot-Air Stacks

Made by the Excelsior Steel Furnace Company

Size of stack as listed, in inches	Actual size of outside stack, in inches	Actual size of inside stack, in inches	Area of inside stack, in square inches	Capacity as compared with that of hot-air pipe with pitch of 1 inch to 1 foot	Equivalent in round pipe with pitch of 1 inch to 1 foot	Sizes of round pipe which should be used with each stack, in inches	Area of said round pipes, in square inches	Size of registers and register-boxes which should be used with each stack, in inches	Cubic feet of space (approximate) that can be heated with each stack with pipe and registers of size given	Equivalent of said space on floor of rooms 10 ft high, in feet	Area, in square inches, of registers, with space occupied by bars deducted
4×8	3⅝×7⅝	3¼×7	23	35	6½	7	38	6×8	500	6×8	35
4×10	3⅝×9⅝	3¼×9	29	43	7½	8	50	8×10	850	8×10	45
4×11	3⅝×10⅝	3¼×10	32½	48	8	8	50	8×12	1 000	9×11	55
4×12	3⅝×11⅝	3¼×11	35	53	8¼	9	63	9×12	1 250	10×12½	60
4×14	3⅝×13⅝	3¼×13	41	63	9	9	63	10×12	1 650	12×14	70
6×10	5⅝×9⅝	5¼×9	47	71	10	10	78	10×14	2 000	12×17	80
6×12	5¾×11⅝	5¼×11	58	87	11	12	113	12×15	2 300	14×17	115
6×14	5⅝×13⅝	5¼×13	68	102	12	12	113	12×17	2 600	15×18	120
6×16	5⅝×15⅝	5¼×15	79	119	12½	14	154	14×20	3 000	15×20	156
8×18	7⅝×17⅝	7¼×17	124	186	15	16	201	16×24	4 000	20×20	210
10×20	9⅝×19⅝	9¼×19	176	264	18	18	254	20×24	5 400	20×27	270
10×24	9¾×23⅝	9¼×23	213	330	20½	20	314	21×29	7 000	20×35	340

Dimensions of Registers and Borders*

Made by the Tuttle & Bailey Manufacturing Company

Size of body, in	Register		Border	
	Extreme dimensions, in	Depth open, in	With ribs, floor opening, in	Tin-box size, in
4× 6	5 5/8 × 7 5/8	1 5/8	....	....
4× 8	5 1/4 × 9 1/4	2 1/4	....	....
4×10	5 1/4 × 11 1/4	2 1/4	....	....
4×13	5 1/4 × 14 1/4	2 1/4	....	....
4×15	5 1/4 × 16 3/16	2 1/4	....	....
4×18	5 1/4 × 19 1/4	2 1/4	....	....
5× 8	6 3/8 × 9 3/8	2	8 1/8 × 11 1/8	5 5/16 × 8 5/16
5×11	6 3/8 × 12 3/8	2	8 1/8 × 14 1/8	5 5/16 × 11 5/16
5×13	6 3/8 × 14 3/8	2	8 1/8 × 16 1/8	5 5/16 × 13 5/16
5×16	6 3/8 × 17 3/8	2	8 1/8 × 19 1/8	5 5/16 × 16 5/16
6× 6	7 11/16 × 7 11/16	2 3/8	9 9/16 × 9 9/16	6 9/16 × 6 9/16
6× 8	7 11/16 × 9 11/16	2 3/8	9 9/16 × 11 9/16	6 9/16 × 8 9/16
6× 9	7 11/16 × 10 11/16	2 3/8	9 9/16 × 12 9/16	6 9/16 × 9 9/16
6×10	7 11/16 × 11 11/16	2 3/8	9 9/16 × 13 9/16	6 9/16 × 10 9/16
6×14	7 11/16 × 15 11/16	2 3/8	9 9/16 × 17 9/16	6 9/16 × 14 9/16
6×16	7 11/16 × 17 11/16	2 3/8	9 9/16 × 19 9/16	6 9/16 × 16 9/16
6×18	7 11/16 × 19 11/16	2 3/8	9 9/16 × 21 9/16	6 9/16 × 18 9/16
6×24	7 11/16 × 25 11/16	2 3/8	9 9/16 × 27 9/16	6 9/16 × 24 9/16
7× 7	8 11/16 × 8 11/16	2 3/4	10 9/16 × 10 9/16	7 9/16 × 7 9/16
7×10	8 11/16 × 11 11/16	2 3/4	10 9/16 × 13 9/16	7 9/16 × 10 9/16
8× 8†	9 3/4 × 9 3/4	3	11 7/8 × 11 7/8	8 5/8 × 8 5/8
8×10	9 3/4 × 11 3/4	3	11 7/8 × 13 7/8	8 5/8 × 10 5/8
8×12†	9 3/4 × 13 3/4	3	11 7/8 × 15 7/8	8 5/8 × 12 5/8
8×15	9 3/4 × 16 11/16	3	11 7/8 × 18 7/8	8 5/8 × 15 5/8
8×18	9 3/4 × 19 3/4	3	11 7/8 × 21 7/8	8 5/8 × 18 5/8
8×21	9 3/4 × 22 3/4	3	11 7/8 × 24 7/8	8 5/8 × 21 5/8
8×24	9 3/4 × 25 3/4	3	11 7/8 × 27 7/8	8 5/8 × 24 5/8
9× 9	10 7/8 × 10 7/8	3 1/4	13 1/16 × 13 1/16	9 11/16 × 9 11/16
9×12†	10 7/8 × 13 7/8	3 1/4	13 1/16 × 16 1/16	9 11/16 × 12 11/16
9×13	11 × 15	3 1/4	13 1/16 × 17 1/16	9 11/16 × 13 11/16
9×14†	10 7/8 × 15 7/8	3 1/4	13 1/16 × 18 1/16	9 11/16 × 14 11/16
9×16	10 7/8 × 17 13/16	3 1/4	13 1/16 × 20 1/16	9 11/16 × 16 11/16
9×18	10 7/8 × 19 7/8	3 1/4	13 1/16 × 22 1/16	9 11/16 × 18 11/16
9×20	10 7/8 × 21 7/8	3 1/4	13 1/16 × 24 1/16	9 11/16 × 20 11/16
10×10	11 15/16 × 11 15/16	3 3/8	14 3/16 × 14 3/16	10 11/16 × 10 11/16
10×12	11 15/16 × 13 15/16	3 3/8	14 3/16 × 16 3/16	10 11/16 × 12 11/16
10×14	12 × 15 15/16	3 3/8	14 3/16 × 18 3/16	10 11/16 × 14 11/16
10×16	11 15/16 × 17 7/8	3 3/8	14 3/16 × 20 3/16	10 11/16 × 16 11/16
10×18	11 15/16 × 19 7/8	3 3/8	14 3/16 × 22 3/16	10 11/16 × 18 11/16
10×20	11 15/16 × 21 7/8	3 3/8	14 3/16 × 24 3/16	10 11/16 × 20 11/16
12×12	14 1/16 × 14 1/16	4	16 7/16 × 16 7/16	12 13/16 × 12 13/16
12×14	14 1/16 × 16 1/16	4	16 7/16 × 18 7/16	12 13/16 × 14 13/16
12×15	13 13/16 × 16 13/16	4	16 7/16 × 19 7/16	12 13/16 × 15 13/16

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* For special side-wall registers, see page 1270.

† These sizes are those most likely to be found in the stock of local dealers.

Dimensions of Registers and Borders. (Continued)

Size of body, in	Register		Border	
	Extreme dimensions, in	Depth open, in	With ribs, floor-opening, in	Tin-box size, in
12×16	14 1/16 ×18	4	16 7/16 ×20 7/16	12 13/16×16 13/16
12×17*	14 1/16 ×19	4	16 7/16 ×21 7/16	12 13/16×17 13/16
12×18	14 1/16 ×20 1/16	4	16 7/16 ×22 7/16	12 13/16×18 13/16
12×19	14 1/16 ×21 1/16	4	16 7/16 ×23 7/16	12 13/16×19 13/16
12×20	14 1/16 ×22	4	16 7/16 ×24 7/16	12 13/16×20 13/16
12×24	14 1/16 ×26	4	16 7/16 ×28 7/16	12 13/16×24 13/16
12×30	14 1/16 ×32	4	....	....
12×36	14 1/16 ×38	4	....	....
14×14	16 5/16 ×16 5/16	4	18 15/16×18 15/16	14 7/8 ×14 7/8
14×16	16 5/16 ×18 5/16	4	18 15/16×20 15/16	14 7/8 ×16 7/8
14×18	16 3/8 ×20 5/16	4	18 15/16×22 15/16	14 7/8 ×18 7/8
14×20	16 5/16 ×22 5/16	4	18 15/16×24 15/16	14 7/8 ×20 7/8
14×22	16 3/8 ×24 1/4	4	18 15/16×26 15/16	14 7/8 ×22 7/8
15×25	17 13/16×27 13/16	4 1/2	19 13/16×29 15/16	16 1/8 ×26 1/8
16×16	18 5/16 ×18 5/16	4 1/4	20 7/8 ×20 7/8	16 7/8 ×16 7/8
16×18	18 5/16 ×20 5/16	4 1/4	20 7/8 ×22 7/8	16 7/8 ×18 7/8
16×20	18 5/16 ×22 5/16	4 1/4	20 7/8 ×24 7/8	16 7/8 ×20 7/8
16×22	18 5/16 ×24 5/16	4 1/4	20 7/8 ×26 7/8	16 7/8 ×22 7/8
16×24	18 5/16 ×26 11/16	4 1/4	20 7/8 ×28 7/8	16 7/8 ×25 1/8
16×28	18 5/16 ×30 5/16	4 1/4	20 7/8 ×32 7/8	16 7/8 ×28 7/8
16×32	18 5/16 ×34 5/16	4 1/4	20 7/8 ×36 7/8	16 7/8 ×32 7/8
18×18	20 5/16 ×20 5/16	4 3/4	22 15/16×22 15/16	18 7/8 ×18 7/8
18×21	20 5/16 ×23 5/16	4 3/4	22 15/16×25 15/16	18 7/8 ×21 7/8
18×24	20 5/16 ×26 5/16	4 3/4	22 15/16×28 15/16	18 7/8 ×24 7/8
18×27	20 5/16 ×29 5/16	4 3/4	22 15/16×31 15/16	18 7/8 ×27 7/8
18×30	20 5/16 ×32 1/4	4 3/4	22 15/16×34 15/16	18 7/8 ×30 7/8
18×36	20 5/16 ×38 1/4	4 3/4	22 15/16×40 15/16	18 7/8 ×36 7/8
20×20	22 3/8 ×22 3/8	5 1/2	25 1/8 ×25 1/8	20 15/16×20 15/16
20×24	22 3/8 ×26 3/8	5 1/2	25 1/8 ×29 1/8	20 15/16×24 15/16
20×26*	22 9/16 ×28 5/8	5 1/2	25 1/8 ×31 1/8	20 15/16×26 15/16
21×29	23 3/8 ×31 3/8	5 1/2	26 1/8 ×34 1/8	21 15/16×29 15/16
24×24	26 7/16 ×26 7/16	5 3/8	29 1/2 ×29 1/2	24 15/16×24 15/16
24×27	26 7/16 ×29 3/8	5 3/8	29 1/2 ×32 1/2	24 15/16×27 15/16
24×30	26 7/16 ×32 3/8	5 3/8	29 1/2 ×35 1/2	24 15/16×30 15/16
24×32	26 7/16 ×34 3/8	5 3/8	29 1/2 ×37 1/2	24 15/16×32 15/16
24×36	26 7/16 ×38 3/8	5 3/8	29 1/2 ×41 1/2	24 15/16×36 15/16
24×45	26 7/16 ×47 3/8	5 3/8	29 1/2 ×50 1/2	24 15/16×45 15/16
27×27	29 7/16 ×29 7/16	6	32 1/2 ×32 1/2	27 15/16×27 15/16
27×38	29 7/16 ×40 3/8	6 1/2	32 1/2 ×43 1/2	27 15/16×38 15/16
30×30	32 3/8 ×32 3/8	7 3/4	35 1/2 ×35 1/2	30 15/16×30 15/16
30×36	32 3/8 ×38 3/8	7 3/4	35 1/2 ×41 1/2	30 15/16×36 15/16
30×42	32 3/8 ×44 3/8	7 3/4	35 1/2 ×47 1/2	30 15/16×42 15/16

* These sizes are those most likely to be found in the stock of local dealers.

Estimated Capacity of Pipes and Registers

ROUND PIPES

Diameter of pipe, in	Area, sq in	Diameter of pipe, in	Area, sq in	Diameter of pipe, in	Area, sq in
7	38	12	113	22	380
8	50	14	154	24	452
9	63	16	201	26	531
10	78	18	254	28	616
11	95	20	314	30	707

RECTANGULAR PIPES

Size of pipe, in	Area, sq in	Size of pipe, in	Area, sq in	Size of pipe, in	Area, sq in
4×8	32	8×20	160	12×18	216
4×10	40	8×24	192	12×20	240
4×12	48	10×12	120	12×24	288
4×16	64	10×15	150	14×14	196
6×10	60	10×16	160	14×16	224
6×12	72	10×18	180	14×20	280
6×16	96	10×20	200	16×16	256
8×10	80	12×12	144	16×18	288
8×12	96	12×15	180	16×20	320
8×16	128	12×16	192	16×24	384

REGISTERS

Size of opening, in	Capacity, sq in	Size of opening, in	Capacity, sq in	Size of opening, in	Capacity, sq in
6×10	40	10×14	93	20×20	267
8×10	53	10×16	107	20×24	320
8×12	64	12×15	120	20×26	347
8×15	80	12×19	152	21×29	406
9×12	72	14×22	205	27×27	486
9×14	84	15×25	250	27×38	684
10×12	80	16×24	256	30×30	600

ROUND REGISTERS

Size of opening, in	Capacity, sq in	Size of opening, in	Capacity, sq in	Size of opening, in	Capacity, sq in
7	26	12	75	20	209
8	33	14	103	24	301
9	42	16	134	30	471
10	52	18	169	36	679

T. & B. Special Side-Wall Registers for Shallow Flues and Thin Partitions for Use in Baseboards

This register has a single valve, and the front projects 2 in into the room; with it a 6 by 13-in flue can be used with 3-in studding, that is, in the first-story rooms

SIZES AND CAPACITIES

Register		Tin flue		Round pipe	
List-size, in	Net air-opening in register-face, sq in	Size, in	Capacity, sq in	Size, in	Capacity, sq in
7×10	47	4 ×10	40	7	38
7×12	56	4 ×12	48	8	48
8×13	70	5 ×13	65	9	63
8×15	80	5 ×15	75	10	78
10×13	86	6 ×13	78	10	78
8×17	95	5½×17	93	11	95

Diameter of Main and Branch Pipes and Square Feet of Coil-Surface They Will Supply in an Open Hot-Water Apparatus when Coils are at Different Altitudes for Direct Radiation or in the Lower Story for Indirect Radiation *

Diameter of pipe, in	Indirect radiation	Direct radiation. Height of coil above bottom of boiler, in feet								
	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	100
	sq ft	sq ft	sq ft	sq ft	sq ft	sq ft	sq ft	sq ft	sq ft	sq ft
¾	49	50	52	53	55	57	59	61	63	68
1	87	89	92	95	98	101	103	108	112	121
1¼	136	140	144	149	153	158	161	169	175	189
1½	196	202	209	214	222	228	235	243	252	271
2	349	359	370	380	393	405	413	433	449	483
2½	546	561	577	595	613	633	643	678	701	755
3	785	807	835	856	888	912	941	974	1 009	1 086
3½	1 069	1 099	1 132	1 166	1 202	1 241	1 283	1 327	1 374	1 480
4	1 395	1 436	1 478	1 520	1 571	1 621	1 654	1 733	1 795	1 933
4½	1 767	1 817	1 871	1 927	1 988	2 052	2 120	2 193	2 272	2 445
5	2 185	2 244	2 309	2 379	2 454	2 531	2 574	2 713	2 805	3 019
6	3 140	3 228	3 341	3 424	3 552	3 648	3 763	3 897	4 036	4 344
7	4 276	4 396	4 528	4 664	4 808	4 964	5 132	5 308	5 496	5 920
8	5 580	5 744	5 912	6 080	6 284	6 484	6 616	6 932	7 180	7 735
9	7 068	7 268	7 484	7 708	7 952	8 208	8 482	8 774	9 088	9 780
10	8 740	8 976	9 236	9 516	9 816	10 124	10 296	10 852	11 220	12 076

* F. Schumann.

Diameter of Steam-Supply Pipes and Square Feet of Direct Radiation They Will Supply with 3 Pounds Steam-Pressure *

Diameter of pipe, in	Distance of radiator from boiler, in feet						
	9	64	100	225	324	400	484
	sq ft	sq ft	sq ft	sq ft	sq ft	sq ft	sq ft
¾	240	90	72	48	40	36	32
1	494	185	148	98	82	74	68
1¼	863	324	259	172	144	129	118
1½	1 361	510	408	272	226	204	185
2	2 796	1 049	839	559	466	419	381
2½	4 884	1 831	1 465	977	814	732	666
3	7 700	2 887	2 310	1 540	1 283	1 155	1 050
3½	11 323	4 246	3 097	2 264	1 887	1 698	1 544
4	15 819	5 932	4 745	3 164	2 636	2 372	2 157
4½	21 226	7 959	6 368	4 245	3 537	3 184	2 894
5	27 997	10 361	8 289	5 599	4 666	4 144	3 768
6	44 230	16 586	13 269	8 846	7 372	6 634	6 031
7	64 013	24 005	19 204	12 802	10 668	9 602	8 729
8	89 615	33 605	26 884	17 923	14 936	13 442	12 220
9	120 275	45 103	36 082	24 055	20 046	18 041	16 401
10	156 277	58 604	46 883	31 255	26 046	23 441	21 310

* F. Schumann.

Useful Memoranda. Hot-Water Heating

MEASUREMENT OF FLOW-PIPES AND RETURN-PIPES

For the purpose of ascertaining the amount of heating-surface in flow-pipes, return-pipes, and risers, the following table is used.

Size of pipe, in	Square feet in one linear foot	Surface of pipe covering ¾-in hair-felt and canvas		Table of quantity of water contained in 100 linear feet of pipe of different diameters	
		Size of pipe, in	Multiply length by	Diameter of pipe, in	Contents in 100 feet in length, gal
¾	0.27	1	0.79	1	4.50
1	0.34	1¼	0.96	1¼	7.75
1¼	0.43	1½	1.04	1½	10.59
1½	0.50	2	1.09	2	17.43
2	0.62	2½	1.20	2½	24.80
2½	0.75	3	1.37	3	38.38
3	0.92	3½	1.49	3½	51.36
3½	1.05	4	1.64	4	66.13
4	1.17	....	....	....	....

To determine the surface, multiply the length of pipe by the figures given in the table, always pointing off two places.

Example. 500 lin ft of 1-in pipe multiplied by 0.34 equals 170 sq ft.

Equalization of Pipe-Areas

R. C. Carpenter

Diam. of pipes, in	Number of small pipes required to make area equivalent to one larger pipe with allowance for friction											
	½ in	¾ in	1 in	1¼ in	1½ in	2 in	2½ in	3 in	3½ in	4 in	4½ in	5 in
½	1	2.0	3.7	7.6	11.3	19.0	37.0	55.0	80.0	108.0	146.0	188.0
¾	...	1	1.8	3.7	5.4	9.2	16.7	25.5	39.0	53.0	70.0	90 0
1	...	...	1	2.0	3.1	5.1	9.3	14.7	27.0	30.0	39.0	53.0
1¼	...	...	...	1	1.5	2.6	4.5	7.3	10.6	14.7	19.5	25.0
1½	...	...	...	...	1	1.7	3.1	4.7	7.1	9.3	13.4	16.8
2	...	...	...	...	...	1	1.83	2.9	4.1	5.8	7.8	9.9
2½	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	1.7	2.5	3.5	4.7	5 9
3	...	...	...	...	...	...	....	1	1.5	2.4	2.7	3.5
3½	...	...	...	...	...	...	....	....	1	1.4	1.8	2.5
4	...	...	...	...	...	...	....	....	....	1	1.3	1.7
4½	...	...	...	...	...	...	....	....	....	....	1	1.25
5	...	...	...	...	...	...	....	....	....	....	....	1

Equalization of Pipe-Areas

Babcock & Wilcox

Diam. of pipes. in*	Number of smaller pipes equivalent to one larger pipe											
	¾ in	1 in	1½ in	2 in	3 in	4 in	5 in	6 in	7 in	8 in	9 in	10 in
½	2.27	4.88	15.8	31.7	96.9	205.0	377.0	620.0	918.0	....	....	....
¾	1	2.05	6.9	14.0	42.5	90.4	166.0	273.0	405.0	569.0	779.0	....
1	...	1	3.5	6.8	20.9	44.1	81.1	133.0	198.0	278 0	380.0	536 0
1½	...	...	1	1.3	6.1	13.0	23.8	39.2	58.1	81.7	112.0	157.0
2	...	...	...	1	3.1	6.5	11.9	19.6	29 0	40.8	55.8	78.5
2½	...	...	...	...	1.8	3.87	7.1	11.7	17.4	24.4	33.4	47.0
3	...	...	...	...	1	2.12	3.9	6.4	9.5	13.3	20.9	23.7
4	...	...	...	...	...	1	1.8	3.0	4.5	6.3	8.6	12.1
5	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	1.6	2.4	3.4	4.7	6 6
6	...	...	...	...	...	...	....	1	1.5	2.1	2.8	4.0
7	...	...	...	...	...	...	....	....	1	1.4	1.9	2.7
8	...	...	...	...	...	...	....	....	....	1	1.3	1.9

* Nominal diameters standard steam-pipes and gas-pipes.

Example. To find the number of 2-in pipes to deliver as much fluid as one 5-in pipe: In the column headed 5, and opposite 2, read 9.9 in upper table and 11.9 in lower table, the equivalent number of 2-in pipes.

Table of Mains and Branches

American Radiator Company

Main	Branch
1 -in will supply	2 .... ¾-in
1¼-in will supply	2 .... 1 -in
1½-in will supply	2 .... 1¼-in
2 -in will supply	2 .... 1½-in
2½-in will supply	2 1½-in and 1 1¼-in, or 1 2 -in and 1 1¼-in
3 -in will supply	1 2½-in and 1 2 -in, or 2 2 -in and 1 1½-in
3½-in will supply	2 2½-in or 1 3 -in, and 1 2 -in or 3 2 -in
4 -in will supply	1 3½-in and 1 2½-in, or 2 3 -in or 4 2 -in
4½-in will supply	1 3½-in and 1 3 -in, or 1 4 -in and 1 2½-in
5 -in will supply	1 4 -in and 1 3 -in, or 1 4½-in and 1 2½-in
6 -in will supply	2 4 -in and 1 3 -in, or 4 3 -in or 10 2 -in
7 -in will supply	1 6 -in and 1 4 -in, or 3 4 -in and 1 2 -in
8 -in will supply	2 6 -in and 1 5 -in, or 5 4 -in and 2 2 -in

Lap-Welded Charcoal-Iron Boiler-Tubes

STANDARD DIMENSIONS

Table of Morris, Trasker & Company, Inc.

External diameter, in	Internal diameter, in	Standard thickness, in	Birmingham wire-gauge, No.	Internal circumference, in	External circumference, in	Internal area		External area		Length of tube per square foot, inside surface,* ft	Length of tube per square foot, outside surface,* ft	Length of tube per square foot, mean surface,* ft	Weight per lineal foot, lb
						sq in	sq ft	sq in	sq ft				
1	0.810	0.095	13	2.545	3.142	0.515	0.0036	0.785	0.0055	4.479	3.820	4.149	0.90
1¼	1.060	0.095	13	3.330	3.927	0.882	0.0061	1.227	0.0085	3.604	3.056	3.330	1.15
1½	1.310	0.095	13	4.115	4.712	1.348	0.0094	1.767	0.0123	2.916	2.547	2.732	1.40
1¾	1.560	0.095	13	4.901	5.498	1.911	0.0133	2.405	0.0167	2.448	2.183	2.316	1.65
2	1.810	0.095	13	5.686	6.283	2.573	0.0179	3.142	0.0218	2.110	1.910	2.010	1.91
2¼	2.060	0.095	13	6.472	7.069	3.333	0.0231	3.976	0.0276	1.854	1.698	1.776	2.16
2½	2.282	0.109	12	7.169	7.854	4.090	0.0284	4.909	0.0341	1.674	1.528	1.601	2.75
2¾	2.532	0.109	12	7.955	8.639	5.035	0.0350	5.940	0.0412	1.508	1.389	1.449	3.04
3	2.782	0.109	12	8.740	9.425	6.079	0.0422	7.069	0.0491	1.373	1.273	1.322	3.33
3¼	3.010	0.120	11	9.456	10.210	7.116	0.0494	8.296	0.0576	1.269	1.175	1.222	3.96
3½	3.260	0.120	11	10.242	10.996	8.347	0.0580	9.621	0.0668	1.172	1.091	1.132	4.28
3¾	3.510	0.120	11	11.027	11.781	9.676	0.0672	11.045	0.0767	1.088	1.019	1.054	4.60
4	3.732	0.134	10	11.724	12.566	10.939	0.0760	12.566	0.0873	1.024	0.955	0.990	5.47
4½	4.232	0.134	10	13.295	14.137	14.066	0.0977	15.904	0.1104	0.903	0.849	0.876	6.17
5	4.704	0.148	9	14.778	15.708	17.379	0.1207	19.635	0.1364	0.812	0.764	0.788	7.58
6	5.670	0.165	8	17.813	18.850	25.250	0.1750	28.274	0.1963	0.674	0.637	0.656	10.16
7	6.670	0.165	8	20.954	21.991	34.942	0.2427	38.485	0.2673	0.573	0.546	0.560	11.90
8	7.670	0.165	8	24.096	25.133	46.204	0.3209	50.266	0.3491	0.498	0.477	0.488	13.65
9	8.640	0.180	7	27.143	28.274	58.630	0.4072	63.617	0.4418	0.442	0.424	0.433	16.76
10	9.594	0.203	6	30.141	31.416	72.292	0.5020	78.540	0.5454	0.398	0.382	0.390	21.00

These tubes are also made in sizes varying by 1 in from 10 to 21 in.

* In estimating the effective steam-heating or boiler-surface of tubes, the surface in contact with air, or gases of combustion (whether internal or external to the tubes), is to be taken.

For heating liquids by steam, superheating steam, or transferring heat from one liquid or one gas to another the mean surface of the tubes is to be taken.

Wrought-Iron Welded Steam, Gas and Water-Pipe, Standard Weight

Table of Standard Dimensions, as Manufactured by National Tube Company and Crane Company

	Diameter			Thickness, in	Circumference		Transverse areas			Length of pipe per square foot		Length of pipe containing one cubic foot, ft	Nominal weight per foot, lb	Number of threads per inch of screw
	Nominal internal, in	Actual external, in	Actual internal, in		External, in	Internal, in	External, sq in	Internal, sq in	Metal, sq in	External surface, ft	Internal surface, ft			
Butt-welded	⅛	0.405	0.27	0.068	1.272	0.848	0.129	0.0573	0.0717	9.44	14.15	2513	0.241	27
	¼	0.54	0.364	0.088	1.696	1.144	0.229	0.1041	0.1249	7.075	10.49	1383.3	0.42	18
	⅜	0.675	0.494	0.091	2.121	1.552	0.358	0.1917	0.1663	5.657	7.73	751.2	0.559	18
	½	0.84	0.623	0.109	2.639	1.957	0.554	0.3048	0.2492	4.547	6.13	472.4	0.837	14
	¾	1.05	0.824	0.113	3.299	2.589	0.866	0.5333	0.3327	3.637	4.635	270.0	1.115	14
	1	1.315	1.048	0.134	4.131	3.292	1.358	0.8626	0.4954	2.904	3.645	166.9	1.668	11½
	1¼	1.66	1.38	0.14	5.215	4.335	2.164	1.496	0.668	2.301	2.768	96.25	2.244	11½
Lap-welded	1½	1.9	1.611	0.145	5.969	5.061	2.835	2.038	0.797	2.01	2.371	70.66	2.678	11½
	2	2.375	2.067	0.154	7.461	6.494	4.43	3.356	1.074	1.608	1.848	42.91	3.609	11½
	2½	2.875	2.468	0.204	9.032	7.753	6.492	4.784	1.708	1.328	1.547	30.1	5.739	8
	3	3.5	3.067	0.217	10.996	9.636	9.621	7.388	2.243	1.091	1.245	19.5	7.536	8
	3½	4.0	3.548	0.226	12.566	11.146	12.566	9.887	2.679	0.955	1.077	14.57	9.001	8
	4	4.5	4.026	0.237	14.137	12.648	15.904	12.73	3.174	0.849	0.949	11.31	10.665	8
	4½	5.0	4.508	0.246	15.708	14.162	19.635	15.961	3.674	0.764	0.848	9.02	12.34	8
	5	5.563	5.045	0.259	17.477	15.849	24.306	19.99	4.316	0.687	0.757	7.2	14.502	8
	6	6.625	6.065	0.28	20.813	19.054	34.472	28.888	5.584	0.577	0.63	4.98	18.762	8
	7	7.625	7.023	0.301	23.955	22.063	45.664	38.738	6.926	0.501	0.544	3.72	23.271	8
	8	8.625	7.982	0.322	27.096	25.076	58.426	50.04	8.386	0.443	0.478	2.88	28.177	8
	9	9.625	8.937	0.344	30.238	28.076	72.76	62.73	10.03	0.397	0.427	2.29	33.701	8
	10	10.75	10.019	0.366	33.772	31.477	90.763	78.839	11.924	0.355	0.382	1.82	40.065	8
	11	11.75	11.000	0.375	36.91	34.55	108.4	95.03	13.37	0.325	0.347	1.51	45.0	8
	12	12.75	12.000	0.375	40.05	37.69	127.6	113.0	14.6	0.299	0.318	1.27	49.0	8

Wrought-Iron Welded Steam, Gas and Water-Pipe, Extra Strong

Table of Standard Dimensions, as Manufactured by National Tube Company and Crane Company

	Diameter			Thickness, in	Circumference		Transverse areas			Length of pipe per square foot		Nominal weight per foot, lb	Number of threads per inch of screw
	Nominal internal, in	Actual external, in	Actual internal, in		External, in	Internal, in	External, sq in	Internal, sq in	Metal, sq in	External surface, ft	Internal surface, ft		
Butt-welded	1/8	0.405	0.205	0.100	1.272	0.644	0.129	0.033	0.096	9.44	18.63	0.29	27
	1/4	0.540	0.294	0.123	1.696	0.924	0.229	0.068	0.161	7.07	12.99	0.54	18
	3/8	0.675	0.421	0.127	2.121	1.323	0.358	0.139	0.219	5.66	9.07	0.74	18
	1/2	0.840	0.542	0.149	2.639	1.703	0.554	0.231	0.323	4.55	7.05	1.09	14
	3/4	1.050	0.736	0.157	3.299	2.312	0.866	0.425	0.441	3.64	5.11	1.39	14
	1	1.315	0.951	0.182	4.131	2.988	1.358	0.710	0.648	2.90	4.02	2.17	11½
	1¼	1.660	1.272	0.194	5.215	3.996	2.164	1.271	0.893	2.30	3.00	3.00	11½
Lap-welded	1½	1.900	1.494	0.203	5.969	4.694	2.835	1.753	1.082	2.01	2.56	3.63	11½
	2	2.375	1.933	0.221	7.461	6.073	4.430	2.935	1.495	1.61	1.97	5.02	11½
	2½	2.875	2.315	0.280	9.032	7.273	6.492	4.209	2.283	1.33	1.65	7.67	8
	3	3.500	2.892	0.304	10.996	9.086	9.621	6.569	3.052	1.09	1.33	10.25	8
	3½	4.000	3.358	0.321	12.566	10.549	12.566	8.856	3.710	0.955	1.14	12.47	8
	4	4.500	3.818	0.341	14.137	11.995	15.904	11.449	4.455	0.849	1.00	14.97	8
	4½	5.000	4.280	0.360	15.708	13.446	19.635	14.387	5.248	0.764	0.893	18.22	8
	5	5.563	4.813	0.375	17.477	15.120	24.306	18.193	6.113	0.687	0.793	20.54	8
	6	6.625	5.751	0.437	20.813	18.067	34.472	25.976	8.496	0.577	0.664	28.58	8
	7	7.625	6.625	0.500	23.955	20.813	45.664	34.472	11.192	0.501	0.598	37.67	8
	8	8.625	7.625	0.500	27.096	23.955	58.426	45.664	12.762	0.443	0.502	43.00	8
	9	9.625	8.625	0.500	30.238	27.096	72.760	58.426	14.334	0.397	0.443	48.25	8
	10	10.750	9.750	0.500	33.772	30.631	90.763	74.662	16.101	0.355	0.399	54.25	8
	12	12.750	11.750	0.500	40.055	36.924	127.68	108.43	19.25	0.299	0.325	65.00	8

Dimensions of Standard Double-Extra-Strong Pipe

Nominal, in	Actual external diameter, in	Actual internal diameter, in	Thickness, in	Metal-area, sq in	Nominal weight per foot, lb
½	0.840	0.244	0.298	0.507	1.7
¾	1.050	0.422	0.314	0.726	2.44
1	1.315	0.587	0.364	1.087	3.65
1¼	1.660	0.885	0.388	1.549	5.2
1½	1.900	1.088	0.406	1.905	6.4
2	2.375	1.491	0.442	2.686	9.02
2½	2.875	1.755	0.560	4.073	13.68
3	3.500	2.284	0.608	5.524	18.56
3½	4.000	2.716	0.642	6.772	22.75
4	4.500	3.136	0.682	8.180	27.48
4½	5.000	3.564	0.718	9.659	32.53
5	5.563	4.063	0.750	11.341	38.12
6	6.625	4.875	0.875	15.807	53.11
7	7.625	5.875	0.875	18.555	62.35
8	8.625	6.875	0.875	21.304	71.62
LAP-WELDED CASING					
8¼	8.625	8.265	0.180	4.775	16.67
8¼	8.625	8.167	0.229	6.040	20.10
8¼	8.625	8.082	0.271	7.125	24.38
8⅝	9	8.640	0.180	4.987	17.60
9⅝	10	9.577	0.211	6.504	21.90
10⅝	11	10.594	0.203	6.886	26.72
11⅝	12	11.594	0.203	7.526	30.35
12½	13	12.457	0.271	10.852	33.78
13½	14	13.432	0.284	12.24	42.02
14½	15	14.416	0.292	13.49	47.66
15½	16	15.416	0.292	14.41	51.47

Smoke-Prevention

Classification of Services. O. H. Landreth, in a report to the state Board of Health of Tennessee, published in Engineering News, June 8, 1893, classifies the great number of smoke-prevention devices which had been invented up to that date as follows:

(1) **Mechanical Stokers.** They effect a material saving in the labor of firing and are efficient smoke-preventers when not pushed above their capacity and when the coal does not cake badly. They are rarely susceptible to the sudden changes in the rate of firing frequently demanded in service.

(2) **Air-Flues** in side walls, bridge-walls and grate-bars, through which air when passing is heated. The results are always beneficial, but the flues are difficult to keep clean and in order.

(3) **Coking-Arches**, or spaces in front of the furnace, arched over, in which the fresh coal is coked, both to prevent cooling of the distilled gases and to force them to pass through the hottest part of the furnace just beyond the arch. The results are good for normal conditions, but ineffective when the fires are forced. The arches, also, are burned out and injured by working the fire.

(4) **Dead Plates,** or parts of the grate next the furnace-doors reserved for warming and coking the coal before it is spread over the grate. These give good results when the furnace is not forced above its normal capacity. This embodies the method of COKE-FIRING mentioned before.

(5) **Down-Draft Furnaces,** or furnaces in which the air is supplied to the coal above the grate and the products of combustion are taken away from beneath the grate, thus causing a downward draft through the coal, carrying the distilled gases down to the highly heated incandescent coal at the bottom of the layer of coal on the grate. This is the most perfect manner of producing combustion and is absolutely smokeless.

(6) **Steam Jets** to draw air in or inject air into the furnace above the grate, and also to mix the air and the combustible gases together. A very efficient smoke-preventer, but one liable to be wasteful of fuel by inducing too rapid a draft.

(7) **Baffle-Plates** placed in the furnace above the fire to aid in mixing the combustible gases with the air.

(8) **Double Furnaces,** of which there are two different styles, neither of which has proved practical.

Among the devices which seem to have proved both practical and effective are those of the Smoke Prevention Company of America and of the American Stoker Company.

Ventilation

Ventilation as applied to a room or building consists in supplying pure air to dilute and drive out that which has become vitiated. Perfect ventilation consists in supplying an adequate amount of fresh air warmed or cooled to a comfortable temperature in such a manner that the circulation shall be constant and thorough in all parts of the room or building and at the same time without the creation of drafts. Ventilation may be broadly classified as NON-SYSTEMATIC and SYSTEMATIC.

Non-systematic Ventilation may be considered as including all ventilation produced without systematic provision for the admission and escape of the fresh air and power for moving the air. All rooms in a building of ordinary construction receive some ventilation whenever the temperature of the room is above or below that of the surrounding air. Pettenkofer found that by diffusion through the walls the air of a room in his house containing 2 650 cu ft was changed once every hour when the difference of exterior temperatures was 34° F. With the same difference of temperature, but with the addition of a good fire in a stove, the change rose to 3 320 cu ft per hour. With all the crevices and openings about doors and windows pasted up air-tight the change amounted to 1 600 cu ft per hour.* Even in the case of direct heating, where no air is purposely supplied for ventilation, there will be a change of air by diffusion of the air in the room which the writer has found practically met by an allowance equal to from one to three changes in the cubic contents per hour. Whenever air is introduced into a room, as by ordinary indirect or hot-air heating, an equal amount of air must be driven from the room, or if air is drawn from a room, as by the draft in a fireplace, an equal amount of air must enter the room. Heating by hot-air furnaces and by indirect steam or hot-water radiation will generally provide sufficient ventilation for private residences, especially if the principal rooms are provided with fireplaces or ventilation-flues.

* Heating and Ventilating Buildings, R. C. Carpenter.

For Systematic Ventilation provision must be made for the admission and expulsion of the air through flues or definite openings and for POWER for moving the air. The power for moving air for ventilating purposes is obtained in two ways: (1) by expansion due to heating, and (2) by a fan operated by an electric motor or by a steam-engine or gas-engine. Systematic ventilation also presupposes an attempt to admit a definite amount of air, and the first step in any system of ventilation would naturally be to decide upon the amount of air required.

Amount of Air Required for Ventilation. Authorities differ greatly on this point, except that for school-buildings it is generally agreed that 30 cu ft of air per minute for each occupant or 1 800 cu ft per hour should be the standard.* For churches the same amount will give very fair ventilation, but for theaters and auditoriums, which are usually more closely packed and occupied for a longer period, the air-supply should be from 2 000 to 2 500 cu ft per sitting per hour. Hospitals require the greatest air-dilution, and for such buildings an air-supply of from 4 000 to 6 000 cu ft per hour for each bed should be provided, depending upon the character of the cases treated, contagious diseases naturally requiring the greater amount. The quantity of air required is sometimes measured by the number of times the air in a room will need to be changed, but to determine this accurately it is necessary to fall back to the supply per person. Thus, if a schoolroom 27 by 32 ft and 13 ft high contains fifty pupils and a teacher, and 1 800 cu ft per hour is required per person, the total air-supply required per hour will be 1 800 multiplied by 51 or 91 800 cu ft. As the cubic capacity of the room is 11 232 cu ft, the air in the room must be changed 8.26 times per hour to supply 30 cu ft of air per minute to each person. It is seldom that the air in a room is changed oftener than four times per hour by natural ventilation.

Velocity of Entering Air. The velocity of the air through the inlet-registers or grilles should not exceed from 4 to 6 ft per second, the general allowance being 5 ft per second when the inlet is 7 ft or more from the floor.

Estimating Quantity of Air. The quantity of air passing through a flue or opening is measured by multiplying the sectional area of the flue, or the net area of opening in square feet, by the velocity. Thus with a velocity of 5 ft per second the quantity of air passing through an unobstructed opening 1 ft square will equal 5 cu ft per second, 300 cu ft per minute, or 18 000 cu ft per hour. Velocities of air are measured by an instrument called an ANEMOMETER.

Location of Inlet and Outlet. W. R. Briggs, of Bridgeport, Conn., some years ago demonstrated quite conclusively that in a rectangular room of moderate size the best results are obtained when the inlet is in an inner wall near the ceiling and the outlet is nearly under the inlet and close to the floor. This is now the general practice in well-designed schoolhouses, and for churches and hospitals when warmed by indirect radiation. For cubical rooms not exceeding 50 ft square the author considers that one inlet is better than several. In the ventilation of theaters the air is sometimes admitted through the ceiling, but more often through the risers of the floor or through specially designed seat-ends.

Size of Flues. The size of the flues both for inlet and outlet is determined by the quantity of air to be moved and its velocity, or

$$\text{sectional area of flue in sq ft} = \frac{\text{quantity of air in cubic feet per minute}}{\text{velocity in feet per minute}}$$

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* This amount is required by law in Massachusetts, Utah, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, etc.

The actual velocity will depend upon the motive power, the length, size, shape and surface of the flue, the number of turns or offsets, and whether the flue is vertical or horizontal, so that after the theoretical size of the flue has been determined, the actual size will oftentimes need to be increased by an amount which must be determined largely by the judgment of the designer. For this reason considerable practical experience with forced hot-air heating and ventilating is required to lay out the system of flues to the best advantage, and the architect when designing such a plant will do well to secure the assistance of an expert. With fan-systems of ventilation the inlet-openings should be of such size that the required amount of air may be introduced with a velocity not exceeding 500 ft per minute when the inlet is 5 ft from the floor or 288 ft per minute when the inlet is in the floor or in the walls near the floor. In figuring the size of ordinary registers the required area should be increased about 50% to allow for the grilles or pattern. With light grilles of $^1/_{16}$ by $^5/_{16}$-in iron an allowance of 10% will ordinarily be sufficient. The velocity of the air in VERTICAL FLUES supplying the inlets should not exceed that through the opening by more than 50%, which gives a velocity in the vertical flues of from 500 to 800 ft per minute. The rate of flow through the connections to the base of the flues should in turn be higher than that through the flues, while the velocity in the main horizontal distributing-ducts should be still higher. "In fact, in schools and churches the plan should be to gradually reduce velocities from the point of leaving the fan to the point of discharge to the rooms. Careful investigation has shown that, everything considered, the velocity in the main horizontal ducts from the fan should not fall below 1 500 ft per minute and preferably 2 000 ft per minute." * The size of vent-flues or eduction-flues when air is forced into the rooms by a fan should be from two-thirds to three-fourths the sectional area of the induction-flues.

Table Showing the Quantity of Air, in Cubic Feet, Discharged per Minute Through a Flue of Which the Cross-Sectional Area is One Square Foot

EXTERNAL TEMPERATURE OF THE AIR, 32° F.; ALLOWANCE FOR FRICTION, 50 PER CENT

Height of flue, in feet	Excess of temperature of air in flue above that of external air							
	10°	15°	20°	25°	30°	50°	100°	150°
1	34	42	48	54	59	76	108	133
5	76	94	109	121	134	167	242	298
10	108	133	153	171	188	242	342	419
15	133	162	188	210	230	297	419	514
20	153	188	217	242	265	342	484	593
25	171	210	242	271	297	383	541	663
30	188	230	265	297	325	419	593	726
35	203	248	286	320	351	453	640	784
40	217	265	306	342	375	484	684	838
45	230	282	325	363	398	514	724	889
50	242	297	342	383	419	541	765	937
60	264	325	373	420	461	594	835	1 006
70	286	351	405	465	497	643	900	1 115
80	306	375	453	485	530	688	965	1 185
90	324	398	460	516	564	727	1 027	1 225
100	342	420	485	534	594	768	1 080	1 325
125	383	468	542	604	662	855	1 210	1 480
150	420	515	596	665	730	942	1 330	1 630

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* Ventilation and Heating. B. F. Sturtevant Company.

Velocity of Air in Vertical Flues Due to Expansion by Heat. The velocity of air in a heated flue is dependent upon the excess of temperature of the air in the flue above that of the room or space into which the flue empties, the height of the flue, the loss by friction and the pressure which must be resisted by the entering air. Thus in a room heated by indirect radiation or a warm-air furnace, if no provision is made for ventilation the heated air must force its way into the room, pushing out an equal volume of air around doors or windows, while if there is a good ventilating flue the movement of air into the warm-air flue is assisted. The table preceding this paragraph, quoted by various writers, shows the velocities* of air that may be expected in vent-flues under the conditions noted. To determine the number of cubic feet of air discharged per HOUR per square foot of cross-section of the flue, multiply the figures in the table by 60. While this table does not strictly apply to flues conveying warm air into a room it is sufficiently accurate for practical purposes. In residence-heating the velocity in flues in feet per minute is likely to be as follows: First story, from 150 to 240; second story, 300; third story, 360; fourth story, 420. Also in usual conditions of residence-heating the temperature of the air in the supply-flues averages about 30° F. above the temperature of the air in the room.

Shape and Material of Air-Ducts. The smoother the surface of a flue the less will be the friction of the air against it and the greater the velocity. Hot-air or warm-air flues should always be made of metal, preferably galvanized iron for flues exceeding 12 in in diameter. Brick flues should be lined with tin or galvanized iron when they convey warm air, not only to reduce the friction but also to lessen the cooling of the air. When brick flues are used for ventilation lining is not so necessary, although it will materially increase the draft. Regarding the shape of the flue or duct, round pipes are the best, and square pipes next best, and rectangular pipes should always be made as nearly square as possible. With indirect or natural systems of ventilation each inlet-register should be supplied by a separate pipe from the heater, and but one pipe should be taken from a steam or hot-water stack. With forced systems of warming and ventilation all of the air from the heater often enters one large main, from which distributing pipes are taken off to supply the risers to the registers. With this system no branches should leave the mains at right-angles, but should branch off at an angle of 45° with easy-radius curves in all cases. No 90° elbow should be made with less than seven pieces or less inside radius than the diameter of the pipe. No 45° elbow should be made of less than four pieces. Each and every branch air-duct to flues should have a damper near the base of the flue, and at every Y in the system there should be placed a regulating damper. All of these dampers and fenders should be adjustable. Upon completion of the system, these dampers should be adjusted by trial so that each register will receive its proportionate supply of air, and should then be SET. All warm-air pipes should be covered with one thickness or several thicknesses of asbestos paper to reduce the loss of heat.

Natural Systems of Heating and Ventilating. All systems in which the air moves upwards, due to the expansion caused by its own heat, are commonly classified as NATURAL SYSTEMS. With such systems the ventilation is sometimes caused by ASPIRATING SHAFTS or large flues, each containing a heater of some sort at its base to increase the temperature of the air in the flue and thus increase the velocity. Except where they can be heated without additional cost, aspirating shafts are not as economical, as a rule, as fans. Buildings containing but one large room can generally be fairly well ventilated by using a heavy galvanized-iron smoke-flue for the furnace or boiler and locating the flue in the center of a large brick chimney, utilizing the space around the flue for ventilation. The heat which escapes from the flue will cause a good draft without additional cost. A draft may also be produced in a vent-flue by means of coils of steam-pipes placed in the flue just above the air-inlet, or a gas-heater may be employed for heating the flue. The draft produced by aspiration is not usually sufficient to draw air any distance through horizontal ducts. Natural systems of ventilation are only effective when used in connection with warming and afford no ventilation in warm weather.

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* The velocity in a flue 1 ft square is considered equal to the quantity of air discharged.

Fan-Systems of Ventilation. Ventilation by means of a fan may be effected by either of two systems: (1) by the PLENUM-SYSTEM, in which the air is forced into the room to be warmed and ventilated, or (2) by the EXHAUST-SYSTEM, in which the air is exhausted from the room.

The Exhaust-System. There are many objections to the adoption of this system, and as a rule it should be avoided when the plenum method can possibly be used. With the exhaust system a partial vacuum is created within the room and all currents and leaks are inward, so that air rushes around doors and windows, forming unpleasant and sometimes dangerous currents of air. The circulation of the air in the room is also less thorough when exhausted than when forced in. The exhaust-system as a rule is used principally for affording ventilation in hot weather or for removing disagreeable odors, dust, etc., for which purpose it is both economical and effective when properly installed.

The Plenum-System, or Hot-Blast System, on the other hand, maintains a slight pressure in the room or rooms ventilated and the leakage is outward instead of inward. By this system the temperature of the air and point of admission are completely under control. For heating and ventilating theaters, hospitals and large schools and churches this is undoubtedly the best system that can be employed, and, with the possible exception of churches, is as economical of fuel and maintenance as an indirect steam-heating plant, while affording superior ventilation and greater comfort. This system has also been applied to office-buildings, factories and buildings used for various purposes. The system may be used in summer as well as in winter, and by providing a cooling-chamber, the air may be cooled to any desired temperature. As ordinarily installed a forced-blast system consists of a heater and fan with flues and ducts for conveying the air to the various apartments as explained on page 1234, and the entire apparatus, with the exception of the vertical flues, is usually located in the basement.

Two systems of ducts are commonly employed, the single-duct and double-duct system. A typical arrangement of the single-duct system is shown in Fig. 36. The fan is located at one side of the fresh-air chamber, so that air is drawn into it at *A* and is forced through the heater into a warm-air chamber from which one large duct with distributing branches is taken off. A by-pass is provided so that a portion of the air passes under the heater without being warmed, and by means of a damper at the mouth of the duct more or less of the cool air may be mixed with the heated air as desired. With this system all of the air conveyed through the ducts is of the same temperature. With the double-duct system the upper duct conveys only warm air and the under duct cool air, and the mixing-damper is placed at the bottom of the riser to each outlet. By this system the temperature of the air to each room may be regulated independently of the others. A modification of the single-duct system is commonly used in heating schools in which a large double chamber is located near the heating-stack, one portion being at all times filled with warm air and the other portion with cool air. From this double chamber a single duct is led to each room, and the connection is made with the chamber in such a way that either all warm or all cool air, or any proportion of both, may be admitted into the duct, the mixing being controlled by a damper operated by a thermostat placed in the room with which the duct connects. This arrangement saves the cost of running two pipes, and when a thermostat regulating-apparatus is used to control the dampers is the most practical system. When there are several rooms to be warmed and a thermostatic regulating-apparatus is not employed, so that the mixing-dampers must be operated by hand, the double-duct system should be employed.

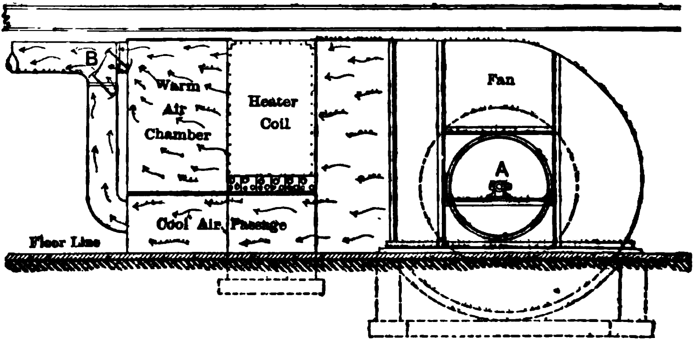

Fig. 36. Type of Single-duct System of Fan-ventilation and Heating

The system shown in Fig. 36 answers very well for warming churches and auditoriums. Fig. 37 shows the Knowles Mushroom Ventilator with cast-iron sleeve. It is especially adapted for concrete floors. It is made with a 4⅝ or a 5-in opening and a 6-in sleeve. When the fan is to be run in warm weather provision should be made so that a volume of air equal to the entire capacity of the fan air may pass around the heater. By the arrangement illustrated in Fig. 36 the fan is placed between the heater and the cold-air chamber and FORCES the air through the heater. The fan may, however, be placed on the other side of the heater so as to PULL the air through it by exhaustion, at the same time forcing the heated air into the ducts. Both arrangements are used, but the former is the one more commonly employed. With the forced-blast systems of warming and ventilating a fresh-air chamber of ample size must be provided adjacent to the fan or heater and communicating with the outside air by a large duct, the opening to which should be located as high above the ground as practical conditions will admit.

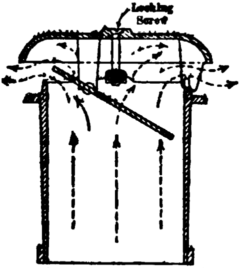

Fig. 37. Mushroom Ventilator with Cast-iron Sleeve. Especially Adapted for Concrete Floors

Forced Blast in Connection with Warm-Air Furnaces. Several schools and churches have been successfully warmed and ventilated by utilising warm-air furnaces of the long tubular pattern to supply the heat and an electric-motor to furnish the power. For churches of moderate size this system would appear to have some advantages, especially in economy, over the steam-systems. A description of such a system with illustrations may be found in Mr. F. E. Kidder's book on Churches and Chapels, page 148.

Fans. Four types* of fans are used in connection with the heating and ventilating of buildings, the DISK-FAN, the STEEL-PLATE BLOWER or PADDLE-WHEEL FAN, the MULTIVANE-FAN and the CONE-FAN. The DISK-FAN receives the air at one side and delivers it at the opposite side, the principal motion of the air being parallel with the axis. This type is only used for exhausting air, and is commonly used for ventilating single rooms in warm weather. Most of the electric-fans used for ventilating kitchens, restaurants, etc., are of this type. The BLOWER OR THE PADDLE-WHEEL FAN are the types commonly used with the forced-blast systems of heating. It is set in a steel casing and is provided with from six to eight blades. The tips of the blades are bent backward with respect to the direction of rotation. The MULTIVANE-FAN is provided with numerous blades with the tips bent forward. This fan has great capacity in proportion to the space occupied. A well-known example of this type is the Sirocco fan made by the American Blower Company, and also the Sturtevant Multivane fan made by the B. F. Sturtevant Company. The CONE-FAN is a special type of the paddle-wheel fan with converging entrance-passages. A fan of high efficiency is made by the Buffalo Forge Company. Fans may be driven from a running countershaft, from an engine directly connected, or from an electric-motor or water-motor. Fans are commonly driven by an electric-motor and this will be found the most convenient power under most conditions. In schools, which are not used much in warm weather, and in buildings where steam is kept up all the year round, a small steam-engine will generally be most economical, especially when the exhaust-steam can be used for heating. All fans make some noise, hence they should be located where they will be heard the least.

Capacity of Fans. The catalogued capacities of all makes of fans are their capacities when running light in the open air, not being attached to any ducts or heating-coils. These capacities will be reduced from 25 to 50% when so attached, depending on the length of the ducts and the method of distribution. In figuring capacity of fans for forcing air through heating-coils and ducts it is customary to call the peripheral velocity of the fan-blades equal to the linear velocity of the air, and to take ONE-HALF of the theoretical delivery as the actual efficiency. The peripheral velocity is obtained by multiplying the revolutions per minute by the circumference of the wheel. Thus a fan 6 ft in diameter running 200 revolutions per minute has a peripheral velocity of 200 × 18.84 = 3 768 ft per minute. Deducting 50% for loss, the actual velocity of the air would be 1 884 ft per minute. The discharge-opening in a fan 6 ft in diameter will have a section-area of at least 11.5 sq ft. Multiplying this area by the working velocity we have 21 666 cu ft per minute as the probable actual discharge of the fan. F. R. Still, of Detroit, who has had extensive engineering experience with forced-blast systems, says that the MAXIMUM LIMIT OF SPEED without serious noise, of a pressure-blower having from six to eight blades, is 2 500 revolutions per minute, and that except in rare cases the blower should run at from 180 to 200 revolutions per minute. The multivane-type of fan is adapted to run at high speeds without noise up to 1 500 revolutions per minute. With a disk-fan, used for ventilation only, the velocity should never exceed 900 ft per minute. As explained above, the actual capacity when connected with a heating and ventilating-system will be reduced from 25 to 50% from the values in the table on this page, while the horse-powers, on the other hand, are probably somewhat in excess of those actually required. For further information on this subject the reader is referred to the catalogues of the various manufacturers of blowers and to R. C. Carpenter's Heating and Ventilating Buildings. The following rule is given by the author for determining the approximate capacity of fans of standard proportions.

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* The types of fans are illustrated in Carpenter's Heating and Ventilating.

Approximate Rule for Determining the Capacity of Fans. The capacity of fans, expressed in cubic feet of air delivered per minute, is equal to the cube of the diameter of the fan-wheel in feet multiplied by the number of revolutions per minute, multiplied by a coefficient having the following approximate value:

For a fan with a single inlet delivering air without pressure, 0.6; delivering air with pressure of 1 in, 0.5; delivering air with pressure of 1 oz, 0.4. For fans with double inlets the coefficient should be increased about 50%. For practical purposes of ventilation the capacity of a fan in cubic feet per revolution will equal 0.4 the cube of the diameter in feet. Expressed as a formula

$$Q = kD^3n$$

in which Q = cubic feet per minute;
D = diameter of fan-wheel in feet;
n = number of revolutions per minute.

Table of Capacity and Power Required for Steel-Plate Blowers of Various Sizes

With Free Inlet and Outlet

Size, in	Diameter of wheel, in	¼-ounce pressure			½-ounce pressure		
		Revolutions	Cubic feet per minute	H.P.	Revolutions	Cubic feet per minute	H.P.
70	42	214	10 336	0.3	312	14 628	1.3
80	48	188	12 584	0.5	265	17 809	1.6
90	54	167	16 150	0.7	236	22 856	2.0
100	60	150	20 723	0.9	212	29 329	2.6
110	66	137	24 548	1.1	193	34 741	3.1
120	72	125	30 165	1.3	177	42 678	3.8
140	74	107	40 465	1.8	152	57 268	5.1
160	96	94	51 344	2.3	133	72 264	6.4

Size, in	Diameter of wheel, in	¾-ounce pressure			1-ounce pressure		
		Revolutions	Cubic feet per minute	H.P.	Revolutions	Cubic feet per minute	H.P.
70	42	377	17 928	1.6	428	20 700	3.7
80	48	325	21 827	2.4	367	25 202	4.5
90	54	289	28 012	3.7	333	32 343	5.7
100	60	260	35 945	4.8	300	41 503	7.4
110	66	236	42 579	5.7	273	49 162	8.8
120	72	217	52 304	7.0	250	60 392	10.7
140	84	186	70 188	9.4	214	81 040	14.4
160	96	163	89 057	11.5	152	102 807	18.3

Power Required for Fans. The efficiency of fans under working conditions averages about 50%. Consequently the actual power required will be double the theoretical. The theoretical power can be expressed by the following formula

$$\text{H.P.} = \frac{Qh'}{6\,347} = \frac{Qo}{3\,665}$$

in which H.P. = theoretical horse-power;
Q = cubic feet of air per minute;
h' = pressure of air in inches of water;
O = pressure of air in ounces per sq inch.

CHIMNEYS*

Object. A chimney is required for two purposes, (1) to create the DRAFT necessary for the proper combustion of the fuel, and (2) to furnish a means of discharging the noxious products of combustion into the atmosphere at such a height from the ground that they may not prove a nuisance to people living in the vicinity of the chimney. A good draft is absolutely essential to the satisfactory and economical working of either a heating or power-plant, and it is poor economy to build too small a stack and thus limit the boiler-capacity. Where the gases of combustion are poisonous, as in the case of smelters, or specially noxious, tall chimneys enhance the value of surrounding property, if in a town, far more than the cost of the chimney, and should be required by law.

Theory of Chimneys.† To produce an effective draft in the furnace a chimney requires SIZE and HEIGHT. Each pound of coal burned yields from 15 to 30 lb of gas, the volume of which varies with the temperature.

The Weight of Gas carried off by a chimney in a given time depends upon three things, size of chimney, velocity of flow and density of gas. The density decreases directly as the absolute temperature, while the velocity depends on the intensity of the draft and the frictional resistances of the stack, breeching, boiler-passes and fuel-bed. In designing a stack it must be made of sufficient height to give the proper available draft above the fire in the furnace-chamber, and to accomplish this for the operating and furnace-conditions which exist at some power-plants, it must often be 250 ft high or over.

The Intensity of Draft at the base of the stack is independent of the size, if the small amount of friction which exists in a well-designed stack is neglected. It will depend upon the difference in weight of the outside and inside columns of air, which varies directly with the product of the height into the difference of temperature. This is usually stated in an equivalent column of water and may vary from 0 to possibly 2 in.

To Find the Maximum Draft for any given chimney the heated column being 612° F. and the external air 62° F., multiply the height above the grate, in feet, by 0.0075. The product is the draft-power in inches of water. The INTENSITY OF DRAFT required varies with the kind and condition of the fuel and the thickness of the fires. Wood requires the least and fine coal or slack the most. To burn anthracite slack to advantage a forced draft of from 1 to

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* The Editor-in-chief has received valuable assistance and data for the revision of this subject from Henry C. Meyer, author of Steam Power-Plants, Their Design and Construction, the Babcock & Wilcox Company, the Alphons Custodis Chimney Construction Company, H. R. Heinicke, The Heine Chimney Company and The M. W. Kellogg Company.

† Babcock & Wilcox Company.

2 in of water is necessary in addition to the chimney-draft. A chimney with CIRCULAR CROSS-SECTIONS is better than one with SQUARE CROSS-SECTIONS and one in which the cross-sectional area is the same throughout its height is better than one in which this area decreases with the height. The cross-sectional area at the top, however, may be either larger or smaller without particular detriment.

Chimneys for Power-Plants

Size of Chimneys for Power-Plants.* The effective AREA OF A CHIMNEY for a given power varies inversely as the square root of the height. The actual area, in practice, should be greater, because of retardation of velocity due to friction against the walls. On the basis that this is equal to a layer of air 2 in thick over the whole interior surface, and that a commercial horse-power requires the consumption of an average of 5 lb of coal per hour, we have the following formulas:

$$E = \frac{0.3\,H}{\sqrt{h}} = A - 0.6\sqrt{A} \tag{1}$$

$$H = 3.33\,E\sqrt{h} \tag{2}$$

$$S = 12\sqrt{E} + 4 \tag{3}$$

$$D = 13.54\sqrt{E} + 4 \tag{4}$$

$$h = \left(\frac{0.3\,H}{E}\right)^2 \tag{5}$$

in which H = horse-power; h = height of chimney in feet; E = effective area and A = actual area in square feet; S = side of square chimney and D = diameter in inches of chimney with circular cross-section. The following table of sizes of chimneys was calculated by means of these formulas.

Sizes of Chimneys with Appropriate Horse-Power Capacities of Boilers

Diameters, in	Effective areas, sq ft	Actual area, sq ft	Height of chimneys											Side of square flue, in
			50 ft	60 ft	70 ft	80 ft	90 ft	100 ft	110 ft	125 ft	150 ft	175 ft	200 ft	
			Commercial horse-power capacities of boiler											
18	0.97	1.77	23	25	27	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	16
21	1.47	2.41	35	38	41	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	19
24	2.08	3.14	49	54	58	62	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	22
27	2.78	3.98	65	72	78	83	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	24
30	3.58	4.91	84	92	100	107	113	...	...	...	...	...	...	27
33	4.48	5.94	...	115	125	133	141	...	...	...	...	...	...	30
36	5.47	7.07	...	141	152	163	173	182	...	...	...	...	...	32
39	6.57	8.30	...	...	183	196	208	219	...	...	...	...	...	35
42	7.76	9.62	...	...	216	231	245	258	271	...	...	...	...	38
48	10.44	12.57	...	...	...	311	330	348	365	389	...	...	...	43
54	13.51	15.90	...	...	...	...	427	449	472	503	551	...	...	48
60	16.98	19.64	...	...	...	...	536	565	593	632	692	748	...	54
66	20.83	23.76	...	...	...	...	...	694	728	776	849	918	981	59
72	25.08	28.27	...	...	...	...	...	835	876	934	1023	1105	1181	64
78	29.73	33.18	...	...	...	...	...	...	1038	1107	1212	1310	1400	70
84	34.76	38.48	...	...	...	...	...	...	1214	1294	1418	1531	1637	75
90	40.19	44.18	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1496	1639	1770	1893	80
96	46.01	50.27	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1876	2027	2167	86

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* These formulas are given by Kent, and are generally accepted as reliable.

Size of Chimneys for House-Heaters. Chimney-flues for heating-apparatus should be ample in size and carried as nearly straight as possible from a point near the cellar-floor to above the highest projection of the roof. They should be independent, having no connection with other flues or openings and always of the same area from top to bottom. A well-jointed tile flue, preferably round, is better than a square brick flue of larger area. The chimney-flue should be carried 3 or 4 ft below the smoke-pipe entrance and provided with a clean-out door at the base, tightly fitted, to facilitate the removal of accumulated dust and soot. The size of flues may be calculated from the following table:

Total cubic contents of building, cu ft	Average of direct radiation, steam, sq ft	Tile flues, standard sizes, square or rectangular, outside dimensions, in	Tile flues, standard sizes, round, inside dimensions, in	Brick flues, inside dimensions, in
10 000 to 20 000	200 to 400	8½ × 8½	8	8 × 8
25 000 to 50 000	450 to 900	8½ × 13	10	8 × 12
60 000 to 100 000	1 000 to 1 600	13 × 13	12	12 × 12
100 000 to 150 000	1 600 to 3 000	18 × 18	16	16 × 16

The above table gives the probable size of brick flues for buildings of various cubic contents. It is approximately correct and may be used in determining the size of a chimney during preliminary operations for the preparation of building-plans; the exact size should be determined after the actual amount of radiation for a building is determined. Indirect radiation should be counted as 50% more than direct radiation and corresponding areas of flues be provided for. The amount of radiation determines the requisite size of boiler, and therefore the area of the flue. No chimney-flue should be less than 8 in in depth, nor of a smaller size than the smoke-pipe from the heater. For a KITCHEN RANGE an 8 by 8-in tile flue will generally answer, but an 8 by 12-in flue is better. For FIREPLACES the sectional area of the flue for burning wood or bituminous coal should be from one-tenth to one-eighth that of the fireplace-opening for a rectangular flue and one-twelfth for a circular flue. For burning anthracite coal the above proportions may be reduced to one-twelfth and one-sixteenth respectively. When practicable, chimneys should extend above the highest surrounding roof, to prevent down-draft caused by eddies. When this is impracticable a revolving chimney-top will often prevent down-drafts. They may also often be avoided by covering the top of the chimney with a stone flag and leaving openings in two parallel sides of the chimney, the sides parallel to the ridge of the adjoining roof or building being closed. The WALLS OF THE FLUE should be as smooth as possible. Tile flue-lining is preferable. Brick flues should be either smoothly plastered on the inside with rich lime mortar or the joints should be filled full and struck with the point of the trowel. If the bricks are laid in cement mortar, the author recommends striking the joints instead of plastering. The walls of attached chimneys with flues not exceeding 8 by 12 in may be 4 in thick for heights of 50 ft. Flues 12 by 12 in and larger should have walls 8 in thick to within 10 ft of the top. Aside from strength or stability, thick walls are preferable to thin walls.

Stability of Chimneys. A general rule for the diameter of the base of brick chimneys standing free, approved by many years of practice in England a the United States, is to make the diameter of the base, or the side of a square chimney one-tenth of the height.

Construction of Brick Chimneys. "For chimneys of 4 ft in diameter and 100 ft high and upwards, the best form is circular with a straight batter on the outside. A circular chimney of this size, in addition to being cheaper than any other form, is lighter, stronger, and looks much better and more shapely. Chimneys of any considerable height are not built up of uniform thickness from top to bottom nor with a uniformly varying thickness of wall, but the wall, heaviest of course at the base, is reduced by a series of steps. All boiler-chimneys of any considerable size should consist of an outer stack of sufficient strength to give stability to the structure and an inner stack or core independent of the outer one. This core is by many engineers extended only to a height of 50 or 60 ft from the base of the chimney, but the better practice is to run it up the whole height of the chimney. It may be stopped off, say, a couple feet below the top and the outer shell contracted to the area of the core, but the better way is to run it up to about 8 or 12 in from the top and not contract the outer shell. But under no circumstances should the core at its upper end be built into or connected with the outer stack. This has been done in several instances by brick-layers, and the result has been the expansion of the inner core, which lifted the top of the outer stack squarely up and cracked the brickwork." ¶

Notwithstanding the above, a number of tall brick chimneys have been built without an interior wall.

Thickness of Walls. The following is considered as a general guide, only, for the thickness of the outer walls of tall chimneys; the whole subject of tall chimneys is quite complicated and for definite results in any particular case the services of an expert engineer must be employed: For the first 25 ft from the top, one brick (8 or 9 in); for the second 25 ft, one and one-half bricks, and so on, increasing one-half brick for each 25 ft from the top downwards. If the inside diameter exceeds 5 ft the top length should be one and one-half bricks, the next, two bricks, etc.; if under 3 ft, the top may be one-half brick for 10 ft. The batter should be not less than 1 in 36 to give stability. The inside core may be 4 in thick for 25 ft from the top, then 8 or 9 in for 50 ft. Two chimneys of the Edison Station, Brooklyn, each 150 ft high, have inner cores 80 ft high and one brick thick for the full height, the first 50 ft being of fire-brick.

Fire-Brick Lining. If a chimney has but one wall it should be lined with fire-brick for at least 30 ft, and if it has an inner core, the latter is usually built of fire-brick for 30 or 50 ft from the bottom. The TOP of tall brick chimneys should be protected by a cast-iron cap, which should be connected by a large copper wire to an electrical ground driven into damp earth.

List of Tall Chimneys

	Height, ft	Diam. inside at top, ft
*Great Falls, Mont., Boston & Montana Consolidated Copper and Silver Mining Co.	506	50
†Freiberg, Saxony, Germany, Halsbrücke Foundry	460	8
Glasgow, Port Dundas, Scotland, F. Townsend	454	..

* Constructed by the Alphons Custodis Chimney Construction Company, New York City.

† Constructed by H. R. Heinicke, Incorporated, New York City.

¶ From The Locomotive, 1884 and 1886.

List of Tall Chimneys (Continued)

	Height, ft	Diam. inside at top, ft
Glasgow, St. Rollox, Scotland, Tenant & Co.	436½	..
Creusot, France, Messrs. Musprath Chemical Works	406	..
Halifax, Dean Clough Mill, Scotland, Messrs. Crossley's	381	..
*Easton, Pa., C. K. Williams & Co.	375	7
Lancashire, Bolton, England, Dobson & Barlow	367	..
*Rochester, N. Y., Eastman Kodak Co. (two chimneys)	366	9 and 13
*Constable Hook, N. J., Orford Copper Co. (two chimneys)	365	10
Boston, Mass., Fall River Iron Co.	350	11
Chicago, Ill.	350	..
*Newark, N. J., Heller & Merz Company	350	8
‡Herculaneum, Mo., St. Joseph Lead Co.	350	20
East Newark, N. J., Clark Thread Co.	335	..
Barmen, Prussia, Germany, Wessenfield & Co.	331	..
Edinburgh, Scotland, Gas-Works	329	..
†Copper Hill, Tenn., Tennessee Copper Co.	325	20
†Indianapolis, Ind., Indianapolis Traction Co.	320	13
Huddersfield, England, Brook & Son, Fire-clay Works	315	..
Smethwick, England, Adams Soap-Works	312	..
*Providence, R. I., Rhode Island Suburban Railway Co.	308	16
*New York City, N. Y., New York Steam Heating Co.	308	15
Carlisle, England, P. Dickon & Son	300	..
Bradford, England, Mitchell Brothers	300	..
*Garfield, Utah, American Smelting and Refining Co.	300	30
*Hayden, Ariz., American Smelting and Refining Co.	300	25
†McGill, Nev., Steptoe Valley Traction Co.	300	15
§Douglas, Ariz., Copper Queen Consolidated Mining Co.	300	22
Greenhithe, Kent., England, J. C. Johnson	297	..
Lowell, Mass., Merrimac Manufacturing Co.	283	..
Dundee, Scotland, Camperdown, Linen Works, Cox Bros.	282	..
Creusot, France, Schneider & Co.	280	..
*New York City, Manhattan Railway Co.	278	17
Darwin, North Lancashire, Darwin & Mostyn Iron Co.	275	..
Pittsburgh, Pa.	275	..
*Philadelphia, Pa., Southern Electric Light and Power Co.	275	18
*Kansas City, Mo., Metropolitan Street Railway Co.	265	16
§Solvay, N. Y., Solvay Process Co.	263	12
Lancashire, Eng., Barrow-in-Furness, Hematite Iron Co.	259	..
Bradford, England, Manningham Mills, Lester & Co.	256½	..
§New York, N. Y., New York Assay Office	256	7½
Manchester, N. H., Amoskeag Manufacturing Co.	255	..
West Cumberland, England, Hematite Iron Works	250	..
Lancaster, England, Story Brothers	250	..
Lawrence, Mass., Washington Mills	250	..
†McGill, Nev., Steptoe Valley Traction Co.	250	13

* Constructed by the Alphons Custodis Chimney Construction Company, New York City.

† Constructed by H. R. Heinicke, Incorporated, New York City.

‡ Constructed by The Heine Chimney Company, Chicago, Ill.

§ Constructed by The M. W. Kellogg Company, New York City.

List of Tall Chimneys (Continued)

	Height, ft	Diam., inside at top, ft
*Kansas City, Mo., Armour Packing Co.	250	14
*Boston, Mass., Edison Electric Illuminating Co.	250	16
*New York City, Jacob Ruppert Ice-Plant	250	10
†Rockford, Del., Jos. Bancroft & Sons	250	14
†Niagara Falls, N. Y., Acker Process Co.	250	10½
§Detroit, Mich., Solvay Process Co.	250	14
§Baptist's Island, P. Q., Wayaganack Pulp and Paper Co.	250	10
Cheshire, England, Connah's Quay Chemical Co.	245	..
*Kansas City, Mo., Consolidated Electric Light and Power Co.	243	10
Bradford, England, Newland's Mill	240	..
*Cleveland, Ohio, Cleveland City Railway Co.	240	15
Boston Navy Yard, Mass.	239	..
†Chicago, Ill., Sears-Roebuck Co.	239	14
Providence, R. I., Narragansett E. L. Co.	238	..
†Dayton, Ohio, National Cash Register Co.	237	14
*Millinocket, Me., Great Northern Paper Co.	235	12
*Weehawken, N. J., N. Y. C. & H. R. R.R. Co.	233	11
Lawrence, Mass., Pacific Mills	233	..
Hardwich, Dovercourt, England, Pattrie & Sons	230	..
†Indianapolis, Ind., Indianapolis Water Co.	230	9
Lowell, Mass., Fremont & Suffolk Co.	225	..
‡Milwaukee, Wis., Pabst Brewing Co.	225	11
‡Wheaton, Ill., Elgin, Aurora and Chicago R.R. Co.	225	11
‡Canton, Ill., Parlin & Orendorff Co.	225	13
†So. Bethlehem, Pa., Didier March Co. (four chimneys)	225	8
†New Orleans, La., American Sugar Refining Co. (three chimneys)	225	12
†Grand Rapids, Mich., Waterworks	225	10
†Lowell, Mass., Hamilton Manufacturing Co.	225	11
*Edgewater, N. J., New York Glucose Co.	225	12
*Washington, D. C., St. Elizabeth's Insane Hospital	225	10
Woolwich Arsenal, England, Shell-Foundry	224	..
Northfleet, England, F. C. Gostling & Co.	220	..
‖Elizabethport, N. J., Plymouth Cordage Co.	220	..
Ivorydale, Ohio, Procter & Gamble	218	..
Lawrence, Mass., The Tower Pacific Mills	215	..
Philadelphia, Pa., The Fidelity Insurance Co.	212	..
Dewsbury, England, Olroyd & Sons	210	..
Lanarkshire, England, Coltness Iron-Works	210	..
Wilmington, Del., City Water-Works	204	..
Philadelphia, Pa., Finley & Schlecter	202	..
Camden, N. J., Highland Mill, S. B. Still & Co.	202	..
Ironton, Ohio, Etna Iron-Works	200	..
Shamokin, Pa., John M. Sharpless & Co.	200	..

* Constructed by the Alphons Custodis Chimney Construction Company, New York City.

† Constructed by H. R. Heinicke, Incorporated, New York City.

‡ Constructed by the Heine Chimney Company, Chicago, Ill.

§ Constructed by The M. W. Kellogg Company, New York City.

‖ Reinforced concrete.

List of Tall Chimneys (Continued)

	Height, ft	Diam, inside at top, ft
Duluth, Minn., Hartman General Electric Co.	200	..
Passaic, N. J., Passaic Print-Works	200	..
‡Minneapolis, Minn., General Electric Co.	200	13½
‡Kalamazoo, Mich., Bryant Paper Co.	200	10
‡Chicago, Ill., United States Brewing Co.	200	8
‡Butler, Pa., Forged Steel Wheel Co	200	12
‡Cedar Rapids, Ia., Sinclair & Co., Ltd.	200	10
‡Detroit, Mich., Packard Motor Car Co.	200	12
‡Robey, Ind., Western Glucose Co.	200	10
†South Bethlehem, Pa., Didier March Co.	200	10
Creusot, France, Schneider & Co.	197	..
East Newark, N. J., Clark's Thread-Mill	192	..
Cleveland, Ohio, Ohio Rolling Mill Co.	190	..
Nottingham, England, Stanton Iron Co.	190	..
Deepear, Sheffield, England, Fox & Co.	186	..
Philadelphia, Pa., John Lang Paper-Mills	181	..
Bayonne, N. J., Lombard, Ayres & Co. Oil Refinery	180	..
Winnipeg, Man., Winnipeg Agricultural College	150	6

† Constructed by H. R. Heinicke, Incorporated, New York City.
‡ Constructed by The Heine Chimney Company, Chicago, Ill.

Radial-Brick Chimneys. These chimneys are built with special blocks formed to suit the circular and radial lines of each section of the chimney so that the finished brickwork has joints of an even thickness throughout and a perfectly smooth surface. The blocks being much larger than common bricks, there are only from one-third to one-half as many joints. Radial-brick chimneys are always circular in plan above the base. The best form of base is octagonal in cross-section so as to permit the breeching to enter the chimney at a flat surface and at the same time comply best with the rules of stability. Except for chemical-works, refineries, furnaces, etc., radial-brick chimneys are built with a single shell, a lining only being provided in the immediate vicinity of the flue-entrance. All radial bricks are perforated vertically and this insures thorough burning and allows the mortar to enter the perforations, thus forming a vertical anchorage.

Radial blocks for chimney-construction have been used extensively in England, Germany, France and Russia since 1870. They were not introduced into this country, however, until 1898. About forty-five years ago (1869 or 1870) Alphons Custodis, of Düsseldorf, Germany, originated a method of building tall chimneys of perforated radial blocks, made from selected clays and burned at a very high temperature, and in 1898 an American company* was formed for the purpose of erecting chimneys by this method of construction. Since that time the company through various agencies has built more than six thousand chimneys in all parts of the world. The tallest and largest chimney in the world (1913), 506 ft high and 50 ft in internal diameter at the top, was built by this company in 1907 for the Boston & Montana Consolidated Copper and Silver Mining Company, at Great Falls, Mont.

Mr. H. R. Heinicke,† of Chemnitz, Germany, builder of the 460-ft stack at

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* Alphons Custodis Chimney Construction Company, New York City.

† H. R. Heinicke, Incorporated, New York City.

Halsbrücke, Germany, has employed radial bricks made especially for each chimney. This firm has erected (up to 1911) over 350 000 ft of chimneys of various diameters in all parts of the world, and through long and costly research has done much to make chimney-building a science. The chimney at Halsbrücke is a very remarkable one on account of its proportions. In a height of 460 ft, the diameter at the top is only 8 ft, whereas the 506-ft stack at Great Falls, Mont., has a diameter of 50 ft at the top.

The Heine Chimney Company* has erected many important high chimneys. The essential difference in the methods of construction used by this company from those of the other chimney-constructors is that the Heine Chimney Company uses perforated, INTERLOCKING, radial bricks. It is claimed that this interlocking-feature has an advantage over the straight-sided bricks in acting as a preventive of deep weathering of the joints and of air-leaks. In addition to this it is claimed that the circumferential strength of the walls when built of this type of bricks is considerably greater than when built with plain-sided or corrugated bricks. The perforations in these bricks are fewer but larger than those of some of the other constructors. The brickwork is laid on full-mortar beds with SHOVED joints. These large perforations allow the mortar to rise in them thus forming PINS which give the walls great strength and enable them to withstand the stresses due to expansion caused by the high temperature of the flue-gases. In walls more than one brick thick, the bricks are laid up in English bond, that is, with alternate header and stretcher-courses. This company advocates this method of construction even in chimneys built with the ordinary straight-sided common building-bricks. Among the many important chimneys constructed by the Heine Chimney Company is the one erected at the St. Joseph Lead Company's plant, at Herculaneum, Mo. The height of this chimney is 350 ft and the inside diameter at the top 20 ft. (See page 1626.)

The W. M. Kellogg Company † has designed and built many radial-brick chimneys for power-plants, chemical-works and other purposes. Several of the important chimneys put up by them are mentioned in the list of tall chimneys already given. Some of the details of construction differ from those of the other companies mentioned. One of the points of difference is the detail relating to the corrugations on their bricks. These corrugations are ⅜ in wide and ¼ in deep and are placed along the vertical sides of the bricks as they lie in the wall. The adhesion between the bricks and mortar is increased by this increased area. It is claimed that tests made show that this is the case. On account of these corrugations it is not considered necessary to embed any ironwork in these chimneys to prevent the development of cracks due to heat-expansion. Ironwork has sometimes been inserted when plain-sided bricks have been used. It is claimed that this design is somewhat heavier than that employed by some other constructors, this company holding that it is not safe to figure on wind-pressure of less than 25 lb per sq ft of projected area. Among the many tall chimneys erected by this company may be mentioned especially the chimney at Douglas, Ariz., erected for the Copper Queen Consolidated Mining Company.

Reinforced-Concrete Chimneys. Chimneys constructed of reinforced concrete came into quite extensive use in the United States about 1901 although some were built before that time. There are now (1914) several hundreds of them in use. While the methods used in their construction have improved greatly in later years those used at first were not very satisfactory and results prove that many of those first built were not properly constructed. In some instances, no doubt, efforts toward speed and economy reduced the quality of the work. There seems to be no reason why a tall chimney cannot be built properly of well-graded and properly-handled concrete, but the old methods of building chimneys of dry mortar with forms which have to be removed every day led to trouble in the past.

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* The Heine Chimney Company, Chicago, Ill.

† The W. M. Kellogg Company, New York City.

Cases have been noted where concrete chimneys have been taken down and where it was found that there was insufficient adhesion between the concrete and the steel reinforcement. It is claimed by some that the ordinary boiler-temperatures in chimneys tend to destroy the life of the concrete and in time to weaken the structures.

In regard to the general construction of reinforced-concrete chimneys:

(1) There is an outer main shell, a lining or inner shell and the base.

(2) The thickness of the outer shell varies from 4 to 6 in at the top and from 8 to 12 in at the bottom, the height and diameter of the structure affecting these details.

(3) The thickness of the inner shell is usually 4 in and the material used is fire-brick or concrete, the former having greater resistance to very high temperatures.

(4) The reinforcement usually consists of ½-in rods set from 1 to 2 ft on centers and placed vertically.

(5) It is well to extend the lining up at least one-half the height in order to prevent cracking.

(6) The resistance to wind-pressure is taken care of by the outer main shell which is designed to resist also the temperature-stresses due to the difference in temperatures of the interior and exterior of the chimney.

(7) As in all chimneys, the area of the base of the chimney is designed to resist the greatest pressure on the earth or foundation-bed caused by the dead load of the chimney itself and the increased vertical pressure due to the wind, and in the calculations for the resistance of the structure to wind-pressures engineers assume from 25 to 50 lb per sq ft on the projected area. The latter pressure, however, probably exceeds any ever exerted against a structure of this kind.

(8) Experiments which have been made on the effect of winds of high velocity against flat surfaces seem to indicate that a pressure of about 20 or 25 lb per sq ft are actually safe theoretical maximums.

Self-sustaining Steel Chimneys are largely used, especially for tall chimneys of iron-works and power-houses from 150 to 300 ft in height.

"The advantages claimed are: Greater strength and safety; smaller space required; smaller cost by 30 to 50% as compared with brick chimneys; avoidance of infiltration of air and consequent checking of the draught, common in brick chimneys. They are usually made cylindrical in shape, with a wide curved flare for 10 to 25 ft at the bottom. A heavy cast-iron base plate is provided, to which the chimney is riveted, and the plate is secured to a massive foundation by holding-down bolts. No guys are used." *

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* Mechanical Engineers' Pocket-Book, William Kent.

Sizes of Foundations for Self-sustaining Steel Chimneys, Half-lined*

Diam., clear, in feet	3	4	5	6	7	9	11
	ft in	ft in	ft in	ft in	ft in	ft in	ft in
Height	100	100	150	150	150	175	225
Least diam. of foundation	15 9	15 3	20 4	21 10	22 7	25 9	29 11
Least depth of foundation	6 6	7	9	8	9	10	13
Height	....	125	200	200	250	275	300
Least diam. of foundation	....	17 6	23 8	25 0	29 8	33 6	36 0
Least depth of foundation	....	7 6	10	10	12	12	14

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* These dimensions were taken from a pamphlet published by the Philadelphia Engineering Works.

HYDRAULICS, PLUMBING AND DRAINAGE, ILLUMINATING-GAS AND GAS-PIPING

By

J. J. COSGROVE

CONSULTING SANITARY ENGINEER

(1) HYDRAULICS

Water is practically an incompressible liquid, weighing, at the average temperature of 62° F., 62.355 lb to the cu ft and 8.335 lb to the gallon. These figures change slightly with changes in temperature and atmospheric pressure, and a slight variation for the same temperature will be found in different works.

Pressure of Water. The pressure of still water in pounds per square inch against the sides of any pipe or vessel of any shape whatever is due alone to the HEAD, or height of the surface of the water above the point considered pressed upon, and is equal to 0.433 lb per sq in for every foot of head at 62° F. The fluid-pressure per square inch is equal in all directions. To find the total pressure of quiet water against and perpendicular to any surface, whether vertical, horizontal, or inclined at any angle, whether it be flat or curved, multiply together the area in square feet of the surface pressed, the vertical depth of its center of gravity below the surface of the water, and the constant 62.4. The product will be the required pressure in pounds. This may be expressed by formula as follows:

$$P = 62.4 AD$$

in which

P = the pressure in pounds of quiescent water on the surface considered;
A = the area pressed upon in square feet; and
D = the vertical depth in feet of center of gravity of surface considered.

Table A. Pressure in Pounds per Square Inch for Different Heads of Water in Feet

Head, ft	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	....	0.433	0.866	1.299	1.732	2.165	2.598	3.031	3.464	3.897
10	4.330	4.763	5.196	5.629	6.062	6.495	6.928	7.361	7.794	8.227
20	8.660	9.093	9.526	9.959	10.392	10.825	11.258	11.691	12.124	12.557
30	12.990	13.423	13.856	14.289	14.722	15.155	15.588	16.021	16.454	16.887
40	17.320	17.753	18.186	18.619	19.052	19.485	19.918	20.351	20.784	21.217
50	21.650	22.083	22.516	22.949	23.382	23.815	24.248	24.681	25.114	25.547
60	25.980	26.413	26.846	27.279	27.712	28.145	28.578	29.011	29.444	29.877
70	30.310	30.743	31.176	31.609	32.042	32.475	32.908	33.341	33.774	34.207
80	34.640	35.073	35.506	35.939	36.372	36.805	37.238	37.671	38.104	38.537
90	38.970	39.403	39.836	40.269	40.702	41.135	41.568	42.001	42.436	42.867

The pressure for greater heads can be readily found by multiplication or addition; thus, the pressure for a head of 110 ft is ten times that for 11 ft. The pressure for 118 ft is equal to the pressure for 110 ft plus that for 8 ft.

Flow of Water in Pipes. Owing to the many practical and variable conditions which affect the flow of water in pipes, such as the smoothness of the pipe, number and character of the joints, bends and valves in the pipe, to say nothing of the size and length of the pipe, all formulas for the velocity and discharge of water in and through pipes can only be considered as approximate. The following formulas and data are taken largely from the National Tube Company's Book of Standards, 1902 edition. They agree fairly well with similar tables by Kent and Trautwine, both of whom devote much space to this subject. The QUANTITY OF WATER passing through a given pipe is governed by the sectional area of the pipe or outlet and the mean VELOCITY. The velocity depends primarily upon the PRESSURE or HEAD, and is greatly affected by FRICTION, which again varies with the smoothness of the bore, the diameter and length of the pipe, and whatever obstructions there may be in the pipe. The HEAD is the vertical distance from the surface of the water in the reservoir to the center of gravity of the lower end of the pipe when the discharge is into the air, or to the level surface of the lower reservoir when the discharge is under water. When the pressure is produced by mechanical means, the head of water in feet may be readily determined by the following table:

Table B.[*] For Converting Pressure in Pounds per Square Inch into Head of Water in Feet

Pressure	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	......	2.309	4.619	6.928	9.238	11.547	13.857	16.166	18.476	20.785
10	23.0947	25.404	27.714	30.023	32.333	34.642	36 952	39.261	41.570	43.880
20	46.1894	48.499	50.808	53.118	55.427	57.737	60.046	62.356	64.665	66.975
30	69.2841	71.594	73.903	76.213	78.522	80.831	83.141	85.450	87.760	90.069
40	92.3788	94.688	96.998	99.307	101.62	103.93	106.24	108.55	110.85	113.16
50	115.4735	117.78	120.09	122.40	124.71	126.02	129.33	131.64	133.95	136.26
60	138.5682	140.88	143.19	145.50	147.81	150.12	152.42	154.73	157.04	159.35
70	161.6629	163.97	166.28	168.59	170.90	173.21	175.52	177.83	180.14	182.45
80	184.7576	187.07	189.38	191.69	194.00	196.31	198.61	200.92	203.23	205.54
90	207.8523	210.16	212.47	214.78	217.09	219.40	221.71	224.02	226.33	228.64

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[*] Tables A and B are exact for water at 62° F. and for atmospheric pressure at 14.7 lb per sq in.

To find the velocity of water discharged from a pipe-line longer than four times its diameter, knowing the head, length and inside diameter, use the following formula:

$$v = m\sqrt{\frac{hd}{L + 54\,d}}$$

in which

v = approximate mean velocity in feet per second;
m = coefficient from the table below;
d = diameter of pipe in feet;
h = total head in feet;
L = total length of line in feet.

The following coefficients are averages deduced from a large number of experiments. In most cases of pipes carefully laid and in fair condition, they should give results varying not more than from 5 to 10%.

Values of Coefficient m

$\sqrt{\dfrac{hd}{L+54d}}$	Diameter of pipe in feet							
	0.05	0.10	0.50	1	1.5	2	3	4
	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
0.005	29	31	33	35	37	40	44	47
0.01	34	35	37	39	42	45	49	53
0.02	39	40	42	45	49	52	56	59
0.03	41	43	47	50	54	57	60	63
0.05	44	47	52	54	56	60	64	67
0.10	47	50	54	56	58	62	66	70
0.20	48	51	55	58	60	64	67	70

Example. Given the head, $h = 50$ ft; the length, $L = 5\,280$ ft and the diameter, $d = 2$ ft; to find the velocity and quantity of discharge.

Substituting these values in the foregoing formula, we get

$$\sqrt{\frac{d \times h}{L + 54d}} = \sqrt{\frac{2 \times 50}{5\,280 + 108}} = \sqrt{\frac{100}{5\,388}} = 0.136$$

In column headed $\sqrt{\dfrac{hd}{L + 54d}}$ find 0.10, which is the value nearest to 0.136, and look along this line until column headed 2 is reached; then read 62 as the value of coefficient m.

Then $v = 62 \times 0.136 = 8.432$ ft per sec, the velocity required.

To find the discharge in cubic feet per second, multiply this velocity by area of cross-section of pipe in square feet.

Thus, $3.1416 \times (1)^2 \times 8.432 = 26.49$ cu ft per sec.

Since there are 7.48 gal in a cubic foot, the discharge in gallons per second = $26.49 \times 7.48 = 198.2$.

The above formula is only an approximation, since the flow is modified by bends, joints, incrustations, etc.

To find the head in feet necessary to give a stated discharge in cubic feet, use the formula

$$h = \frac{0.000704\, Q^2\, (L + 54d)}{d^5}$$

in which

h = total head in feet;
L = total length of line in feet;
d = diameter of pipe in feet;
Q = quantity of water in cu ft per second.

Example. Given the diameter of pipe, $d = 0.5$ ft; the length of pipe, $L = 20$ ft; and the quantity of water to be discharged, $q = 3.07$ cu ft per sec; to find the necessary head.

Substituting these values in the above formula, we get

$$h = \frac{0.000704 \times 9.4 \times (20 + 27)}{(0.5)^5}$$

$$= \frac{0.000704 \times 9.4 \times 47}{0.03125} = 9.95 \text{ ft, the required head.}$$

The following formula is simpler and can be used when 54 d in relation to L is so small as to be negligible:

$$h = \frac{0.000704\,Q^2 \times L}{d^5}$$

If the pipe instead of being straight has easy curves (say with radius not less than five diameters of the pipe) either horizontal or vertical, the discharge will not be materially diminished so long as the total heads and total actual lengths of pipe remain the same, but it is advisable to make the radius as much more than five diameters as can conveniently be done.

To find the diameter of a pipe of given length to deliver a given quantity of water under a given head use the following,

$$d = 0.234\sqrt[5]{\frac{Q^2L}{h}}$$

in which

d = diameter of pipe in feet;
Q = cubic feet per second delivered;
L = length of line in feet;
h = head in feet.

Example. Given the head, $h = 700$ ft; the length of pipe, $L = 3\,000$ ft; the quantity to be delivered, $Q = 4$ cu ft per sec; required the diameter of pipe necessary.

Substituting these values in the foregoing formula, we get :

$$d = 0.234\sqrt[5]{\frac{16 \times 3\,000}{700}} = 0.234\sqrt[5]{68.57} = 0.545 \text{ ft} = 6.54 \text{ in}$$

To find the diameter of pipe required to deliver a given quantity of water with a given head.

Rule. (1) Reduce the head to feet per 100 ft; (2) from Table C, page 1299, find the discharge for the head thus obtained through a pipe 1 ft in diameter; (3) divide the required discharge by that obtained from Table C; look for the quotient in the column of Table D, page 1300, headed Ratio of Discharge, etc., and opposite it, in the adjoining columns of the table, will be found the required diameter.

Note. The use of Tables C and D gives results sufficiently correct for pipes less than 700 diameters in length.

Example. If the head of water from a reservoir to the point of delivery is 20 ft in a distance of 1 860 ft, what is the diameter of a pipe required to deliver 6 cu ft of water per second?

20 ft head in 1 860 ft = 20/18.60 ft in 100 ft, or 1.075 ft in 100

From Table C we find that the discharge per second with a head of 1.136 is 3.989 cu ft; for a head of 1.075 it would be about 3.8 cu ft. Dividing the required discharge 6, by 3.8 cu ft per sec, we have 1.58. From Table D the diameter of pipe having a ratio of discharge equal to 1.58 is found to be about 14½ in; therefore we must use a 15-in pipe to obtain the required discharge. If the required discharge is in gallons, divide by 7.5 to reduce to cubic feet. If in cubic feet per minute, divide by 60 to reduce to feet per second.

Table C. Velocities and Discharges Through a Straight, Smooth Pipe One Foot in Diameter and One Mile, or 5 280 Diameters, in Length

Head in feet per 100 ft	Head in feet per mile	Velocity in feet per sec	Discharge in cubic feet per sec	Discharge in cubic feet per 24 hours
0.0568	3	1.13	0.8914	76 982
0.0758	4	1.31	1.028	88 862
0.0947	5	1.47	1.150	99 403
0.1136	6	1.61	1.264	109 209
0.1325	7	1.74	1.366	118 022
0.1514	8	1.86	1.455	125 740
0.1703	9	1.96	1.539	132 969
0.1894	10	2.08	1.633	141 145
0.2273	12	2.27	1.782	153 964
0.2652	14	2.45	1.924	166 233
0.3030	16	2.62	2.057	177 724
0.3409	18	2.78	2.183	188 611
0.3788	20	2.93	2.301	198 806
0.4735	25	3.28	2.572	222 156
0.5682	30	3.59	2.819	243 604
0.6629	35	3.88	3.047	263 260
0.7576	40	4.15	3.267	282 288
0.8523	45	4.40	3.451	298 209
0.9470	50	4.64	3.638	314 352
1.136	60	5.08	3.989	344 649
1.326	70	5.49	4.311	372 470
1.515	80	5.85	4.602	397 613
1.704	90	6.23	4.900	423 435
1.894	100	6.56	5.144	444 312
2.083	110	6.87	5.395	466 128
2.272	120	7.18	5.639	487 209
2.462	130	7.47	5.866	506 822
2.652	140	7.76	6.094	526 521
2.841	150	8.05	6.322	546 048
3.030	160	8.30	6.534	564 576
3.219	170	8.55	6.718	580 176
3.408	180	8.80	6.903	596 418
3.596	190	9.04	7.100	613 440
3.788	200	9.28	7.276	628 704
4.261	225	9.84	7.696	664 848
4.735	250	10.4	8.168	705 728
5.208	275	10.8	8.482	732 844
5.682	300	11.3	8.914	769 824
6.629	350	12.3	9.621	831 168
7.576	400	13.1	10.28	888 624
8.532	450	13.9	10.91	943 056
9.47	500	14.7	11.50	994 032
10.41	550	15.4	12.09	1 044 576
11.36	600	16.1	12.64	1 092 096
12.30	650	16.7	13.11	1 132 704
13.25	700	17.4	13.66	1 180 224
14.20	750	18.0	14.13	1 220 832
15.15	800	18.6	14.55	1 257 408
16.09	850	19.1	15.00	1 296 000
17.04	900	19.6	15.39	1 329 696
17.99	950	20.3	15.94	1 377 216
18.94	1 000	20.8	16.33	1 411 456
22.73	1 200	22.7	17.82	1 539 648
26.52	1 400	24.5	19.24	1 662 336
30.30	1 600	26.2	20.57	1 777 248
34.08	1 800	27.8	21.83	1 886 112
37.87	2 000	29.3	23.01	1 988 064
47.35	2 500	32.8	25.72	2 221 560
56.81	3 000	35.9	28.19	2 436 040

Table D. Diameters of Pipes and Ratio of Discharge

Diameter of pipe, in	Diameter of pipe, ft	Ratio of discharge to that through a 1-ft pipe with the same head per mile	Diameter of pipe, in	Diameter of pipe, ft	Ratio of discharge to that through a 1-ft pipe with the same head per mile
1	0.0833	0.0020	12½	1.042	1.106
1½	0.1250	0.0055	13	1.083	1.221
2	0.1667	0.0113	14	1.167	1.470
2½	0.2083	0.0198	15	1.250	1.746
3	0.2500	0.0310	16	1.333	2.053
3½	0.2917	0.0458	17	1.417	2.388
4	0.3333	0.0643	18	1.5	2.754
4½	0.3750	0.0857	19	1.583	3.153
5	0.4167	0.1119	20	1.667	3.585
5½	0.4583	0.1422	21	1.75	4.051
6	0.5	0.1767	22	1.833	4.551
6½	0.5417	0.2159	23	1.917	5.084
7	0.5833	0.2600	24	2	5.649
7½	0.6250	0.3090	24⅝	2.052	6.000
8	0.6667	0.3631	26	2.167	6.912
8½	0.7083	0.4220	28	2.333	8.319
9	0.75	0.4871	30	2.5	9.822
9½	0.7917	0.5575	30¼	2.521	10.0
10	0.8333	0.6337	32	2.667	11.6
10½	0.8750	0.7157	34	2.833	13.5
11	0.9167	0.8044	36	3	15.5
11½	0.9583	0.8987	38	3.167	17.8
12	1	1	40	3.333	20.2

This table shows, also, the relative discharging capacities of long pipes. Thus, one 12-in pipe is equal to two 9-in pipes, to nearly six 6-in pipes, or to thirty-three 3-in pipes.

Table E. Flow of Water in House Service-Pipes

Thomson Meter Company

To find the discharge in gallons, multiply by 7.47

Condition of discharge	Pressure in main, lb per sq in	Discharge in cubic feet per minute from the pipe								
		Nominal diameters of iron or lead service-pipe in inches								
		½	⅝	¾	1	1½	2	3	4	6
Through 35 ft of service-pipe; no back-pressure	30	1.10	1.92	3.01	6.13	16.58	33.34	88.16	173.85	444.63
	40	1.27	2.22	3.48	7.08	19.14	38.50	101.80	200.75	513.42
	50	1.42	2.48	3.89	7.92	21.40	43.04	113.82	224.44	574.02
	60	1.56	2.71	4.26	8.67	23.44	47.15	124.68	245.87	628.81
	75	1.74	3.03	4.77	9.70	26.21	52.71	139.39	274.89	703.03
	100	2.01	3.50	5.50	11.20	30.27	60.87	160.96	317.41	811.79
	130	2.29	3.99	6.28	12.77	34.51	69.40	183.52	361.91	925.58
Through 100 ft of service-pipe; no back-pressure	30	0.66	1.16	1.84	3.78	10.40	21.30	58.19	118.13	317.23
	40	0.77	1.34	2.12	4.36	12.01	24.59	67.19	136.41	366.30
	50	0.86	1.50	2.37	4.88	13.43	27.50	75.13	152.51	409.54
	60	0.94	1.65	2.60	5.34	14.71	30.12	82.30	167.06	448.63
	75	1.05	1.84	2.91	5.97	16.45	33.68	92.01	186.78	501.58
	100	1.22	2.13	3.36	6.90	18.99	38.89	106.24	215.68	579.18
	130	1.39	2.42	3.83	7.86	21.66	44.34	121.14	245.91	660.36
Through 100 ft of service-pipe and 15-ft vertical rise	30	0.55	0.96	1.52	3.11	8.57	17.55	47.90	97.17	260.56
	40	0.66	1.15	1.81	3.72	10.24	20.95	57.20	116.01	311.09
	50	0.75	1.31	2.06	4.24	11.67	23.87	65.18	132.20	354.49
	60	0.83	1.45	2.29	4.70	12.94	26.48	72.28	146.61	393.13
	75	0.94	1.64	2.59	5.32	14.64	29.96	81.79	165.90	444.85
	100	1.10	1.92	3.02	6.21	17.10	35.00	95.55	193.82	519.72
	130	1.26	2.20	3.48	7.14	19.66	40.23	109.82	222.75	597.31
Through 100 ft of service-pipe and 30-ft vertical rise	30	0.44	0.77	1.22	2.50	6.80	14.11	38.63	78.54	211.54
	40	0.55	0.97	1.53	3.15	8.68	17.79	48.68	98.98	266.59
	50	0.65	1.14	1.79	3.69	10.16	20.82	56.98	115.87	312.08
	60	0.73	1.28	2.02	4.15	11.45	23.47	64.22	130.59	351.73
	75	0.84	1.47	2.32	4.77	13.15	26.95	73.76	149.99	403.98
	100	1.00	1.74	2.75	5.65	15.58	31.93	87.38	177.67	478.55
	130	1.15	2.02	3.19	6.55	18.07	37.02	101.33	206.04	554.96

Table E may also be used when the pressure is in feet-head of water by reducing the head in feet to pounds per square inch by Table A. Thus, if we wish the discharge per minute through a ¾-in pipe 100 ft long with a head of 70 ft, we find from Table A that a head of 70 ft corresponds to a pressure of 30 lb per sq in, and from Table E we find the discharge through a ¾-in pipe 100 ft long with a pressure of 30 lb to be 1.84 cu ft per minute.

Table F. Friction of Water in Pipes Based on Ellis and Howland's Experiments

The following table gives the friction-loss in pounds-pressure per square inch for EACH 100 ft of length in clean iron pipes of different sizes, discharging given quantities of water per minute. This friction-loss is greatly increased by bends or irregularities in the pipe.

To find the friction-head in feet, multiply by 2.3

Gallons per minute	Sizes of pipes, inside diameter							
	¾ in	1 in	1¼ in	1½ in	2 in	2½ in	3 in	4 in
5	3.3	0.84	0.31	0.12	......	......	......	......
10	13.0	3.16	1.05	0.47	0.12	......	......	......
15	28.7	6.98	2.38	0.97	0.26	......	......	......
20	50.4	12.3	4.07	1.66	0.42	......	......	......
25	78.8	19.0	6.40	2.62	0.64	0.21	0.10	0.27
30	......	27.5	9.15	3.75	0.91	......	......	......
35	......	37.0	12.4	5.05	1.22	......	......	......
40	......	48.0	16.1	6.52	1.60	......	0.20	......
45	......	......	20.2	8.15	2.02	......	......	......
50	......	......	24.9	10.0	2.44	0.81	0.35	0.09
75	......	......	56.1	22.4	5.32	1.80	0.74	0.23
100	......	......	......	39.0	9.46	3.20	1.31	0.33
125	......	......	......	......	14.9	4.89	1.99	0.49
150	......	......	......	......	21.2	7.00	2.85	0.69
175	......	......	......	......	28.1	9.46	3.85	0.94
200	......	......	......	......	37.8	12.47	5.02	1.22
250	......	......	......	......	......	19.66	7.76	1.89
300	......	......	......	......	......	28.06	11.2	2.66
350	......	......	......	......	......	......	15.2	3.65
400	......	......	......	......	......	......	19.5	4.73
450	......	......	......	......	......	......	25.0	6.01
500	......	......	......	......	......	......	30.8	7.43
600	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	9.54
700	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	14.32

Water-Pipe is usually tested to 300 lb pressure per square inch before delivery, and a hammer-test should be made while the pipe is under pressure. The usual length for each section of cast-iron water-pipe is from 12 ft 4 in to 12 ft 6 in, depending upon the depth of the socket, each length making approximately 12 ft of pipe when laid. Pipes from 2 to 4 in diameter are sometimes made in 8 or 9-ft lengths.

Safe Pressures and Equivalent Heads of Water for Cast-Iron Pipes of Different Sizes and Thicknesses

Calculated by F. H. Lewis from Fanning's Formula

Thickness, in	Size of pipe, in											
	4		6		8		10		12		14	
	Pressure, lb	Head, ft	Pressure, lb	Head, ft	Pressure, lb	Head, ft	Pressure, lb	Head, ft	Pressure, lb	Head, ft	Pressure, lb	Head, ft
5/16	112	258	49	112	18	42	....	....	....	....	....	....
3/8	224	516	124	280	74	171	44	101	24	55	....	....
7/16	336	774	199	458	130	300	89	205	62	143	42	97
1/2	...	...	274	631	186	429	132	304	99	228	74	170
9/16	...	...	...	...	...	...	177	408	137	316	106	244
5/8	...	...	...	...	...	...	224	516	174	401	138	316
11/16	...	...	...	...	...	...	....	....	212	488	170	392
3/4	...	...	...	...	...	...	....	....	249	574	202	465
13/16	...	...	...	...	...	...	....	....	....	....	234	538
1	...	...	...	...	....	...	....	....	....	....	266	612
	16		18		20		24		30		36	
5/8	56	129	41	95	....	...	....	....	....	....	....	....
11/16	84	194	66	152	51	118	30	69	....	....	....	....
3/4	112	258	91	210	74	170	49	113	24	55	....	....
13/16	140	323	116	267	96	221	68	157	39	90	....	....
7/8	168	387	141	325	119	274	86	198	54	124	32	74
15/16	196	452	166	382	141	325	105	242	69	159	44	101
1	224	516	191	440	164	378	124	286	84	194	57	131
1 1/8	...	...	216	497	209	481	161	371	114	263	82	189
1 1/4	...	...	...	...	256	589	199	458	144	332	107	247
1 3/8	...	...	...	...	...	...	237	546	174	401	132	304
1 1/2	...	...	...	...	...	...	....	....	204	470	157	362
1 5/8	...	...	...	...	...	...	....	....	234	538	182	419
1 3/4	...	...	...	...	...	...	....	....	....	....	207	477

Weights of Lead and Gaskets for Pipe-Joints

Dennis Long & Company

Diameter of pipe, in	Lead, lb	Gasket, lb	Diameter of pipe, in	Lead, lb	Gasket, lb
2	2.5	0.125	12	15	0.250
3	3.5	0.170	14	18	0.375
4	4.5	0.170	16	22	0.500
6	6.5	0.200	18	26	0.500
8	9.0	0.200	20	33	0.625
10	13.0	0.250	....	....	....

Weights, per Foot, of Cast-iron Pipes in General Use, Including Socket-Ends and Spigot-ends

Dennis Long & Company, Inc., Louisville, Ky.

Diameter, in	Thickness, in	Weight per ft, lb	Diameter, in	Thickness, in	Weight per ft, lb	Diameter, in	Thickness, in	Weight per ft, lb
3	3/8	12 1/2	16	3/4	129	30	2	662
	7/16	15		7/8	152	36	7/8	334
	1/2	18		1	175		1	382
	9/16	20 1/2	18	5/8	120		1 1/8	432
	5/8	23		3/4	146		1 1/4	482
4	3/8	17		7/8	171		1 3/8	532
	7/16	20		1	197		1 1/2	587
	1/2	23 1/2		1 1/8	223		1 5/8	632
	9/16	26 3/4		1 1/4	249		1 3/4	683
	5/8	30	20	11/16	148		1 7/8	734
6	7/16+	30		3/4	161		2	786
	1/2	34		7/8	190	42	1	445
	9/16	38 1/4		1	216		1 1/8	471
	5/8	42 1/2		1 1/8	247		1 1/4	560
	3/4	52		1 1/4	276		1 3/8	629
8	7/16	40		1 3/8	305		1 1/2	675
	1/2	43 1/2		1 1/2	334		1 5/8	734
	9/16	49 3/4	24	3/4	191		1 3/4	794
	5/8	56		7/8	225		1 7/8	853
	3/4	68		1	258		2	912
10	7/16	50		1 1/8	293	48	1 1/8	572
	1/2	54		1 1/4	327		1 1/4	637
	9/16	60		1 3/8	361		1 3/8	701
	5/8	68		1 1/2	395		1 1/2	768
	3/4	82		1 5/8	430		1 5/8	835
12	1/2	70		1 3/4	465		1 3/4	901
	9/16	76	30	13/16	258		1 7/8	967
	5/8	82		7/8	278		2	1 034
	3/4	99		1	319	60	1 1/4	797
	7/8	117		1 1/8	360		1 3/8	880
14	9/16	85		1 1/4	405		1 1/2	964
	5/8	94		1 3/8	448		1 5/8	1 049
	3/4	113		1 1/2	489		1 3/4	1 133
	7/8	137		1 5/8	532		1 7/8	1 216
16	9/16	100		1 3/4	575		2	1 300
	5/8	108		1 7/8	619		2 1/4	1 470

There is no standard weight of pipe for any given pressure.

Private Water-Supply. Pumps

Private Water-Supplies. The architect is frequently required to furnish a water-supply for isolated buildings, and even in cities it is becoming quite common for manufacturing establishments and large buildings to have their own water-supply; so that some knowledge of the various methods of supplying water is requisite. Power-pumps are of so many kinds and so intricate in construction that no attempt will be made to describe them.

The Hydraulic Ram. Where a small stream of water having a fall of 2 ft or more flows near the premises, an hydraulic ram may be used to great advantage to furnish water for domestic purposes, or even for irrigation. The ram is operated by the momentum of the water flowing through the drive-pipe and delivers water into an open tank. Water can be conveyed by a ram 13 000 ft when elevated 500 ft, provided there is sufficient fall. The drive-pipe supplying the ram should be 30 or 40 ft long to give the necessary momentum. The use of the ram is the most economical method of pumping water, as there is no expense for maintenance except for repairs, and the cost of installation, also, is small.

The Capacities of the Rife Rams are given in the following table. The capacities are determined from the table by multiplying the available supply of water per minute, or the rated amount of water a Rife ram will use, by the factor found in the table at the intersection of the line giving the fall available, for the drive-pipe, and the column showing the height the water is to be elevated. The factor for a 10-ft fall and 50-ft discharge is 192, and this multiplied by the supply of water per minute will give the delivery per day. This is shown by the example worked out in the corner of the table. These capacities are based on efficiencies dependent on the ratio of fall to lift. A fall of 10 ft and a lift of 50 ft give a ratio of 1 to 5, and an efficiency of 66⅔%. The efficiencies of Rife rams based on various ratios, are also given in the table.

Deep Wells and Plunger-Pumps. The common method of obtaining a private water-supply is to drive a deep well until a sufficient supply of water is obtained. The depth to which a well must be driven will, of course, depend upon the locality, and can only be determined by drillings. As the well is driven, a large wrought-iron pipe is sunk to form the casing. Casings are seldom less than 6 or more than 10 in inside diameter, 8 in being the common size. When the water-pocket has been reached, the water will usually rise and stand in the pipe several hundred feet above its bottom, and the amount of water that can usually be pumped from such wells, without lowering the water, is practically unlimited. The cost of drilling deep wells, per foot of depth, INCLUDING THE CASING, differs, of course, with the strata, location and other local conditions. As a rule, however, it will average about $5 per foot for a well driven through rock and $6 per foot for a well through sand. For raising the water into an open tank a single-acting pump consisting of a working-head, (Fig. 1), which operates a cylinder placed in a smaller pipe lowered into the well through which the water is raised, is commonly employed. The cylinder should preferably be placed below the water-line in the well, and is usually connected with the working-head by wooden sucker-rods. The working-

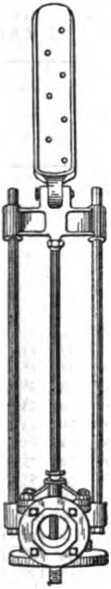
Fig. 1. Working-head for Deep-well Pump

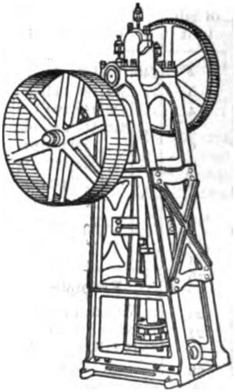
Fig. 2. Deep-well Working-head for Belt-attachment

Table of Water Required for Rife Rams

Number	Dimensions						Size of drive-pipe, in	Size of delivery-pipe, in	Gallons per minute required to operate engine, gal	Least no. of feet of fall recommended, ft	Weight, lb
	Height, ft	in	Length, ft	in	Width, ft	in					
10	2	1	3	2	1	8	1¼	½	3 to 6	3	150
15	2	1	3	4	1	8	1½	¾	5 to 12	3	175
*20	2	3	3	8	1	9	2	1	10 to 18	2	225
25	2	3	3	9	1	9	2½	1	11 to 24	2	250
30	2	7	3	10	1	10	3	1¼	15 to 35	2	275
40	3	3	4	4	2	0	4	2	30 to 75	2	600
80	7	4	8	4	2	8	8	4	150 to 350	2	2 500
*120	......		......		......		12	5	375 to 750	2	3 000
†120	8	9	9	6	3	8	12 (two)	6	750 to 1 500	2	5 500

* Single. † Duplex.

Table of Capacities of Rife Rams

Power-head or fall in ft	Height or head in feet the water is to be delivered																
	4	10	15	20	30	40	*50	60	70	80	90	100	120	140	160	180	200
2	540	192	128	96	64	43	29	24	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
3	...	301	192	144	96	72	58	43	37	27	24	....	....	....	....	....	....
4	...	432	256	192	128	96	77	64	55	43	38	29	24	....	....	....	....
5	...	540	345	240	160	120	96	80	69	60	53	43	30	26	....	....	....
6	...	...	432	302	192	144	115	96	82	72	64	57	43	31	27	24	....
7	...	...	505	378	235	168	134	112	96	84	75	67	50	36	31	28	25
8	...	...	...	432	270	192	154	128	110	96	86	77	64	55	43	38	29
9	...	...	...	485	300	216	173	144	124	108	96	86	72	62	54	43	39
*10	...	...	...	540	360	252	*192	160	137	120	107	96	80	68	60	53	43
12	...	...	...	...	430	301	230	192	165	144	128	115	96	82	72	64	57
14	...	...	...	...	505	353	270	224	192	168	150	135	112	96	84	75	67
16						432	323	257	220	192	171	154	128	110	96	85	77
18						486	390	303	247	216	192	173	144	124	108	96	86
20						540	430	336	288	240	214	192	160	137	120	107	96
22						....	475	370	303	264	235	212	176	151	132	118	105
24						....	520	405	346	288	256	230	192	164	144	128	115
26						....	....	470	375	328	278	250	208	178	156	139	125
28						....	....	505	430	354	300	260	224	192	168	149	134
30						....	....	540	465	405	336	288	240	206	180	160	144

Example

With a supply of 1 400 gal per min, 10-ft fall, 50-ft elevation, No. 120 engine will deliver 268 800 gal per day. 1 400 × 192 = 268 800

* Multiply factor opposite POWER-HEAD and under PUMPING-HEAD by the number of gallons per minute USED by the engine; the result will be the number of gallons DELIVERED per day.

The efficiency developed is governed by the ratio of fall to pumping-head.

The efficiency of rife rams is based on....
75% for a ratio of 1 to 2½
70% for a ratio of 1 to 3
66⅔% for a ratio up to 1 to 18
60% for a ratio up to 1 to 25
50% for a ratio up to 1 to 30

head may be operated by hand, or by a crank-rod attached to a pumping-jack, windmill or engine. With a single-acting pump the plunger is raised and lowered once with every revolution of the driving-wheel, the principle of operation being the same as in an ordinary hand suction-pump. Fig. 2 shows a simple arrangement for operating a working-head by belt-power. This is known as a deep-well power working-head. A DEEP-WELL PUMP (Fig. 2) differs from a SUCTION-PUMP in that it will raise water from any depth, whereas a suction-pump in practice will raise water only about 20 ft. A suction-pump may be placed at any point in relation to the well, and will draw the water any reasonable horizontal distance. The deep-well pump, on the other hand, must be set directly over the well, but it will then deliver the water at any desired point. The amount of water pumped in a minute by any single-acting pump is determined by the diameter of the suction-cylinder, the length of stroke, and the number of strokes per minute. The table following gives the capacity per stroke for cylinders of different diameters, and for strokes of different lengths. To find the capacity per minute, multiply the values given in the table by the revolutions per minute. The usual speed of single-acting working-heads and pumping-jacks is from 25 to 30 revolutions per minute. Cylinders over 2¾ in in diameter should have a substantial iron working-head.

Table Showing Capacity of Single-Acting Pumps of Given Diameter and Length of Stroke

Diam. of cylinder in inches	Length of stroke in inches								
	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	24
	Capacity per stroke in gallons								
1¼	0.0319	0.0425	0.0531	0.0637	0.0743	0.0848	0.0955	0.1062	0.1274
1⅜	0.0385	0.0513	0.0642	0.0770	0.0890	0.1027	0.1156	0.1280	0.1541
1½	0.0459	0.0612	0.0765	0.0918	0.1071	0.1224	0.1377	0.1530	0.1836
1¾	0.0625	0.0833	0.1041	0.1249	0.1457	0.1666	0.1874	0.2082	0.2499
2	0.0816	0.1088	0.1360	0.1632	0.1904	0.2176	0.2448	0.2720	0.3264
2¼	0.1033	0.1377	0.1721	0.2063	0.2410	0.2754	0.3096	0.3442	0.4128
2½	0.1275	0.1700	0.2125	0.2550	0.2975	0.3400	0.3825	0.4250	0.5100
2¾	0.1543	0.2057	0.2571	0.3085	0.3598	0.4114	0.4626	0.5142	0.6170
3	0.1836	0.2448	0.3060	0.3672	0.4284	0.4896	0.5508	0.6120	0.7344
3¼	0.2154	0.2872	0.3594	0.4312	0.5030	0.5748	0.6466	0.7182	0.8624
3½	0.2499	0.3332	0.4165	0.4998	0.5831	0.6664	0.7497	0.8330	0.9996
3¾	0.2868	0.3824	0.4780	0.5736	0.6692	0.7648	0.8605	0.9561	1.1470
4	0.3264	0.4352	0.5440	0.6528	0.7616	0.8704	0.9792	1.0880	1.3056
4¼	0.3684	0.4912	0.6141	0.7368	0.8596	0.9824	1.1050	1.2280	1.4730
4½	0.4131	0.5508	0.6885	0.8262	0.9639	1.1016	1.2393	1.3770	1.6524
4¾	0.4602	0.6136	0.7671	0.9204	1.0730	1.2270	1.3800	1.5340	1.8400

Hot-Air Engines. These are very extensively used for pumping water for country houses, as they are absolutely safe, require little attention, and have no valves, springs or gauges to get out of order. They are also adapted to almost any kind of fuel, such as coal, coke, wood, gas, or kerosene oil. They will pump from either a shallow or a deep well, but are best adapted to wells in which the surface of the water is within 20 ft of the top of the well. The best known hot-air engines are the Rider-Ericsson, which have been in successful operation for many years. These engines have capacities ranging from 150 to 3 500 gal per hour and will deliver water from 50 to 350 ft above the surface of water in the well, although the higher the water is raised the less will be the quantity delivered. The cost of these engines, with pump attached, varies from $110 for the smallest size, having a capacity of 150 gal per hour raised 50 ft, to $540 for the largest size, having a capacity of 3 500 gal per hour raised 50 ft. The smaller size requires about 1 quart of kerosene or 3 lb of anthracite coal per hour. Hot-air engines should be placed close to the source of supply, and when the latter is a deep well the engine must be placed so that the pump-rod will be in a vertical line above the cylinder in the well, the operation of pumping being the same as that of the ordinary single-acting deep-well pump. It is not practicable to DRAW water more than from 20 to 25 ft, in height, with any form of suction-pump, because of the difficulty of keeping the pipe, valve and fittings absolutely air-tight. For further information, see the catalogue of the Rider-Ericsson Engine Company.

Action of Wind and Capacities of Pumping Windmills

Velocity per hour in miles	Pressure* per square foot in pounds	Description of wind	Action of wind and windmills
3	0.045	Just perceptible........	Windmills will not run
5	0.125	Pleasant wind..........	Might start if lightly loaded
8	0.33	Fresh breeze...........	Will start pumping
10	0.5	Average wind..........	Pumps nicely if properly loaded
15	1.125	Good working wind...	Does excellent work
20	2	Strong wind...........	Gives best service
25	3.125	Very strong wind......	Maximum results secured
30	4.5	Gale..................	Should be furled out of wind
40	8	Storm.................	Well-constructed mills and towers safe if properly erected
50	12.5	Severe storm..........	
60	18	Violent storm..........	Buildings, trees, etc., might be injured
80	32	Hurricane.............	Buildings, trees, etc., would be injured
100	50	Tornado	Ruin

From the above table it will be seen that the only available winds are those blowing with a velocity of from 8 to 25 miles per hour, and that a 15-mile wind can be utilized to the best advantage. It is therefore advisable to LOAD a windmill for a 15-mile wind. It then starts pumping in an 8-mile wind, does excellent work in a 15-mile wind and reaches the maximum results in a 25-mile wind.

* The pressures per square foot in pounds will vary slightly from the values given according to the formula which is used to obtain such pressures. See, also, Chapter XXVII, pages 1052-3 and also page 1637.

Windmills. In the country and on large suburban estates, windmills are extensively used for pumping water. Aside from the noise of operation, the only objection to the windmill, where it can be used, is the irregularity of its supply, but with a large storage-tank this is not a serious objection when used for domestic purposes only. Professor Thurston says, regarding windmills: "In estimating the capacity, a working-day of eight hours is assumed, but the machine, when used for pumping, may actually do its work twenty-four hours a day for days, weeks, and even months together, whenever the wind is stiff enough to turn it. It costs for work done only one-half or one-third as much as steam, hot-air, or gas-engines of similar power." The action of wind of different velocities, the pressure per square foot of sail-surface and its relation to the pumping capacity of pumps can be found in the following table, compiled by Fairbanks, Morse & Company.

The windmill operates the plunger in the well, the process of pumping being the same as that of the single-acting pumps described above. The following table of capacity was prepared by Alfred R. Wolff, and is sufficiently accurate for all practical purposes:

Capacity of the Windmill

Designation of mill wheel, ft	Velocity of wind in miles per hour	Revolutions of wheel per minute	Gallons of water raised per minute to an elevation of						Equivalent actual useful h.p. developed
			25 ft	50 ft	75 ft	100 ft	150 ft	200 ft	
8½	16	40 to 50	6.192	3.016	....	....	....	....	0.04
10	16	35 to 40	19.179	9.563	6.638	4.750	....	....	0.12
12	16	30 to 35	33.941	17.952	11.851	8.435	5.680	....	0.21
14	16	28 to 35	45.139	22.569	15.304	11.246	7.807	4.998	0.28
16	16	25 to 30	64.600	31.654	19.542	16.150	9.771	8.075	0.41
18	16	22 to 25	97.682	52.165	32.513	24.421	17.485	12.211	0.61
20	16	20 to 22	124.950	63.750	40.800	31.248	19.284	15.938	0.78
25	16	16 to 18	212.381	106.964	71.604	49.725	37.349	26.741	1.34

The horse-power of windmills of the best construction is proportional to the squares of their diameters and inversely as their velocities; for example, a 10-ft mill in a 16-mile breeze will develop 0.15 horse-power at 65 revolutions per minute; and with the same breeze:

a 20-ft mill, at 40 revolutions per minute, 1 horse-power;
a 25-ft mill, at 35 revolutions per minute, 1¾ horse-power;
a 30-ft mill, at 28 revolutions per minute, 3½ horse-power.

The wheels of very few windmills are larger than 25 ft in diameter. There are no pumps which will enable the user of a windmill to utilize the increased power obtained from winds of high velocity, so that in practice the amount of water pumped by windmills in high winds is but little more than is pumped by the same mills in winds having velocities of from 12 to 18 miles per hour. For this reason it is customary to regulate windmills to govern at about 25 miles an hour. Theoretically the increase in power from increased velocity of wind is equal to the square of its proportional velocity; as, for example, the 25-ft mill rated above for a 16-mile wind will, with a 32-mile wind, have its horse-power increased to 4 × 1¾ = 7 horse-power. A windmill "will run and produce work in an 8-mile breeze." Windmills have also been used for the generating and storage of electricity for small lighting-plants.*

Air-Lift Process. Compressed air is now being used to an increasing extent for raising water from artesian wells. The process in general consists of submerging a discharge-pipe in a closed well, with a smaller pipe inside delivering compressed air into it at the bottom. The compressed air by its inherent expansive force lifts a column of mingled air and water which is conveyed to an open tank, to permit of the escape of the air. If desired the water may then be conveyed by gravity into a series of closed tanks, and forced by air-pressure to different parts of a building, the only machinery required being an air-compressor and power for driving it. The slip of the bubble constitutes the chief loss of energy in the air-lift. The method of piping a well differs according to its general conditions and the quantity of water to be pumped. "No two wells are alike, and consequently the method of piping which might be applied to one would be unsuited to another." Information as to the best method of piping any particular well may be obtained from the Ingersoll-Sergeant Drill Company.

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* See Kent's Mechanical Engineers' Pocket-Book.

Advantages of the Air-Lift Process. From two to six times as much water may be obtained from a given diameter of well as with any other known system, because there are no valves, cylinders, or rods to hinder the rapid discharge of water. One air-compressor operates any number of wells, which may be any distance apart so as not to affect one another. There is nothing outside the engine-room to look after or wear out. Nothing but common pipe in the wells. Sand or gravel does no harm. The COST of raising 1 000 gal of water by this method, including fuel, labor, oil, interest on cost of well, boiler, compressor, foundations, pipes, real estate, erection and taxes, including 15% for depreciation, runs from 2½ cts down to ⅛ ct, according to the size of the plant, height of lift, and other local conditions. With the average outfit of medium or small size, it is usually under 1½ cts.* The air-lift process is now extensively used in ice-works, breweries, cold-storage houses, textile mills, dye-works, etc., and a great variety of industrial plants, and for the water-supply of quite a number of the smaller cities. In Newark, N. J., pumps of this type are at work having a total capacity of 1 000 000 gal daily, lifting water from three 8-in artesian wells.†

Pneumatic Water-Supply Systems. The pneumatic system of supplying water to buildings is used extensively in buildings and institutions remote from public water-supplies. With the pneumatic system, instead of an open elevated tank, a closed water-tight tank of iron or steel is used, and this tank may be located at any level, for the water is forced from it by means of compressed air confined in the top of the tank. This fact makes it possible to bury the tank in the ground below the frost-line, away from the heat of the sun, and where the water will have an almost uniform temperature the year round. The water is protected from possible contamination from insects, rats, birds, dust, or other agencies, while the tank takes up no valuable space above ground, imposes no weight upon the attic-floor of a building, and does not disfigure the landscape. The principle of operation is this: Air is compressible, while water is not. If then, water is pumped into a closed tank at the bottom, it will trap the air within, and the more water pumped in, the greater the compression, of the air. The elasticity of the air, then, will force the water out again, whenever a faucet is opened, and the water will continue to flow as long as the air is under sufficient pressure in the tank. In practice the air would become absorbed by the water in the tank, and in a short time become exhausted, if it were not supplied as fast as used. This is accomplished by injecting a proportionate amount of air with each stroke of the pump, by means of a SNIFTER-VALVE air-compressor, or other device. All connections to the tank are taken from the bottom, to prevent the escape of air which would occur if the connections were taken from the top of the tank.

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* Ingersoll-Sergeant Drill Company.

† Kent.

Horse-Power Required to Raise Water to Different Heights

General Principles. The power required to raise a certain quantity of water to a certain height varies directly with the quantity to be raised, and also with the height. For instance, it requires twice as much power to raise 200 gal per minute 10 ft high as it does to raise 100 gal to the same height and in the same time; and to raise 100 gal 20 ft high requires twice as much power as it does to raise 100 gal 10 ft high. To find the theoretical horse-power necessary to elevate water to a given height, multiply the number of gallons per minute by 8.335, the weight of 1 gal, and this result by the total number of feet the water is raised, that is, from the surface of the water to the highest point to which the water is raised, and the result gives the power in foot-pounds; divide by 33 000, and the quotient is the horse-power. To the theoretical power a liberal allowance must be made for the inefficiency of the pump. For a cylinder-pump add from 75 to 100%. To the actual height to which the water is to be raised add the friction-loss in feet, given in Table F, page 1302, when the discharge is to be piped any distance.

Example. Find the theoretical horse-power required to raise 100 gal per minute 120 ft high, through a 3-in pipe, 200 ft long.

Solution. From Table F, the friction-head for 100 gal per min in a 3-in pipe, 100 ft long, is 1.31 × 2.3 or 3 ft. For 200 ft it will be 6 ft, which, added to 120, gives 126 ft for the height. Then theoretical horse-power = 100 × 8.35 × 126/33 000 = 3.2 h.p. The actual horse-power required will probably vary from 5 to 6, according to the efficiency of the pump. The mistake of using too small a discharge-pipe can easily be seen from Table F. For instance, if one attempted to force 100 gal per minute through 100 ft of 2-in pipe, the back-pressure would be equivalent to raising the water 22 ft high. The fuel used would be correspondingly increased. Right-angle turns are to be avoided, as the friction is very materially increased, being practically equal to the friction of 25 ft of straight pipe.

Table of Effective Fire-Streams

Using 100 ft of 2½-in ordinary best-quality rubber-lined hose between nozzle and hydrant or pump

Smooth nozzle	¾ in					⅞ in				
Pressure at hydrant, lb	32	54	65	75	86	34	57	69	80	91
Pressure at nozzle, lb	30	50	60	70	80	30	50	60	70	80
Vertical height, ft	48	67	72	76	79	49	71	77	81	85
Horizontal distance, ft	37	50	54	68	62	42	55	61	66	70
Gal discharged per min	90	116	127	137	147	123	159	174	188	201

Smooth nozzle	1 in					1⅛ in				
Pressure at hydrant, lb	37	62	75	87	100	42	70	84	98	112
Pressure at nozzle, lb	30	50	60	70	80	30	50	60	70	80
Vertical height, ft	51	73	79	85	89	52	75	83	88	92
Horizontal distance, ft	47	61	67	72	76	50	66	72	77	81
Gal discharged per min	161	208	228	246	263	206	266	291	314	336

Fire-Streams. The following is an extract from a paper read by John R. Freeman at a meeting of the New England Waterworks Association, entitled Some Experiments and Practical Tables Relating to Fire-Streams, "When unlined linen hose is used the friction or pressure-loss is from 8 to 60%, increasing with the pressure. This kind of hose is best for inside use in short lengths. Mill-hose is better than unlined linen hose for long lengths, but ordinarily the best quality of smooth rubber-lined hose is superior to the mill-hose, having less frictional resistance. The ring-nozzle is inferior to the smooth nozzle and actually delivers less water than the smooth nozzle. For instance, the ⅞-in ring-nozzle discharges the same quantity of water as a ¾-in smooth nozzle, and a 1-in ring-nozzle the same as a ⅞-in smooth nozzle. Two hundred and fifty gallons per minute is a good standard fire-stream at 80-lb pressure at the hydrant; 100-lb pressure should not be exceeded except for very high buildings or lengths of hose exceeding 300 ft."

Notes on the Construction of Cylindrical Wooden Tanks*

Material should be either cedar, cypress, juniper, fir, yellow pine, or white pine, free from imperfections and thoroughly air-dry. Clear Louisiana red, Gulf cypress makes the most durable tanks.

Staves and Bottom of tanks of greater capacities than 15 000 gal should be made of 2½-in, dressed to about 2¼ in, stock for tanks 12 ft and not exceeding 16 ft diameter or 16 ft deep. For larger tanks 3-in, dressed to about 2¾ in. stock should be used. For smaller tanks 2-in stock may be used. Staves should be connected about one-third the distance from the top by a ⅝-in dowel to hold them in position during erection. The bottom planks should be dressed on four sides, and the edges of each plank should be bored with holes not over 3 ft apart for ⅝-in dowels.

Taper. The batter to each side should not be less than ¼ in nor more than ½ in per ft.

Hoops should be of ROUND wrought iron or mild steel of good quality. Wrought iron is preferable because it does not rust as easily as steel. There should be no welds in any of the hoops. Where more than one length of iron is necessary, lugs should be used to make the joints; and when more than one piece is necessary the several pieces constituting one hoop should be tied together in preparing for shipment. Hoops for fire-tanks should be of such size and spacing that the stress in no hoop will exceed 12 500 lb per sq in when computed from the area at root of thread. For general purposes, a stress of 15 000 lb per sq in is permissible. On acccount of the swelling of the bottom planks, the hoops near the bottom may be subjected to a stress greater than that due to the water-pressure alone; additional hoops, therefore, should be provided. For tanks up to 20 ft in diameter, one hoop of the size used next above it should be placed around the bottom opposite the croze and not counted upon as withstanding any water-pressure. For tanks 20 ft or more in diameter, two hoops, as above, should be used. Hoops with UPSET ends must not be used. The top hoop should be placed within 2 in of the top of staves, so that the overflow-pipe may be inserted as high as possible. Hoops should be so placed that the lugs will not be in a vertical line. No hoop should be less than ¾ in in diameter. All should be cleaned of mill-scale and rust and painted one coat of red lead, lampblack and boiled before erecting.

Note. The strength of a tank depends chiefly on its hoops. Round hoops are specified because they do not rust rapidly; a slight amount of rust does not have the same weakening effect as on a flat hoop, and round hoops are not likely to burst when the tank swells, as they will sink into the wood.

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* These notes have been condensed from specifications published by the Inspection Department of the Factory Mutual Fire Insurance Company, 31 Milk Street, Boston, a most excellent pamphlet.

Spacing of Hoops. The hoops should be spaced so that each one will have the same stress per square inch, and no space should be greater than 21 in. To meet this requirement the hoops must be spaced quite close together at the bottom, the space between them gradually increasing towards the top.

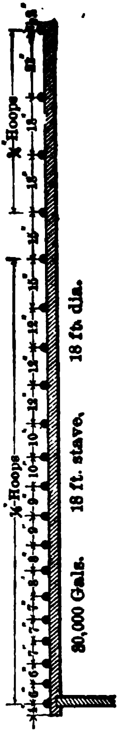


Fig. 3. Diagram of Hoop-spacing for Tanks

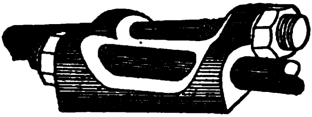


Fig. 4. Lug for Tank-hoops

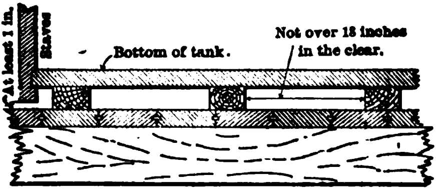


Fig. 5. Support for Bottom of Tank

Fig. 3 shows the proper spacing of hoops for a tank 18 ft in diameter, with 18-ft staves. The spacing for seven other sizes of tanks is given in the pamphlet referred to. It may be computed by the following formula:

$$\text{Spacing of hoops in inches} = \frac{\text{strength}}{2.6 \times \text{diameter in feet} \times H}$$

For strength of a ¾-in rod use 3 750; of a ⅞-in rod, 5 250; of a 1-in rod, 6 875; and of a 1⅛-in rod, 8 625.

H is the distance from surface of the water to center of hoop in feet.

Example. How far apart should 1-in hoops be placed, at 15 ft 2 in from top of tank, on a tank 20 ft diameter?

Solution. $$\text{Spacing} = \frac{6\,875}{2.6 \times 20 \times 15} = 8¾ \text{ in}$$

Lugs should be as strong as the hoops. A lug similar to Fig. 4 is simple and fulfils the requirement for strength. Malleable lugs are required.

Support. The weight of the tank should be supported entirely from its bottom; and in no event should any weight come on the bottom of the staves. The planks upon which the tank-bottom rests should cover at least one-fifth the area of the bottom, should be not over 18 in apart, and of such thickness that the bottom of the staves will be at least 1 in from the floor (see Fig. 5).

The Discharge-Pipe should preferably leave the bottom of the tank at its center and extend up inside of the tank 4 in, to allow the sediment to collect in the bottom of the tank.

The Overflow-Pipe should be placed as near the top of the tank as possible, discharging either through side or bottom, as may be desired. An overflow is much to be preferred to a telltale, as the latter is liable to get out of order.

Heating. Tanks of moderate size need to be provided with some means to prevent freezing. When a tank is in an enclosed room, as in a mill-tower, the best method is to keep the room warm by a coil of steam-pipe with a return to the boiler-room. A covered tank out of doors may often be similarly heated by placing the steam-pipe in the bottom of the tank. With a tank located on a high trestle, or at a distance from the steam-supply, it is often impracticable to arrange a return-pipe. In this case steam may be blown directly into the water in the tank. A 1-in pipe is generally sufficient for this purpose. It should be carried to the top of the tank and there bend over and dip downwards, so that its outlet is about 1 ft below the high-water line. A check-valve should be placed in this steam-pipe, near its point of discharge, to prevent water being drawn back by siphon-action when the steam is shut off. The water in fire-tanks must be kept from freezing by means of a water-heater which either heats a coil in the tank, or circulates a current of water through the tank.

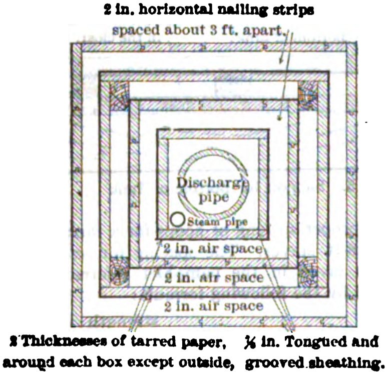

2 in. horizontal nailing strips
spaced about 3 ft. apart
Discharge pipe
Steam pipe
2 in. air space
2 in. air space
2 in. air space
2 Thicknesses of tarred paper, around each box except outside,
⅞ in. Tongued and grooved sheathing.

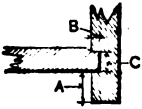
Fig. 6. Method of Frostproofing Pipes

Frostproofing for Pipes. The discharge-pipe from a tank on a trestle, or from one elevated above a roof, must be protected from freezing. The common practice is to enclose the pipe in a double, triple, or quadruple box made of boards and tarred paper, as shown in Fig. 6. If steam is supplied to the tank, the steam-pipe is carried inside the box. In New England, New York State and Canada the quadruple boxing is generally used, whereas in the milder regions to the south triple or double boxing is used. The boxing should always be carried down into the ground below the frost-line, and a good tight joint made at the underside of the tank.

Covers. For economy in heating and to prevent birds, leaves, etc., from getting into the water, all out-of-door tanks should be covered. A double cover is recommended consisting of a tight flat cover made of matched boards supported by joists which span the top of the tank, and above this a shingled, conical roof. To prevent the covering from being blown off, it should be firmly fastened to the top of the tank by straps of iron. In order to keep out the wind particular attention should be given to making a tight joint where the roof rests on the top of the staves.

Scuttles should be arranged in both the conical and flat covers to give access to the inside of the tank and a substantial, permanent ladder erected to give easy access to the top of the tank.

Dimensions of Tanks of Standard Sizes

Approximate net capacity, gal	Size. Outside dimensions		Thickness of lumber after being machined					Hoops	
	Average diameter, ft in	Length of stave, ft	Staves, in	Bottom, in	A, in	B, in	C, in	Number of	Size, in
10 000	13 4	12	2¼	2¼	3½	⅝	2⅛	11	¾
15 000	14 6	14	2¼	2¼	3½	⅝	2⅛	14	¾
20 000	15 6	16	2¼	2¼	3½	⅝	2⅛	5 11	¾ ⅞
25 000	17 6	16	2¾	2¾	3½	¾	2⅝	4 12	¾ ⅞
30 000	18 0	18	2¾	2¾	3½	¾	2⅝	4 16	¾ ⅞
50 000	22 0	20	2¾	2¾	3½	¾	2⅝	4 19	⅞ ⅞
75 000	24 6	24	2¾	2¾	3½	¾	2⅝	4 6 21	⅞ 1 1⅛
100 000	28 6	24	2¾	2¾	3½	¾	2⅝	5 29	1 1⅛

Pumps for Fire-Streams. The dimensions of steam-pumps for fire-protection in buildings, approved by the Board of Underwriters, can be found in the following table.

Underwriter Steam Fire-Pumps

Rated capacity, gal per min	Size in inches			Boiler h.p. required, A.S.M.E. standard	Size in inches							Over-all dimensions of largest pump of given capacity						Proper capacity for priming-tank
	Diameter of steam-piston	Diameter of water-plunger	Length of stroke		Suction-pipe	Discharge-pipe	Steam supply-pipe	Steam exhaust-pipe	Relief-valve	Piston-rod	Valve-rod	Length		Width		Height		
	in	in	in	h.p.	in	in	in	in	in	in	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	gal
500	14 14 16	7 7¼ 8	12 12 10	80	8	6	3	4	3	2	1	9	⅛	5	2	7	5	250
750	16 16	9 9¼	12 12	115	10	7	3½	4	3½	2¼	1⅛	9	5	5	2	8	0	375
1000	18 18½	10 10½	12 10	150	12	8	4	5	4	2⅜	1⅛	10	8	5	7½	8	10	500
1500	20	12	16	200	14	10	5	6	5	2½	1¼	12	5	5	7	8	11	750

The capacities given in last column are desirable; but in case the suction-pipe is short and the lift low, a tank of not less than one-half the capacity stated may sometimes be used.

Notes on Steel Tanks*

Steel Tanks of sizes commonly used for fire-protection cost from 40 to 100% more than wooden tanks. The additional cost for large tanks is relatively less than for small tanks. A steel tank of about 40 000-gal capacity or over can be erected on a steel trestle at about the same cost as a wooden tank, since a saving can be made in the cost of supports by making a hemispherical or conical bottom to the steel tank and supporting the tank directly on the legs of the trestle, thus saving the expense of horizontal supporting beams. A steel tank is superior to a wooden tank for the following reasons: (1) It will last for an indefinite time if KEPT THOROUGHLY PAINTED inside and out, whereas a wooden tank will have to be replaced in from twelve to thirty years, usually in about fifteen years; (2) it will be absolutely tight when once well erected and properly cared for, whereas a wooden tank will shrink and leak if the water gets low; (3) it will not be at all likely to burst suddenly, if originally correctly designed, even if painting is neglected, for experience shows that a few spots will first rust through and thus show the weak condition by small leaks, whereas a wooden tank, if neglected, may burst its hoops suddenly and cause serious damage. The objections to steel tanks are that: (1) They require skilled boiler-makers to erect them, thus adding considerable to the cost when erected at a distance from a boiler-shop; (2) they are more difficult to protect against freezing; (3) they give more trouble by SWEATING when placed in a mill-tower; (4) they deteriorate rapidly if painting is neglected.

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* Inspection Department of the Factory Mutual Insurance Company, Boston.

Contents in Cubic Feet and U. S. Gallons of Pipes and Cylinders of Various Diameters and One Foot in Length

1 gallon = 231 cu in. 1 cu ft = 7.4805 gal

Diameter in inches *	For 1 ft in length		Diameter in inches	For 1 ft in length		Diameter in inches	For 1 ft in length	
	Cu ft, also area in sq ft	U. S. gal 231 cu in		Cu ft, also area in sq ft	U. S. gal, 231 cu in		Cu ft, also area in sq ft	U. S. gal, 231 cu in
¼	0.0003	0.0025	6¾	0.2485	1.859	19	1.969	14.73
5/16	0.0005	0.0040	7	0.2673	1.999	19½	2.074	15.51
⅜	0.0008	0.0057	7¼	0.2867	2.145	20	2.182	16.32
7/16	0.0010	0.0078	7½	0.3068	2.295	20½	2.292	17.15
½	0.0014	0.0102	7¾	0.3276	2.450	21	2.405	17.99
9/16	0.0017	0.0129	8	0.3491	2.611	21½	2.521	18.86
⅝	0.0021	0.0159	8¼	0.3712	2.777	22	2.640	19.75
11/16	0.0026	0.0193	8½	0.3941	2.948	22½	2.761	20.66
¾	0.0031	0.0230	8¾	0.4176	3.125	23	2.885	21.58
13/16	0.0036	0.0269	9	0.4418	3.305	23½	3.012	22.53
⅞	0.0042	0.0312	9¼	0.4667	3.491	24	3.142	23.50
15/16	0.0048	0.0359	9½	0.4022	3.682	25	3.409	25.50
1	0.0055	0.0408	9¾	0.5185	3.879	26	3.687	27.58
1¼	0.0085	0.0638	10	0.5454	4.080	27	3.976	29.74
1½	0.0123	0.0918	10¼	0.5730	4.286	28	4.276	31.99
1¾	0.0167	0.1249	10½	0.6013	4.498	29	4.587	34.31
2	0.0218	0.1632	10¾	0.6303	4.715	30	4.909	36.72
2¼	0.0276	0.2066	11	0.6600	4.937	31	5.241	39.21
2½	0.0341	0.2550	11¼	0.6903	5.164	32	5.585	41.78
2¾	0.0412	0.3085	11½	0.7213	5.396	33	5.940	44.43
3	0.0491	0.3672	11¾	0.7530	5.633	34	6.305	47.16
3¼	0.0576	0.4309	12	0.7854	5.875	35	6.681	49.98
3½	0.0668	0.4998	12½	0.8522	6.375	36	7.069	52.88
3¾	0.0767	0.5738	13	0.9218	6.895	37	7.467	55.86
4	0.0873	0.6528	13½	0.9940	7.436	38	7.876	58.92
4¼	0.0985	0.7369	14	1.0690	7.997	39	8.296	62.06
4½	0.1134	0.8263	14½	1.1470	8.578	40	8.727	65.28
4¾	0.1231	0.9206	15	1.2270	9.180	41	9.168	68.58
5	0.1364	1.0200	15½	1.3100	9.801	42	9.621	71.97
5¼	0.1503	1.1250	16	1.3960	10.440	43	10.085	75.44
5½	0.1650	1.2340	16½	1.4850	11.110	44	10.559	78.99
5¾	0.1803	1.3490	17	1.5760	11.790	45	11.045	82.62
6	0.1963	1.4690	17½	1.6700	12.490	46	11.541	86.33
6¼	0.2131	1.5940	18	1.7680	13.220	47	12.048	90.13
6½	0.2304	1.7240	18½	1.8670	13.960	48	12.566	94.00

* Actual.

To find the capacity of pipes greater than those given, look in the table for a pipe of one-half the given size and multiply its capacity by 4, or one of one-third its size and multiply its capacity by 9, etc. To find the WEIGHT of water in any of the given sizes, multiply the capacity in cubic feet by the weight of a cubic foot of water at the temperature of the water in the pipe (see page 1205). To find the capacity of a cylinder in U. S. gallons, multiply the length by the square of the diameter and by 0.0034.

Cylindrical Vessels, Tanks, Cisterns, Etc.

Diameter in feet and inches, area in square feet, and U. S. gallons capacity for 1 ft in depth

1 gallon = 231 cu in = 0.1337 cu ft

Diam, ft	in	Area, sq ft*	Gal, 1-ft depth	Diam, ft	in	Area, sq ft*	Gal, 1-ft depth	Diam, ft	in	Area, sq ft*	Gal, 1-ft depth
1		0.785	5.87	5	8	25.22	188.66	19		283.53	2120.9
1	1	0.922	6.89	5	9	25.97	194.25	19	3	291.04	2177.1
1	2	1.069	8.00	5	10	26.73	199.92	19	6	298.65	2234.0
1	3	1.227	9.18	5	11	27.49	205.67	19	9	306.35	2291.7
1	4	1.396	10.44	6		28.27	211.51	20		314.16	2350.1
1	5	1.576	11.79	6	3	30.68	229.50	20	3	322.06	2409.2
1	6	1.767	13.22	6	6	33.18	248.23	20	6	330.06	2469.1
1	7	1.969	14.73	6	9	35.78	267.69	20	9	338.16	2529.6
1	8	2.182	16.32	7		38.48	287.88	21		346.36	2591.0
1	9	2.405	17.99	7	3	41.28	308.81	21	3	354.66	2653.0
1	10	2.640	19.75	7	6	44.18	330.48	21	6	363.05	2715.8
1	11	2.885	21.58	7	9	47.17	352.88	21	9	371.54	2779.3
2		3.142	23.50	8		50.27	376.01	22		380.13	2843.6
2	1	3.409	25.50	8	3	53.46	399.88	22	3	388.82	2908.6
2	2	3.687	27.58	8	6	56.75	424.48	22	6	397.61	2974.3
2	3	3.976	29.74	8	9	60.13	449.82	22	9	406.49	3040.8
2	4	4.276	31.99	9		63.62	475.89	23		415.48	3108.0
2	5	4.587	34.31	9	3	67.20	502.70	23	3	424.56	3175.9
2	6	4.909	36.72	9	6	70.88	530.24	23	6	433.74	3244.6
2	7	5.241	39.21	9	9	74.66	558.51	23	9	443.01	3314.0
2	8	5.585	41.78	10		78.54	587.52	24		452.39	3384.1
2	9	5.940	44.43	10	3	82.52	617.26	24	3	461.86	3455.0
2	10	6.305	47.16	10	6	86.59	647.74	24	6	471.44	3526.6
2	11	6.681	49.98	10	9	90.76	678.95	24	9	481.11	3598.9
3		7.069	52.88	11		95.03	710.90	25		490.87	3672.0
3	1	7.467	55.86	11	3	99.40	743.58	25	3	500.74	3745.8
3	2	7.876	58.92	11	6	103.87	776.99	25	6	510.71	3820.3
3	3	8.296	62.06	11	9	108.43	811.14	25	9	520.77	3895.6
3	4	8.727	65.28	12		113.10	846.03	26		530.93	3971.6
3	5	9.168	68.58	12	3	117.86	881.65	26	3	541.19	4048.4
3	6	9.621	71.97	12	6	122.72	918.00	26	6	551.55	4125.9
3	7	10.085	75.44	12	9	127.68	955.09	26	9	562.00	4204.1
3	8	10.559	78.99	13		132.73	992.91	27		572.56	4283.0
3	9	11.045	82.62	13	3	137.89	1031.5	27	3	583.21	4362.7
3	10	11.541	86.33	13	6	143.14	1070.8	27	6	593.96	4443.1
3	11	12.048	90.13	13	9	148.49	1110.8	27	9	604.81	4524.3
4		12.566	94.00	14		153.94	1151.5	28		615.75	4606.2
4	1	13.095	97.96	14	3	159.48	1193.0	28	3	626.80	4688.8
4	2	13.635	102.00	14	6	165.13	1235.3	28	6	637.94	4772.1
4	3	14.186	106.12	14	9	170.87	1278.2	28	9	649.18	4856.2
4	4	14.748	110.32	15		176.71	1321.9	29		660.52	4941.0
4	5	15.321	114.61	15	3	182.65	1366.4	29	3	671.96	5026.6
4	6	15.90	118.97	15	6	188.69	1411.5	29	6	683.49	5112.9
4	7	16.50	123.42	15	9	194.83	1457.4	29	9	695.13	5199.9
4	8	17.10	127.95	16		201.06	1504.1	30		706.86	5287.7
4	9	17.72	132.56	16	3	207.39	1551.4	30	3	718.69	5376.2
4	10	18.25	137.25	16	6	213.82	1599.5	30	6	730.62	5465.4
4	11	18.99	142.02	16	9	220.35	1648.4	30	9	742.64	5555.4
5		19.63	146.88	17		226.98	1697.9	31		754.77	5646.1
5	1	20.29	151.82	17	3	233.71	1748.2	31	3	766.99	5737.5
5	2	20.97	156.83	17	6	240.53	1799.3	31	6	779.31	5829.7
5	3	21.65	161.93	17	9	247.45	1851.1	31	9	791.73	5922.6
5	4	22.34	167.12	18		254.47	1903.6	32		804.25	6016.2
5	5	23.04	172.38	18	3	261.59	1956.8	32	3	816.86	6110.6
5	6	23.76	177.72	18	6	268.80	2010.8	32	6	829.58	6205.7
5	7	24.48	183.15	18	9	276.12	2065.5	32	9	842.39	6301.5

* Also cubic feet for 1 ft in depth.

Capacity of Cisterns and Tanks

Number of barrels (31½ gal) in cisterns and tanks

Depth, ft	Diameter, ft								
	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
5	23.3	33.6	45.7	59.7	75.5	93.2	112.8	134.3	157.6
6	28.0	40.3	54.8	71.7	90.6	111.9	135.4	161.1	189.1
7	32.7	47.0	64.0	83.6	105.7	130.6	158.0	188.0	220.6
8	37.3	53.7	73.1	95.5	120.9	149.2	180.5	214.8	252.1
9	42.0	60.4	82.2	107.4	136.0	167.9	203.1	241.7	283.7
10	46.7	67.1	91.4	119.4	151.1	186.5	225.7	268.6	315.2
11	51.3	73.9	100.5	131.3	166.2	205.1	248.2	295.4	346.7
12	56.0	80.6	109.7	143.2	181.3	223.8	270.8	322.3	378.2
13	60.7	87.3	118.8	155.2	196.4	242.4	293.4	349.1	409.7
14	65.3	94.0	127.9	167.1	211.5	261.1	315.9	376.0	441.3
15	70.0	100.7	137.1	179.0	226.6	289.8	338.5	402.8	472.8
16	74.7	107.4	146.2	191.0	241.7	298.4	361.1	429.7	504.3
17	79.3	114.1	155.4	202.9	256.8	317.0	383.6	456.6	535.8
18	84.0	120.9	164.5	214.8	272.0	335.7	406.2	483.4	567.3
19	88.7	127.6	173.6	226.8	287.0	354.3	428.8	510.3	598.0
20	93.3	134.3	182.8	238.7	302.1	373.0	451.3	537.1	630.4

Depth, ft	Diameter, ft								
	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
5	182.8	209.8	238.7	269.5	302.1	336.6	373.0	411.2	451.3
6	219.3	251.8	286.5	323.4	362.6	404.0	447.6	493.5	541.6
7	255.9	293.7	334.2	377.3	423.0	471.3	522.2	575.7	631.9
8	292.4	335.7	382.0	431.2	483.4	538.6	596.8	658.0	722.1
9	329.0	377.7	429.7	485.1	543.8	605.9	671.4	740.2	812.4
10	365.5	419.6	477.4	539.0	604.3	673.3	746.0	822.5	902.7
11	402.1	461.6	525.2	592.9	667.7	740.6	820.6	904.7	992.9
12	438.6	503.5	572.9	646.8	725.1	807.9	895.2	987.0	1083.2
13	475.2	545.5	620.7	700.7	785.5	875.2	969.8	1069.2	1173.5
14	511.8	587.5	668.2	754.6	846.0	942.6	1044.4	1151.5	1263.7
15	548.3	629.4	716.2	808.5	906.4	1009.9	1119.0	1233.7	1354.0
16	584.9	671.4	773.9	862.4	966.8	1077.2	1193.6	1315.9	1444.3
17	621.4	713.4	811.6	916.3	1027.2	1044.6	1268.2	1398.2	1534.5
18	658.0	755.3	859.4	970.2	1087.7	1211.9	1342.8	1480.4	1624.8
19	694.5	797.3	907.1	1024.1	1148.1	1279.2	1417.4	1562.7	1715.1
20	731.1	839.3	954.9	1078.0	1208.5	1346.5	1492.0	1644.9	1805.3

Depth, ft	Diameter, ft							
	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
5	493.3	537.1	582.8	630.4	679.8	731.1	784.2	839.3
6	592.0	644.5	699.4	756.5	815.8	877.3	941.1	1007.1
7	690.6	752.0	815.9	882.5	951.7	1023.5	1097.9	1175.0
8	789.3	859.4	932.5	1008.6	1087.7	1169.7	1254.8	1342.8
9	887.9	966.8	1049.1	1134.7	1223.6	1316.0	1411.6	1510.7
10	986.6	1074.2	1165.6	1260.8	1359.6	1462.2	1568.2	1678.5
11	1085.2	1181.7	1282.2	1386.8	1495.6	1608.7	1723.0	1846.4
12	1183.9	1289.1	1398.7	1512.9	1631.5	1754.6	1882.2	2014.2
13	1282.6	1396.5	1515.3	1639.0	1767.5	1900.8	2039.0	2182.0
14	1381.2	1503.9	1631.9	1765.1	1903.4	2047.1	2195.9	2343.9
15	1479.9	1611.4	1748.4	1891.1	2039.4	2193.3	2352.7	2517.8
16	1578.5	1718.8	1865.0	2017.2	2175.4	2339.5	2509.6	2685.6
17	1677.2	1826.2	1981.6	2143.3	2311.3	2485.7	2666.4	2853.5
18	1775.9	1933.6	2098.1	2269.4	2447.3	2631.9	2823.3	3021.3
19	1874.5	2041.1	2214.7	2395.4	2583.2	2778.1	2980.1	3189.2
20	1973.2	2148.5	2321.2	2521.5	2719.2	2924.4	3137.0	3357.0

For tanks that are tapering, measure the diameter four-tenths from large end.

Number of U. S. Gallons in Rectangular Tanks

For One Foot in Depth

1 cu ft = 7.4805 gal

Width, ft	Length of tank, ft										
	2	2.5	3	3.5	4	4.5	5	5.5	6	6.5	7
2	29.92	37.40	44.88	52.36	59.84	67.32	74.81	82.29	89.77	97.25	104.73
2.5	....	46.75	56.10	65.45	74.80	84.16	93.51	102.80	112.21	121.56	130.91
3	....	....	67.32	78.54	89.77	100.99	112.21	123.43	134.65	145.87	157.09
3.5	....	....	....	91.64	104.73	117.82	130.91	144.00	157.09	170.18	183.27
4	....	....	....	....	119.69	134.65	149.61	164.57	179.53	194.49	209.45
4.5	....	....	....	....	....	151.48	168.31	185.14	201.97	218.80	235.63
5	....	....	....	....	....	....	187.01	205.71	224.41	243.11	261.82
5.5	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	226.28	246.86	267.43	288.00
6	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	269.30	291.74	314.18
6.5	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	316.05	340.36
7	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	366.54

Width, ft	Length of tank, ft									
	7.5	8	8.5	9	9.5	10	10.5	11	11.5	12
2	112.21	119.69	127.17	134.65	142.13	149.61	157.09	164.57	172.05	179.53
2.5	140.26	149.61	158.96	168.31	177.66	187.01	196.36	205.71	215.06	224.41
3	168.31	179.53	190.75	202.97	213.19	224.41	235.63	246.86	258.07	269.30
3.5	196.36	209.45	222.54	235.63	248.73	261.82	274.90	288.00	301.09	314.18
4	224.41	239.37	254.34	269.30	284.26	299.22	314.18	329.14	344.10	359.06
4.5	252.47	269.30	286.13	302.96	319.79	336.62	353.45	370.28	387.11	403.94
5	280.52	299.22	317.92	336.62	355.32	374.03	392.72	411.43	430.13	448.83
5.5	308.57	329.14	349.71	370.28	390.85	411.43	432.00	452.57	473.14	493.71
6	336.62	359.06	381.50	403.94	426.39	448.83	471.27	493.71	516.15	538.59
6.5	364.67	388.98	413.30	437.60	461.92	486.23	510.54	534.85	550.16	583.47
7	392.72	418.91	445.09	471.27	497.45	523.64	549.81	575.00	602.18	628.36
7.5	420.78	448.83	476.88	504.93	532.98	561.04	589.08	617.14	645.19	673.24
8	....	478.75	508.67	538.59	568.51	598.44	628.36	658.28	688.20	718.12
8.5	....	....	540.46	572.25	604.05	635.84	667.63	690.42	731.21	703 00
9	....	....	....	605.92	639.58	673.25	706.90	740.56	774.23	807.89
9.5	....	....	....	.....	675.11	710.65	746.17	781.71	817.24	852.77
10	....	....	....	.....	.....	748.05	785.45	822.86	860.26	897.66
10.5	....	....	....	.....	.....	.....	824.73	864 00	903.26	942.56
11	....	....	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	905.14	946.27	987.43
11.5	....	....	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	989.29	1032.3
12	....	....	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1077.2

To find weight of water in pounds at 62° F., multiply the number of gallons by 8⅓.

Example. To find number of gallons in a rectangular tank that is 7.5 ft by 10 ft., the water being 4 ft deep. Look in the extreme left-hand column for 7.5 and opposite to this in the column headed 10 read 561.04, which being multiplied by 4, the depth of water in the tank, gives 2244 2, the number of ons required.

(2) PLUMBING AND DRAINAGE

Reliable Rules for Plumbing and Drainage. The water-supply of buildings, including the apparatus for heating water, the system of drainage and sewage, and the various fixtures connected therewith, are installed by the plumber, usually in accordance with specifications prepared by the architect and subject to municipal regulations. An efficient and safe system of plumbing is a matter of vital importance. The following may be used as a reliable guide in any locality.

EXTRACTS * FROM THE RULES AND REGULATIONS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF BUILDINGS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK, ADOPTED APRIL 23, 1912

Definitions of Terms

(12)† The term PRIVATE SEWER is applied to main sewers that are not constructed by and under the supervision of the Department of Sewers.

(13) The term HOUSE-SEWER is applied to that part of the main drain or sewer extending from a point 2 ft outside of the outer wall of building-vault or area to its connection with public sewer, private sewer or cesspool.

(14) The term HOUSE-DRAIN is applied to that part of the main horizontal drain and its branches inside the walls of the building-vault or area and extending to and connecting with the house-sewer.

(15) The term SOIL-PIPE is applied to any vertical line of pipe extending through roof, receiving the discharge of one or more water-closets with or without other fixtures.

(16) The term WASTE-PIPE is applied to any pipe, extending through roof, receiving the discharge from any fixtures except water-closets.

(17) The term VENT-PIPE is applied to any special pipe provided to ventilate the system of piping and to prevent trap-siphonage and back-pressure.

Materials and Workmanship

Soil-Pipe and Vent-Pipe. (19) All cast-iron pipes and fittings must be uncoated, sound, cylindrical, and smooth, free from cracks, sand-holes and other defects, and of uniform thickness and of the grade known in commerce as EXTRA HEAVY.

(20) Pipe, including the hub, shall weigh not less than the following average weights per linear foot:

Diameters	Weights per linear foot, lb
2 in	5½
3 in	9½
4 in	13
5 in	17
6 in	20
7 in	27
8 in	33½
10 in	45
12 in	54

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* These numbered paragraphs, from (12) to (174), extracts from Building Regulations, are unedited, except in those details which affect typographical uniformity throughout the book. Editor-in-chief.

† Paragraph-numbers are the same as those in the Official Regulations. Missing numbers indicate paragraphs purposely omitted.

(22) All joints must be made with picked oakum and molten lead and be made gas-tight. Twelve (12) oz of fine, soft pig lead must be used at each joint for each inch in the diameter of the pipe.

(24) Wrought-iron and steel water-pipes, vent-pipes, waste-pipes and soil-pipes must be galvanized.

(29) All brass pipe for soil-pipes, waste-pipes, and vent-pipes and solder-nipples must be thoroughly annealed, seamless-drawn, brass tubing of standard iron-pipe gauge.

Lead Waste-Pipes. (37) The use of lead pipes is restricted to the short branches of the soil-pipes and waste-pipes, bends, traps, and roof-connections of inside leaders. SHORT BRANCHES of lead pipe shall be construed to mean not more than

8 ft of 1½-in pipe
5 ft of 2-in pipe
2 ft of 3-in pipe
2 ft of 4-in pipe

(38) All connections between lead pipes and between lead and brass or copper pipes must be made by means of WIPED solder joints.

(39) All lead waste, soil, vent, and flush-pipes must be of the best quality, known in commerce as *D*, and of not less than the following weights per linear foot:

Diameters	Weights per linear foot, lb
1¼ in (for flush-pipes only)	2½
1½ in	3
2 in	4
3 in	6
4 and 4½ in	8

(40) All lead traps and bends must be of the same weights and thicknesses as their corresponding pipe-branches. Sheet lead for roof-flashings must be 6-lb lead and must extend not less than 6 in from the pipe, and the joint made water-tight.

(41) Copper tubing when used for inside leader roof-connections must be seamless-drawn tubing not less than 22 gauge, and when used for roof-flashings must be not less than 18 gauge.

Yard, Area and Other Drains

(54) All yards, areas, and courts exceeding 15 sq ft in area must be drained into the sewer. A shaft open at the top and not exceeding 25 sq ft in area, and which cannot be connected in back of a leader, yard, court, or area drain-trap, may be drained into a publicly placed, water-supplied, properly tapped and vented slop-sink.

(59) These drains, when sewer-connected, must have connections not less than 3 in in diameter. They should be controlled by one trap, the leader-trap if possible.

Leaders

(60) Every building shall be kept provided with proper metallic gutters and rain-leaders for conducting water from all roofs in such manner as shall protect the walls and foundations of said buildings from injury. In no case shall the water from any rain-leader be allowed to flow upon the sidewalk or adjoining property, but the same shall be conducted by proper pipes to the sewer. If there be no sewer in the street upon which the buildings front, then the water

from said leaders shall be conducted by proper pipes below the surface of the sidewalk to the street-gutter, or may be conducted by extra-heavy cast-iron pipe to a leeching cesspool located at least 20 ft from any building. No plumbing fixtures shall discharge into a leeching cesspool.

(61) Inside leaders must be made of cast iron, wrought iron, or steel, with roof-connections made gas-tight and water-tight by means of a heavy lead or copper-drawn tubing wiped to a brass ferrule or nipple calked or screwed into the pipe.

(62) Outside leaders may be of sheet metal, but they must connect with the house-drain by means of a cast-iron pipe extending vertically 5 ft above the grade-level.

(63) Leaders must be trapped with cast-iron running traps so placed as to prevent freezing.

(64) Rain-water leaders must not be used as soil-pipes, waste-pipes or vent-pipes, nor shall any such pipe be used as a leader.

The House-Sewer, House-Drain, House-Trap and Fresh-Air Inlet

(70) The house-drain must properly connect with the house-sewer at a point 2 ft outside of the outer front vault or area-wall of the building. An arched or other proper opening in the wall must be provided for the drain to prevent damage by settlement.

(71) The house-drain if above the cellar-floor, must be supported at intervals of 10 ft by 8-in brick piers or suspended from the floor-beams, or be otherwise properly supported by heavy iron-pipe hangers at intervals of not more than 10 ft.

(72) No steam-exhaust, boiler blow-off, or drip-pipe shall be connected with the house-drain. Such pipes must first discharge into a proper condensing tank, and from this a proper outlet to the house-sewer outside of the building must be provided. In low-pressure steam-systems the condensing tank may be omitted, but the waste-connection must be otherwise as above required.

(73) The house-drain and house-sewer must be run as direct as possible, with a fall of at least ¼ in per ft, all changes in direction made with proper fittings, and all connections made with Y branches and one-eighth and one-sixteenth bends.

Size of House-Sewer. (74) The house-sewer and house-drain must be at least 4 in in diameter where water-closets discharge into them. Where rain-water discharges into them, the house-sewer and house-drain up to the leader-connections must be in accordance with the following table:

Diameter of pipe, in	For a fall of ¼ in per foot, sq ft of drainage-area	For a fall of ½ in per foot, sq ft of drainage-area
3	1 200	1 500
4	2 500	3 200
5	4 500	6 000
6	8 000	10 000
7	12 400	15 600
8	18 000	22 500
9	25 000	31 500
10	41 000	59 000
12	69 000	98 000

(75) Full-size Y and T-branch fittings for hand-hole clean-outs must be provided where required on house-drain and its branches. No clean-out need be larger than 6 in in diameter.

(76) An iron running-trap must be placed on the house-drain near the wall of the house, and on the sewer-side of all connections, except a Y fitting used to receive the discharge from an automatic sewage-lift, oil-separator or a drip-pipe where one is used. If placed outside the house or below the cellar-floor it must be made accessible in a brick manhole, the walls of which must be 8 in thick, with an iron or flagstone cover. When outside the house it must never be less than 3 ft below the surface of the ground.

(79) A FRESH-AIR INLET must be connected with the house-drain just inside of the house-trap and extended to the outer air, terminating with a return-bend, with open end 1 ft above the grade at most available point, to be determined by the superintendent of buildings and shown on plans. The fresh-air inlet-pipe must be of the same diameter as the house-drain. An automatic device approved by the superintendent of buildings may be used when set in a manner satisfactory to him.

Note. The fresh-air inlet and running trap prescribed by Sections 76 and 79 are not required in many cities, and it is better to omit them where not required.

Soil-Pipes, Waste-Pipes and Vent-Pipes

(81) All main, soil, waste or vent-pipes must be of iron, steel, or brass.

(90) The diameters of soil-pipes and waste-pipes must not be less than those given in the following table:

Main soil-pipes	4 in
Main soil-pipes for water-closets on five or more floors	5 in
Branch soil-pipes	4 in
Main waste-pipes	2 in
Main waste-pipes for kitchen-sinks on five or more floors	3 in
Branch waste-pipes for laundry-tubs	1½ in
When set in ranges of three or more	2 in
Branch waste for kitchen-sinks	2 in
Branch waste for urinals	2 in
Branch waste for other fixtures	1½ in

(97) The SIZES OF VENT-PIPES throughout must not be less than the following:

For main vents, 2 in in diameter; for water-closets on three or more floors, 3 in in diameter; for other fixtures on less than seven floors, 2 in in diameter; 3-in vent-pipe will be permitted for less than nine stories; for more than eight and less than sixteen stories, 4 in in diameter; for more than fifteen and less than twenty-two stories, 5 in in diameter; for more than twenty-one stories the size of vent-pipe shall be determined by the superintendent of buildings.

For fixtures other than water-closets and slop-sinks and for more than eight stories, vent-pipes may be 1 in smaller than above stated.

Traps

(101) Every fixture must be separately trapped by a water-sealing trap placed as close to the fixture-outlet as possible and no trap shall be placed more than 2 ft from any fixture.

(102) A set of not more than three wash-trays may connect with a single trap, or into the trap of an adjoining sink, provided both sink and tub waste-outlets are on the same side of the waste-line and the sink is nearest the line. When so connected the waste-pipe from the wash-trays must be branched in below the water-seal.

(103) The discharge from any fixture must not pass through more than one trap before reaching the house-drain.

(109) All earthenware traps must have approved heavy brass floor-plates properly secured to the branch soil-pipe and bolted to the trap-flange and the joint made gas-tight. The use of rubber washers for floor-connections is prohibited. All floor-flanges must be set in place and inspected before any water-closet is set thereon.

(110) No trap shall be placed at the foot of main soil- and waste-pipe lines.

(112) The sizes for traps must not be less than those given in the following table:

Traps for water-closets	4 in in diam.
Traps for slop-sinks	2 in in diam.
Traps for kitchen-sinks	2 in in diam.
Traps for wash-trays	2 in in diam.
Traps for urinals	2 in in diam.
Traps for shower-baths	2 in in diam.
Traps for other fixtures	1½ in in diam.

Traps for leaders, areas, floor and other drains must be at least 3 in in diameter.

Water-Closets

(124) In tenement-houses, lodging-houses, factories, workshops, and all public buildings the entire water-closet apartment and side walls to a height of 6 in from the floor, except at the door, must be made water-proof with asphalt, cement, tile, metal, or other water-proof material as approved by the superintendent of buildings.

(127) The general water-closet accommodation of any building cannot be placed in the cellar nor can any water-closet be placed outside of a building, except to replace an existing water-closet.

(130) In all sewer-connected occupied buildings there must be at least one water-closet, and there must be additional closets so that there will never be more than fifteen persons per closet.

(123) In lodging-houses there must be one water-closet on each floor, and when there are more than fifteen persons on a floor, there must be one additional water-closet for every fifteen additional persons or fraction thereof.

(135) Water-closets and urinals must never be connected directly with or flushed from the water-supply pipes, except when flushometer-valves are used.

(139) Iron water-closet and urinal-cisterns and automatic water-closets and urinal-cisterns are prohibited unless approved by the superintendent of buildings.

(140) The copper lining of water-closets and urinal-cisterns must not be lighter than 10-oz copper.

(141) Water-closet flush-pipes must not be less than 1¼ in and urinal flush-pipes 1 in in diameter, and if of lead must not weigh less than 2½ lb and 2 lb per lin ft. Flush-couplings must be of full size of the pipe.

Sinks and Wash-Tubs

(147) In all houses sinks must be entirely open, on iron legs or brackets, without any enclosing woodwork.

(148) Wooden wash-tubs are prohibited, except when used in hotels, restaurants or bottling establishments for washing dishes or bottles. Cement or artificial stone tubs will not be permitted unless approved by the superintendent of buildings.

Testing the Plumbing-System

(171) The entire plumbing and draining-system within the building must be tested by the plumber, in the presence of a plumbing inspector, under a water-test. All pipes must remain uncovered in every part until they have successfully passed the test. The plumber must securely close all openings as directed by the inspector of plumbing. The use of wooden plugs for this purpose is prohibited.

(172) The water-test will be applied by closing the lower end of the main house-drain and filling the pipes to the highest opening above the roof with water. The water-test shall include at one time the house-drain and branches, all vertical and horizontal soil, waste and vent and leader-lines and all branches therefrom to point above the surface of the finished floor and beyond the finished face of walls and partitions. If the drain or any part of the system is to be tested separately, there must be a head of water at least 6 ft above all parts of the work so tested, and special provision must be made for including all joints and connections in at least one test.

(173) After the completion of the plumbing-work, in any new or altered building and before the building is occupied, a final smoke-test must be applied in the presence of the plumbing-inspector. Except that for a building not over six stories in height, a peppermint-test may be applied.

(174) The material and labor for the tests must be furnished by the plumber. Where the peppermint-test is used, 2 oz of oil of peppermint must be provided for each line up to five stories and cellar in height, and an additional ounce of oil of peppermint must be provided for each line when lines are more than five stories in height.

Traps

A trap is a device which permits the free passage of liquids through it, and also of any solid matters that may be carried by the liquid, while at the same time preventing the passage of air or gas in either direction. Traps used for plumbing purposes are shaped so that an amount of water sufficient to close the passage and prevent the passage of air will stand in them at all times. The principle of the common trap is shown in Fig. 7. The pipe *T* receives the waste from a sink or wash-basin, while the lower end *B* connects with the sewer. Sewer-gas rises in pipe *B*, but is prevented from passing to the fixture by the water which stands in the trap. The depth of water through which gas must pass to effect a passage is termed the WATER-SEAL. The water-seal in the trap, Fig. 7, is the distance *S*. All plumbing-pipes which connect with a sewerage-system require to be trapped to prevent sewer-gas from passing through them to the fixture and into the room in which the fixture is located.

Ventilation of Traps. When a considerable body of water rushes down through a pipe it forms a suction, and if the pipe is made air-tight, this suction is often sufficient to prevent enough water remaining in the trap to form a seal, thus leaving an opening for the passage of sewer-gas, as in Fig. 8. By connecting the upper bend of a trap with the outside air by means of a pipe, as at *V*, Fig. 8, the suction will be stopped, and the water in the pipe *T* will not fall below the level of the outlet at *b*. Several non-siphoning traps have been patented for the purpose of obviating the necessity of back-venting, but they are used to a comparatively limited extent. There are also several varieties of back-pressure traps, designed to prevent the sewage from flowing back into the house-drain. These are in the nature of check-valves, and are used principally in seaport-towns where tide-water might possibly force the sewage back. The more common shapes of lead traps used in plumbing, with their trade names, are shown in Fig. 9. The same shapes are also made of cast iron. The pipes marked *V* are the vent-connections. The drum-trap shown in Fig. 10 has a deeper seal than those shown in Fig. 9, and is commonly used under kitchen-sinks, bath-tubs and wash-trays. Drum-traps are not easily siphoned, even when not vented. The traps for water-closets are commonly formed in the fixture.

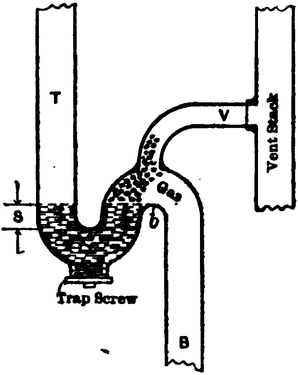

Fig. 7. Water-seal of Trap

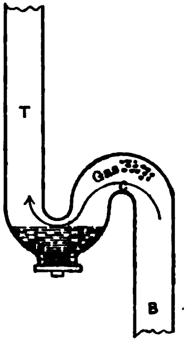

Fig. 8. Water-trap Unsealed

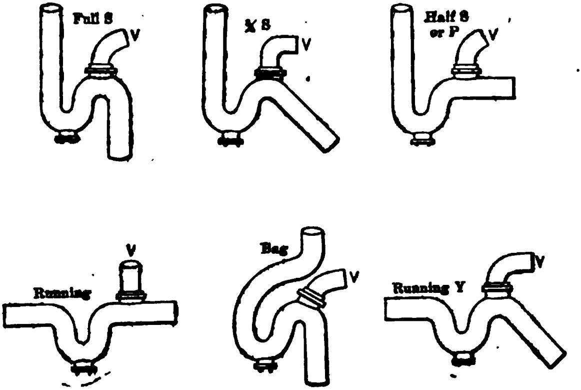

Fig. 9. Types of Traps

Grease-Traps. The waste-water from kitchen-sinks always contains considerable grease, which if permitted to enter the soil-pipe system is liable to clog the pipes by adhering to the walls. In certain localities grease gives much more trouble than in others, due to the chemical composition of the water. In Colorado and many other places it is necessary to connect the waste from kitchen-sinks with a large grease-trap, which collects and holds the grease, but permits the water to pass into the sewer system. After a time the accumulated grease fills the trap and must be removed. On account of this it is desirable to use a large trap, and whenever possible it should be placed underground, just outside the house, and as near to the sink as practicable. Grease-traps to be placed underground are commonly made of 24-in vitrified drain-tile or cement pipe, and should be about 4 ft deep. They may also be built of brick in cement mortar. Fig. 11 shows a section through such a grease-trap and the inlet and outlet-pipes. When the sink is in a basement or an upper story, or when the building occupies the entire lot, the grease-trap must be placed under the sink. When so placed, a round lead trap 12 or 14 in in diameter may be used, with a large trap-screw in the top for removing the grease. Fig. 12 shows a section through such a trap and the way in which the connections should be made. A better form of grease-trap is made of cast iron. Some city ordinances require that inside grease-traps shall have a chilling-jacket for the purpose of more perfectly separating the grease and thus preventing any of it from entering the waste-pipes. To be effective, a grease-trap must have a capacity of at least twice the amount of greasy water that will be discharged into it at any one time.

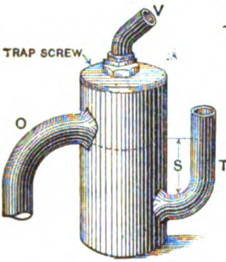

Fig. 10. Drum-trap

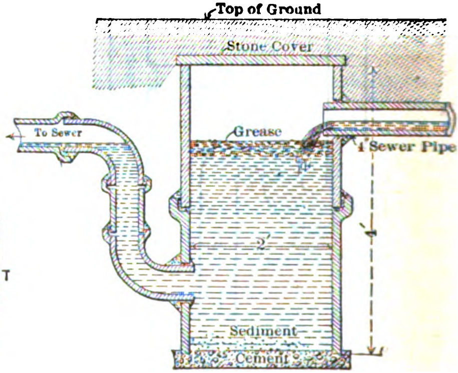

Fig. 11. Outdoor Grease-trap

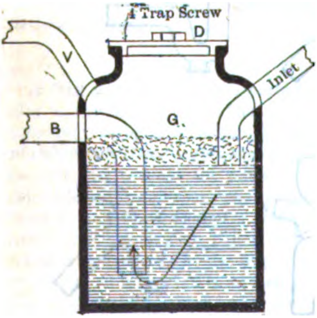

Fig. 12. Lead Grease-trap

Supply-Pipes. These may be of lead, brass, galvanized iron, tin-lined lead, or block tin. Lead pipe offers the least resistance to the flow of water, is easily bent to suit any situation, and easy curves are readily made. It is generally considered more durable underground than galvanized-iron pipe. The grade known as *A*, or STRONG, is the lightest that should ever be used, and when the supply is taken from city mains, in which there is a considerable pressure, *AA*, or extra-strong pipe, should be used. Galvanized-iron pipe is probably more extensively used than any other material for water-supply pipes in buildings, except where nickel-plated pipe is required, in which case brass piping is commonly used. Brass pipe used for water-supply should be what is known as IRON-PIPE SIZE. Brass piping is preferable to galvanized iron or lead for conveying hot water, and is largely used in the better class of buildings. Tin-lined iron and lead pipes and pipes of block tin are usually considered as offering the greatest resistance to corrosion or chemical action, and should always be used for conveying ale, beer and other liquors. Tin-lined iron pipe is made by pouring melted tin into a wrought-iron pipe. While in a fluid state the tin is inseparably united to the iron, and the result is one solid pipe composed of two metals which CANNOT BE TORN APART. It is essentially different from iron pipe merely dipped in tin, and immeasurably superior to iron pipe lined with a separate tin pipe that will become detached. Its fittings are lined with tin to match. Hot water will not injure it, rats will not gnaw it, and thieves will not cut it out. Either hot or cold water may stand in block-tin pipes and yet be drawn from them pure and free from poison or rust. Lead-lined pipe is made in the same way and insures delivering the water to the house just as it comes from the mains unchanged by the chemical action which often results from contact with wrought-iron pipe.

Seamless-Drawn Benedict Nickel Tubing is used to some extent for the exposed plumbing-pipes in high-class residences, office and public buildings. Being pure white metal throughout it cannot rub or wear BRASSY or become discolored. It is made in all the regular iron-pipe sizes, and necessary fittings are supplied of the same metal.*

House-Tanks. Where the pressure in the street-mains is not great enough to furnish a sufficient volume of water for supplying the fixtures at all times, or in cases of a private water-supply, a tank should be placed in the attic, or elevated at least 6 ft above the highest fixture to be supplied. In some cases the fixtures in the lower story are supplied direct from the street mains, while those in the upper story are supplied from a tank. The advantage of a tank is that it will fill gradually from a very small stream, and thus form a reservoir from which a larger volume can be drawn in a shorter space of time than could be obtained direct from the service-pipes. Storage-tanks should always be provided with an overflow-pipe of ample size and when supplied from the street-mains the supply should be controlled by a ball-cock and float. Storage-tanks of moderate size are preferably made of wood lined with planished or tinned copper. Sheet lead, zinc or galvanized iron should not be used for lining tanks containing water for drinking or cooking purposes, and are not as durable as copper, even when the effect on the water need not be considered.

The Size of Tank Required will depend largely upon the character of the supply. Tanks supplied from the street-main in which the pressure is fairly constant need not have a capacity exceeding 160 gal. Where the water is pumped into the tank by a windmill or hot-air engine, the tank should have a capacity sufficient for a three or four days' supply at least.

* For further information consult the Benedict & Burnham Manufacturing Company, Waterbury, Conn.

Amount of Water Required for Various Purposes. The amount of water required for household purposes has been found to be about 25 gal for each person, large or small, but waste will triple that amount sometimes. A horse will drink about 7 gal per day and a cow from 5 to 6 gal per day. A carriage requires from 9 to 16 gal for washing.

Size of Supply-Pipes. The proper diameter of supply-pipes depends upon several considerations, such as the number and size of faucets that are likely to be discharging water at the same time, the urgency of the demand, the length of the pipes and number of angles, and upon the pressure. There is no objection to having a pipe larger than is really necessary, except from the standpoint of cost. Service-pipes should always be one size larger than the tap in the street-main. The following table affords a fair guide for proportioning the supply-branches to plumbing-fixtures. If the pressure is less than 20 lb per sq in the system may be rated as LOW PRESSURE, and if above 20 lb as HIGH PRESSURE.

Supply-branches	Low pressure, in	High pressure, in
To Bath-cocks	¾ to 1	½ to ⅝
Basin-cocks	½	⅜
Water-closet flush-tank	½	⅜
Water-closet flush-valve	1¼ to 1½	1¼ to 1½
Sitz or foot-bath	½ to ¾	½
Kitchen sinks	⅝ to ¾	½ to ⅝
Pantry sinks	½	½
Slop-sinks	⅝ to ¾	½ to ⅝
Urinals	⅝ to ¾	½ to ⅝

With high-pressure systems, dwellings of five or six rooms are sometimes, for economy, supplied entirely through ¾-in pipe.

Minimum Diameter of Waste-Pipes. The following are considered as the smallest diameters allowable for waste-pipes. The diameters required in New York City are given on page 1324.

Bath and sink-wastes, 1½ in.

Basin and urinal-wastes, 1¼ in.

Wash-trays, 1½ in from each compartment, entered into 4-in drum-trap and 2-in outlet from trap.

Water-closet trap, 2½ in.

Approximate Spacing for Tacks on Lead Pipes

Size of pipe, in	Vertical pipe		Horizontal pipe	
	Distance apart		Distance apart	
	Hot, in	Cold, in	Hot, in	Cold, in
½	19	25	14	17
⅝	20	26	15	18
¾	21	27	16	19
1	22	28	17	20
1¼	23	29	18	21
1½	24	30	18	22

Designation of Lead Pipe. The different thicknesses of lead pipe were formerly designated by letters as in Table H, page 1332, but are now more commonly designated as in Table G, following, which may be considered as generally accepted by dealers.

Table G. Weights and Sizes of Lead Pipe

Caliber	Weight per foot	
	lb	oz
¼-in Tubing	....	6
Fish seine	1	4
⅜-in Aqueduct	....	8
Extra light	....	9
Light	....	12
Medium	1	....
Strong	1	8
Extra strong	2	....
½-in Aqueduct	....	10
Extra light	....	12
Light	1	....
Medium	1	4
Strong	1	12
AA	2	....
Extra strong	2	8
Extra extra strong	3	....
⅝-in Aqueduct	....	12
Extra light	1	4
Light	1	12
Medium	2	....
Strong	2	8
Extra strong	3	....
Extra extra strong	3	8
¾-in Aqueduct	1	....
Extra light	1	8
Light	2	....
Medium	2	4
Strong	3	....
Extra strong	3	8
Extra extra strong	4	....
⅞-in Aqueduct	1	8
Extra light	2	....
Light	2	8
1-in Aqueduct	1	8
Extra light	2	....
Light	2	8
Medium	3	4
Strong	4	....
Extra strong	4	12
Extra extra strong	5	8
1¼-in Aqueduct	2	....
Extra light	2	8
Light	3	....
Medium	3	12
Strong	4	12
Extra strong	6	....
Extra extra strong	6	12
1½-in Aqueduct	3	....
Extra light	3	8
Light	4	....
Medium	5	....
Strong	6	....
Extra strong	7	8
Extra extra strong	9	....
1¾-in Extra light	3	12
Light	4	8
Medium	5	8
Strong	6	8
Extra strong	8	....
2-in Waste	3	....
Extra light	4	....
Light	5	....
Medium	7	....
Strong	8	....
Extra strong	9	....
Extra extra strong	10	8
2½-in Waste	4	....
Light	6	....
Medium, 3/16 thick	8	....
Strong, ¼ thick	11	....
Extra strong, 5/16 thick	14	....
Extra extra strong, ⅜ thick	17	....
3-in Waste	4	....
Light	6	3
Medium, 3/16 thick	9	....
Strong, ¼ thick	12	....
Extra strong, 5/16 thick	16	....
Extra extra strong, ⅜ thick	20	....
3½-in Waste	5	....
Strong, ¼ thick	15	....
Extra strong, 5/16 thick	18	....
4-in Waste	5	....
Medium	10	....
Strong, ¼ thick	16	....
Extra strong, 5/16 thick	22	....
Extra extra strong, ⅜ thick	25	....
5-in Waste	8	....

Coils of supply-pipe weigh about 200 lb; aqueduct about 90 lb; suction-pipe, 100 to 180 lb each.

Block-tin pipe is stronger for a given weight per foot than lead pipe or tin-lined lead pipe. As compared with lead pipe its strength is as 3½ to 1.

Tin-lined and lead-lined iron pipe is made with inside diameters of ½, ¾, 1, 1¼, 1½ and 2 in, and in 10-ft lengths, threaded without couplings. Tin-lined and lead-lined fittings are also made (see page 1329).

Weights and Sizes of Sheet Lead

Thickness, in...	1/24	3/56	1/16	1/16 full	5/64	3/32	1/8	1/6	1/5	1/5 full	1/4	1/3	3/8
Lb per sq ft.....	2½	3	3½	4	5	6	8	10	12	14	16	20	24

Table H. Thickness and Strength of Lead Pipes

Caliber, in	Mark	Weight per foot, lb oz	Thickness, in	Mean bursting-pressure, lb	Safe working pressure, lb	Caliber, in	Mark	Weight per foot, lb oz	Thickness, in	Mean bursting-pressure, lb	Safe working pressure, lb
⅜	AAA	1 12	0.18	1 968	492	1	A	4 0	0.21	857	214
⅜	AA	1 5	0.15	1 627	406	1	B	3 4	0.17	745	186
⅜	A	1 2	0.13	1 381	347	1	C	2 8	0.14	562	140
⅜	B	1 0	0.125	1 342	335	1	D	2 4	0.125	518	129
⅜	C	0 14	0.11	1 187	296	1	E	2 0	0.10	475	118
⅜	....	0 10	0.087	1 085	271	1	....	1 8	0.09	325	81
7/16	....	0 9½	0.08	775	193	1¼	AAA	6 12	0.275	962	240
½	AAA	3 0	0.25	1 787	446	1¼	AA	5 12	0.25	823	205
½	....	2 8	0.225	1 655	413	1¼	A	4 11	0.21	685	171
½	AA	2 0	0.18	1 393	343	1¼	B	3 11	0.17	546	136
½	A	1 10	0.16	1 285	321	1¼	C	3 0	0.135	420	105
½	B	1 3	0.125	980	245	1¼	D	2 8	0.125	350	87
½	C	1 0	0.10	782	195	1¼	....	2 0	0.095	322	80
½	D	0 9	0.065	468	117	1½	AAA	8 0	0.29	742	185
½	....	0 10	0.07	556	139	1½	AA	7 0	0.25	700	175
½	....	0 12	0.09	625	156	1½	A	6 4	0.22	628	157
⅝	AAA	3 8	0.23	1 548	387	1½	B	5 0	0.18	506	126
⅝	AA	2 12	0.21	1 380	345	½	C	4 4	0.15	430	107
⅝	A	2 8	0.18	1 152	288	½	D	3 8	0.14	315	78
⅝	B	2 0	0.16	987	246	1½	....	3 0	0.12	245	61
⅝	C	1 7	0.117	795	198	1¾	B	5 0	.....	....	116
⅝	D	1 4	0.10	708	177	1¾	C	4 0	.....	....	93
¾	AAA	4 14	0.29	1 462	365	1¾	D	3 10	0.125	318	79
¾	AA	3 8	0.225	1 225	306	2	AAA	10 11	0.30	611	152
¾	A	3 0	0.19	1 072	268	2	AA	8 14	0.25	511	127
¾	B	2 3	0.15	865	216	2	A	7 0	0.21	405	101
¾	C	1 12	0.125	782	195	2	B	6 0	0.19	360	90
¾	D	1 3	0.09	505	126	2	C	5 0	0.16	260	65
1	AAA	6 0	0.30	1 230	307	2	D	4 0	0.09	200	50
1	AA	4 8	0.23	910	227	...	....	.....	.....	....	....

Weight and Sizes of Pure Block-Tin Pipe

Size inside diameter in	Weight per foot, oz	Size inside diameter in	Weight per foot, lb
3/16	4	3/4	9, 12, 16
1/4	4, 5, 6	1	12, 16
5/16	4, 5, 6, 8	1 1/4	20, 28
3/8	4, 5, 6, 8	1 1/2	24 and upwards
1/2	5, 6, 8, 10	2	32 and upwards
5/8	9, 12, 16	....	....

Sewer-Pipe

There are three kinds of sewer-pipe or drain-pipe offered in the market, (1) SALT-GLAZED VITRIFIED CLAY PIPE, (2) SLIP-GLAZED CLAY PIPE and (3) CEMENT PIPE. The name of the latter sufficiently indicates what it is without any description. The SLIP-GLAZED CLAY PIPE is made of what is known as FIRE-CLAY, such as fire-brick clay, which retains its porosity when subjected to the most intense heat. It is glazed with another kind of clay, known as SLIP, which, when subjected to heat, melts, creating a very thin glazing, and which, being A FOREIGN SUBSTANCE TO THE BODY OF THE PIPE, is liable to wear or scale off. SALT-GLAZED CLAY PIPE is made of a clay, which, when subjected to an intense heat, becomes vitreous or glass-like. It is glazed by the vapors of salt, the salt being thrown in the fire, thereby creating a vapor which unites chemically with the clay, and forms a glazing, which will not scale or wear off, and is impervious to the action of acids, gases, steam, or any other known substance. It unites with the clay in such a manner as to form PART OF THE BODY OF THE PIPE, and is therefore indestructible. Salt-glazed pipe can only be made from clay that will vitrify, that is, when subjected to an intense heat will become a hard, compact, nonporous body. It should be borne in mind that SLIP-GLAZING is only resorted to when the clays are of such a nature that they will not vitrify.

The Material of Drain-Pipes should be a hard, vitreous substance; not porous, since this would lead to the absorption of the impure contents of the drain, would have less actual strength to resist pressure, would be more affected by the frost or by the formation of crystals in connection with certain chemical combinations, or would be more susceptible to the chemical action of the constituents of the sewerage.

Sewer-Pipes Should be Salt-Glazed, as this requires them to be subjected to a much more intense heat than is needed for SLIP-GLAZING, and thus secures a harder material. Cement pipes made without metal reinforcement have not proved sufficiently strong and durable to be used with confidence in any important work. When reinforced with metal, however, they have ample strength, and reinforced-cement sewer-pipes of large diameter are used to a considerable extent in Europe.

For determining the diameter of house-sewers, the table on page 1323 will serve as a good guide. Storm-sewers should be proportioned to the area drained.

The maximum rainfall, as shown by statistics, is about 1 in per hour, except during very heavy storms, equal to 27 225 gal per hour for each acre, or 453 gal per minute per acre. Owing to various obstructions, not more than from 50 to 75% of the rainfall will reach the drain within the same hour, and allowance should be made for this fact in determining size of storm-sewer required.

Carrying Capacity of Sewer-Pipe

Gallons per minute

Size of pipe, in	Fall per 100 ft							
	1 in	2 in	3 in	6 in	9 in	1 ft	2 ft	3 ft
3	13	19	23	32	40	46	64	79
4	27	38	47	66	81	93	131	163
6	75	105	129	183	224	258	364	450
8	153	216	265	375	460	527	750	923
9	205	290	355	503	617	712	1 006	1 240
10	267	378	463	755	803	926	1 310	1 613
12	422	596	730	1 033	1 273	1 468	2 076	2 554
15	740	1 021	1 282	1 818	2 224	2 464	3 617	4 467
18	1 168	1 651	2 022	2 860	3 508	4 045	5 704	7 047
24	2 396	3 387	4 155	5 874	7 202	8 303	11 744	14 466
27	4 407	6 211	7 674	10 883	13 257	15 344	21 771	26 622
30	5 906	8 352	10 223	14 298	17 714	20 204	28 129	35 513
36	9 707	13 769	16 816	23 763	29 284	33 722	47 523	58 406

Quantities of Cement, Sand and of Cement Mortar for Sewer-Pipe Joints

Prepared by J. N. Hazlehurst

For each 100 ft of sewer (with Portland cement, 375 lb net per bbl)

Size of pipe, in	Length, ft	Mortar, cu yd	Proportions: 1 Cement to					
			1 Sand			2 Sand		
			Cement, bbl	Sand, cu yd	Pipe per bbl cement, lin ft	Cement, bbl	Sand, cu yd	Pipe per bbl cement, lin ft
6	2½	0.003	0.01248	0.00201	803	0.00855	0.00252	1 168
8	2½	0.038	0.15808	0.02546	633	0.10830	0.03192	923
10	2½	0.058	0.24128	0.03886	410	0.16530	0.04872	605
12	2½	0.089	0.37024	0.05963	270	0.25365	0.07476	394
15	2½	0.123	0.51268	0.08241	195	0.35055	0.10332	285
18	2½	0.167	0.69472	0.11189	144	0.47595	0.14018	210
20	2½	0.237	0.98592	0.15879	101	0.67545	0.19908	148
24	2½	0.299	1.24384	0.20033	80	0.85215	0.25116	117
27	3	0.492	2.04672	0.32964	49	1.40220	0.41328	71
30	3	0.548	2.27968	0.36716	44	1.56180	0.46032	64
36	3	0.849	3.53184	0.56883	29	2.41965	0.71316	41

Plumbing Specialties

The Kenney Flushometer. This is a gravity valve designed for flushing all water-closets, urinals and slop-sinks in a building direct from one tank situated in the attic or where most desirable, thus dispensing with the individual overhead tank. The pipe from the main tank is run down to the different floors either exposed or concealed and branches taken off from there to the flushometer. The operation of the flushometer is to pull the handle forward, which raises the main valve off its seat, making a direct connection from the flushometer to the tank. After the handle is released the valve closes slowly of its own accord against a high or low pressure. It is constructed without springs or cup-leathers and closes by gravity, is built to stand the hardest service, and yet is so simple in construction and operation that the same valve is used for all requirements, the only differences in adjustment being those necessary for work on high or low pressure. The flushometer is extensively used for flushing closets in buildings in the Eastern States, including many large office-buildings, factories, schools, hospitals, and the better class of residences; also on steamships and yachts.

Filters. There are few cities in which the public water-supply is not greatly improved in wholesomeness by being filtered, and in many places filtering is absolutely necessary. The filter should be large enough so that the velocity of the water passing through it will be low and it should be so arranged that the flow of water can be reversed and the accumulated impurities washed into a waste-pipe. In the country a filter suitable for rain-water may be built underground, the filtering process being accomplished by beds of sand and gravel. For city buildings, however, a portable filter located in the basement should be used. An ordinary sand filter, either pressure or gravity, will clarify water of all mechanical impurities, suitable for plunge-baths, and other general uses in a building. To provide a perfectly sterile water, however, the filter must be fitted with a coagulating apparatus to automatically feed a proportionate dose of coagulant to the raw water. Those so-called filters which are made to screw onto the nozzle of an ordinary faucet should be considered merely as strainers, and even for that purpose they soon become foul.

Instantaneous Water-Heaters are a great convenience for heating water for baths and wash-basins in buildings in which a constant supply of hot water is not provided, and especially in residences where the cooking is done by gas. They are cylindrical in shape, made of nickel-plated copper, and are usually set on a nickel-plated shelf attached to the wall close to the fixture to be supplied. A heater 10½ in in diameter and 30 in high will heat 20 gal of water in eight minutes at a cost of 1½ to 2 cts with gas at $1 per 1 000 cu ft. A large line of these heaters is made by the Humphry Manufacturing and Plating Company, Kalamazoo, Mich., for both gas and gasolene, although gas is preferable when it can be had. The cost of heaters varies from $15 to $45, according to size.

An Automatic Water-Heater which maintains water at any desired temperature without attention, provided the building has a supply of live steam, is made by James B. Clow & Sons, the supply of steam being automatically regulated by a thermostat. It will be found especially desirable in hospitals, hotels, apartment-houses and public institutions. The heater is made in four sizes, with capacities of 1 500, 2 500, 4 000 and 6 500 gal per hour.

The Climax Cellar-Drainer* is a simple device for raising water from 6 to 10 ft without attention or power, except a supply of steam or water. It is used principally for draining cellars, wheel-pits, furnace-pits, etc., when they are too low to drain into the sewer. For such places a box or barrel is sunk so that all of the water will run into it, and the drainer is set in this receiver and the discharge-pipe run to a sink or open drain. The drainer performs its functions by passing water or steam under pressure through the drainer-point or jet, thus creating a suction which draws the water from the receiver in which it is placed into the discharge-pipe, and both the jet-water and cellar-water are discharged

* Manufactured by Jas. B. Clow & Sons.

together. As long as the city water or steam passes through the drainer-pipe, this suction and discharge continues. The supply of water or steam is turned on or off automatically, so that there is no consumption of city water or steam except when the drainer is removing water. This drainer will operate with a pressure of 15 lb or more, the heavier the pressure the greater the amount of dead water discharged. When the drainage-water does not have to be raised more than 10 ft, this is the most economical apparatus that can be used, as the amount of city water consumed is very small. The Climax Drainer is made in six sizes, costing from $25 to $160.

Sewage-Ejectment. Mechanical ejectment of sewage is resorted to in cases where the street-sewer is above the level of the area to be drained. This condition is found principally in the subbasement-floors of tall buildings, underground public-comfort stations and underground passenger-stations. A system of mechanical ejectment consists of a gravity drainage-system to a receiving tank or sump located in a water-tight pit at the lowest part of the drainage-system, and a pump or conpressed-air ejector to raise the sewage and discharge it into the street-sewer. There are three types of apparatus used to raise sewage to the street sewers, centrifugal pumps, piston-pumps, and compressed-air ejectors. The compressed-air ejectors, however, are commonly used owing to their numerous advantages. They are automatic and almost noiseless in operation, are perfectly odorless, and have but few working parts that can get out of order. Sewage-ejectment apparatus is generally installed in duplicate so that one set may be cut out of service for cleaning or repairs, without interrupting the drainage-service.

Plunge-Baths

AN EXAMPLE OF THE CONSTRUCTION AND DETAILS OF A SMALL PLUNGE-BATH OR SWIMMING-BATH. The following is a description, with illustrations, of the bath in the house of the Racquet and Tennis Club on Forty-third Street, New York City.*

"The swimming-bath has inside dimensions of 15 by 22 ft and is about 9 ft in total depth. It was built in a pit about 19 by 26 ft and about 8 ft deep below the main excavation, which was blasted out of solid rock. A concrete invert 1 ft or more in thickness was laid over the bottom, serving as a footing on which the 12-in walls of common red brick were laid in cement. They were built close to the rough vertical faces of the excavation, and the spaces behind them were filled with concrete or cement mortar or were flushed with grout. Then on the inner surface of the walls and on top of the concrete bottom lining a waterproofing of six layers of felt with lapped joints was mopped on with hot tar and flashed around the iron outlet-pipe, which also had a wide calked lead flange extending between the layers of felt. On the bottom of this water-proof coat an 8-in inverted segmental flat floor-arch of common brick was laid, and on its skewbacks 4-in vertical brick walls were built against the water-proofed sides. The bottom was then lined with vitrified white tile and the sides were faced with English white enameled brick. The tops of the walls were coped with beveled and molded white-marble slabs which are about 2 ft above the floor-level and are surmounted at one side and one end by a low heavy rail with twisted ornamental posts, all of brass. A similar horizontal hand-rail is carried along the inside wall of the bath just above water-level and a curved brass hand-rail is fastened to the wall above the narrow brick-and-marble stairs at one end. The swimming-bath occupies one corner of the room and its elevated marble platform extends entirely across it, forming a diving-platform which is reached by two marble steps. All the water-supply is filtered and it can be warmed by injecting steam into the delivery-pipe at the filter. The water enters through the open upturned end of a 2-in brass pipe projecting a foot or more through the wall above the top of the bath and delivering a solid jet unless it is reduced by the regulating valve or is formed into a fan-shaped cascade by means of a special nozzle which can be screwed in the open end of the pipe. When the bath is much used a small stream of water is constantly admitted and causes a continual gentle circulation and corresponding overflow, and the entire contents are pumped out and the bath cleaned every two or three days. There are two overflows, an open one about 8 ft above the bottom and a valved one a foot lower. C. L. W. Eidlitz was the architect of the house and the waterproofing was done by the T. New Construction Company."

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* The illustrations and accompanying descriptions are taken by permission from the Engineering Record of Nov. 3, 1900.

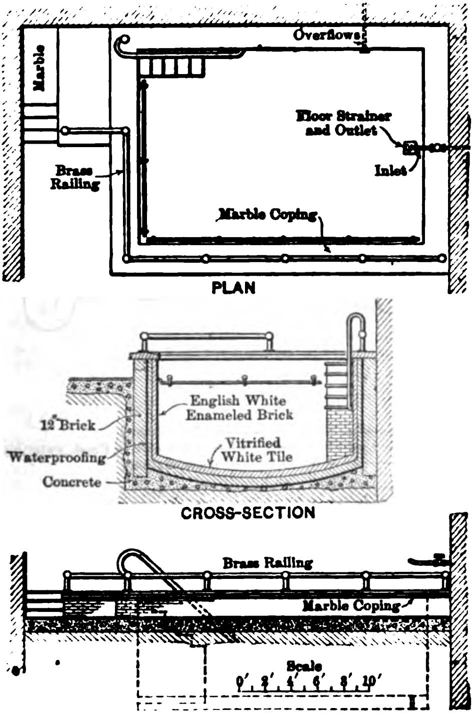
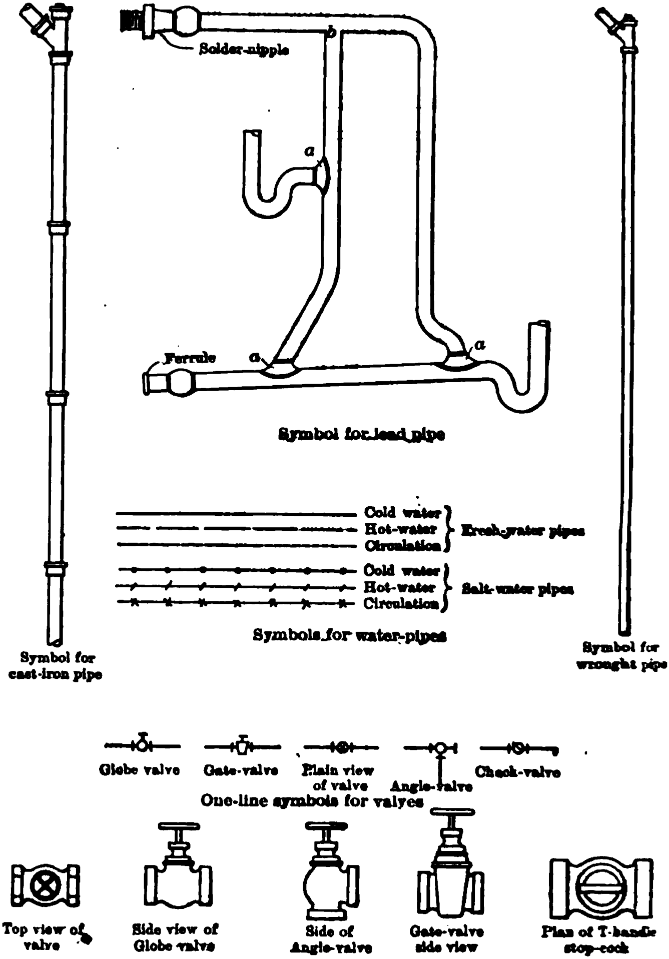


Fig. 13. **Plunge-bath**

Symbols for Plumbing. Figs. 14, 15 and 16 show the symbols suggested in "Plumbing-Plans and Specifications" for designating plumbing-work on plans and details, and generally accepted for the purpose. It is just as necessary to have conventional symbols to indicate plumbing-work and fixtures, as it is to have symbols to show-windows, doors, steps, partitions and other structural details on architectural drawings. Before these symbols became generally used there was no uniformity in the drawing of plumbing-plans, and this lack of standards often led to serious confusion. For instance, if plans from an



Symbol for cast-iron pipe

Symbol for lead pipe

Symbols for water-pipes

Symbol for wrought pipe

One-line symbols for valves

Top view of valve

Side view of Globe valve

Side of Angle-valve

Gate-valve side view

Plan of T-handle stop-cock

Fig. 14. Symbols for Plumbing-pipes and Valves

different offices were examined, the chances were that on no two of them would the symbols have been alike. Further, plans prepared in the same office at

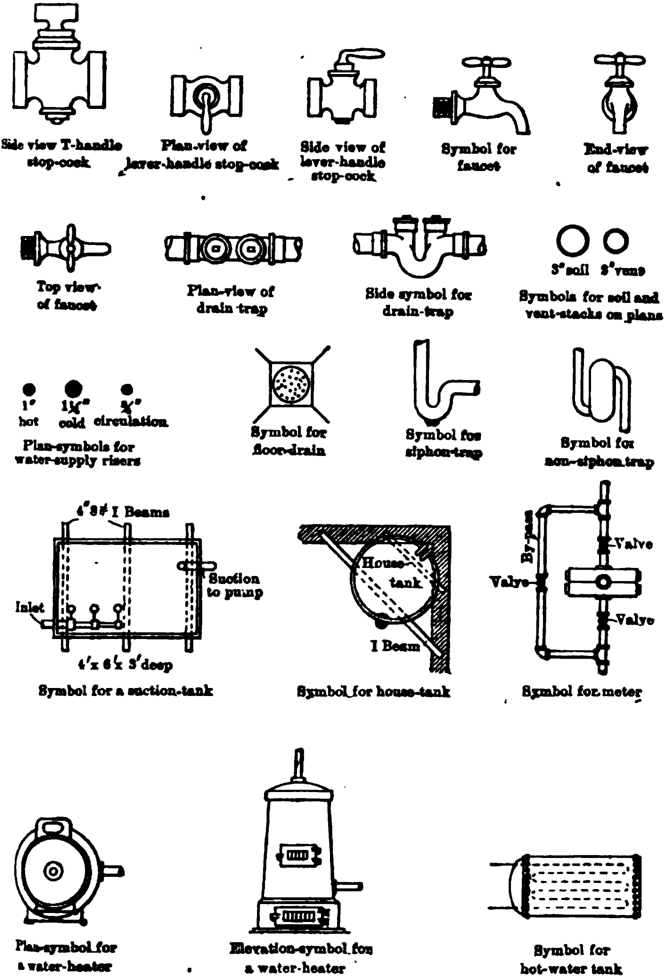
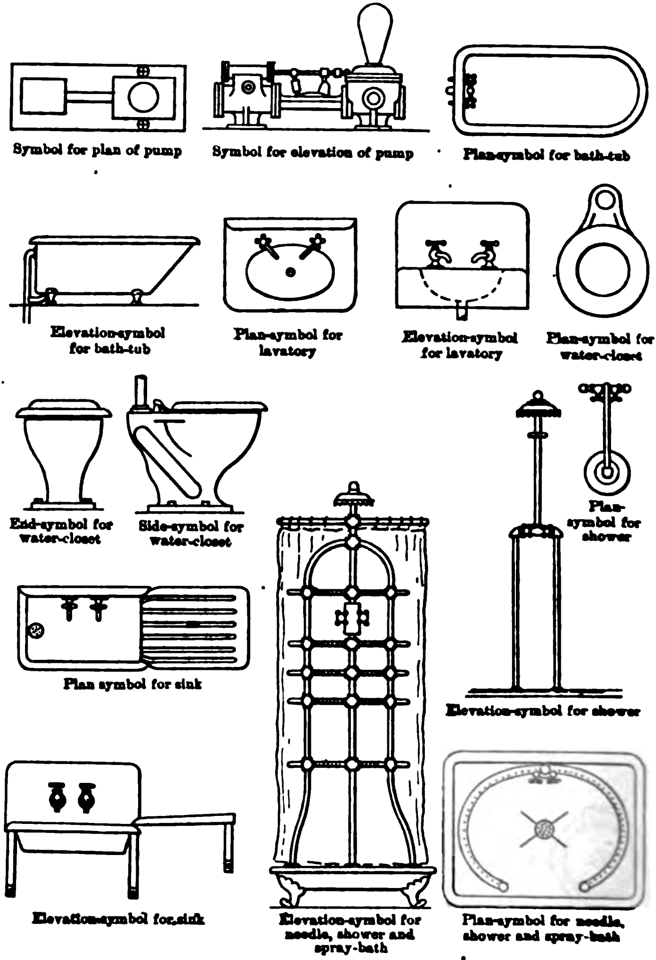

Side view T-handle stop-cock
Plan-view of lever-handle stop-cock
Side view of lever-handle stop-cock
Symbol for faucet
End-view of faucet
Top view of faucet
Plan-view of drain trap
Side symbol for drain-trap
Symbols for soil and vent-stacks on plans
Plan-symbols for water-supply risers
Symbol for floor-drain
Symbol for siphon-trap
Symbol for non-siphon trap
Symbol for a suction-tank
Symbol for house-tank
Symbol for meter
Plan-symbol for a water-heater
Elevation-symbol for a water-heater
Symbol for hot-water tank

Fig. 15. Miscellaneous Plumbing-symbols

different times, or one set of plans on which several different draughtsmen had worked, would often show as many different symbols for a water-closet or lavatory as there were workmen engaged on the drawings. That was rather confusing to plumbers who had to take off quantities from the plans; for, often the symbols were so strange and bore so little resemblance to the fixtures or apparatus that some of them were liable to be overlooked. It is owing to this uncertainty wherever it exists from this cause, that there is a wide range of prices in the bids submitted, and all of them are unreasonably high for the amount of work to be done. To avoid confusion and secure good prices, these standard symbols should be used.



Symbol for plan of pump

Symbol for elevation of pump

Plan-symbol for bath-tub

Elevation-symbol for bath-tub

Plan-symbol for lavatory

Elevation-symbol for lavatory

Plan-symbol for water-closet

End-symbol for water-closet

Side-symbol for water-closet

Plan-symbol for shower

Plan symbol for sink

Elevation-symbol for shower

Elevation-symbol for sink

Elevation-symbol for needle, shower and spray-bath

Plan-symbol for needle, shower and spray-bath

Fig. 16. Symbols for Plumbing-fixtures

Expansion of Soil and Waste-Stacks. In tall buildings, provision should be made in the soil-stacks and connections to take care of the expansion, contraction, settlements, swaying and other movements of the building. This movement is no inconsiderable amount, in some localities the settlement alone amounting to as much as 5 in when the foundations are not carried to bed-rock. In Chicago, for instance, most of the sky-scrapers which were built on compressible foundation-beds are out of plumb and lean far out over the plumb-line. One building in particular leaned so that the top was 30 in outside of the line of the foundation. Most of the earlier heavy buildings there erected on "floating foundations" are carried on jacks, and periodically jacked up as settlement occurs. When the building finally comes to rest, the jacks are removed and the walls filled in with masonry. The settlement which takes place will range in such buildings from 3 to 5 in. These various movements, expansion, contraction, settlement, racking out of plumb, also swaying of high buildings as they follow the sun in its course from East to West, will prove destructive to steam-pipes and plumbing-pipes if provision is not made to take care of them. Steam-pipes always have expansion-loops, but it is only recently that the proper attention has been given to soil and vent-stacks and pipes; and then only after as many as 150 water-closets in one building were broken through faulty installation, or rigid connections. The remedy is to put expansion-joints (Fig. 17) in the soil and vent-stacks of tall buildings, and to connect all water-closets to the soil-pipes by means of flexible or collapsible connections which will stretch, collapse, or stretch on one side, and collapse on the other, according to the stress to which they are subjected. These flexible fittings should be placed as close to the closets as possible, and should be used also in connection with slop-sinks and inside rain-leaders. For inside rain-leaders the number of corrugations can be increased in proportion to the height of the building. Ordinary stock fittings have a range of about 2 in. That is, they will stretch about 1 in and collapse 1 in. For rain-leaders in tall buildings, however, greater range than that is desirable. Two corrugations would be sufficient for a rain-leader in an ordinary building not over 100 ft in height; then, for taller buildings, it is well to allow an extra corrugation for each additional 100 ft or fraction thereof. The flexibility of these fittings can be seen in the accompanying illustrations of Fig. 17.

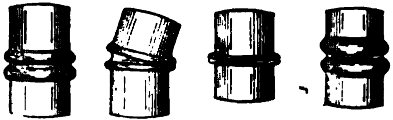

Normal Bent Collapsed Stretched

Fig. 17. Expansion-joints

Shrinkage in Buildings. Ninety-seven per cent of buildings erected have wooden floor-construction, and the floor-joists, when they dry out, shrink. This is the cause of many thousands of closets being broken annually, and the destroying of the seal at the closet-connection of those which are not broken, unless they are provided with a flexible floor-flange or fitting. The amount of shrinkage of floor-beams of different depths, can be found in the following table, compiled from information furnished by the United States Government, Department of Agriculture, Division of Forestry, in Bulletin No. 10. Besides the shrinkage of the individual tiers of joists, there is the multiple shrinkage of all the tiers when bearing-partitions, supporting the joists at the middle in a building, rest on sills at each floor which are laid on top of the joists, instead of extending down through to the plate which supports the tier of joists. When the framing is properly done, there is only the shrinkage of the one tier of beams to take into consideration. When improperly framed, there might be three or four shrinkages affecting the top floor of the building. Even though the timbers are dry and seasoned when put in, by the time the plasterers are through the joists are wet and swollen from the moisture in the plaster and from the rain which saturates the timbers before the building is enclosed. It is safe to assume, therefore, that a 12-in joist will shrink almost ½ in, and an 18-in joist about ¾ in.

Table of Shrinkage of Timbers

Depth of green or wet timber, in	Amount lost by shrinkage, 4%, in	Depth of timber when dry, in
6	0.24	5.76
8	0.32	7.68
10	0.40	9.60
12	0.48	11.52
14	0.56	13.44
16	0.64	15.36
18	0.72	17.28
20	0.80	19.20

Floor-Connections for Water-Closets. No water-closet can be considered sanitary which depends upon a PUTTY-JOINT, slip-joint, rigid-gasket joint or rigid connection of any kind for a seal. Improved metal-to-metal floor-flanges now cost no more than rigid-gasket joints formerly did, and they are flexible, water-tight, will remain permanently tight, and protect the closets from being broken by shrinkage or other movement of the building or piping. The only way to get a perfectly sanitary water-closet is to specify a flexible, metal-to-metal, closet floor-flange with it.

Expansion of Hot-Water Pipes. In all tall buildings expansion-loops ought to be placed in both the hot-water and the circulation-pipes, to permit the expansion and contraction of the lines without injury to the system. These loops are usually from 6 to 8 ft long, made up with elbows, and extend into the floor of the building. Generally the hot-water and circulation-pipes are supported midway between loops so that they can expand both up and down. The length that water-pipes will expand depends upon the degree to which they are heated, and the materials of which the pipes are made. The first of the following three tables gives the expansion of cast-iron pipes, the second the expansion of wrought-iron pipes, and the third the expansion of brass pipes.

Expansion of Cast-Iron Pipes

Temperature of air when pipe is fitted, degrees F.	Length of pipe when fitted, ft	Length of pipe when heated to							
		215° F.		265° F.		297° F.		338° F.	
		ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
0	100	100	1.59	100	1.96	100	2.20	100	2.50
32	100	100	1.36	100	1.65	100	1.96	100	2.27
64	100	100	1.12	100	1.43	100	1.73	100	2.00

Expansion of Wrought-Iron Pipe

Temperature of air when pipe is fitted, degrees F.	Length of pipe when fitted, ft	Length of pipe when heated to							
		215° F.		265° F.		297° F.		338° F.	
		ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
0	100	100	1.72	100	2.21	100	2.31	100	2.70
32	100	100	1.47	100	1.78	100	2.12	100	2.45
64	100	100	1.21	100	1.61	100	1.87	100	2.19

Expansion of Brass Pipe

Temperature of air when pipe is fitted, degrees F.	Length of pipe when fitted, ft	Length of pipe when heated to							
		215° F.		265° F.		297° F.		338° F.	
		ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
0	100	100	2.58	100	3.18	100	3.56	100	4.05
32	100	100	2.19	100	2.79	100	3.18	100	3.67
64	100	100	1.81	100	2.41	100	2.79	100	3.28

Softening Hard Water for Domestic Use. In many parts of the country the water is TEMPORARILY HARD, PERMANENTLY HARD or both TEMPORARILY AND PERMANENTLY HARD. This is due to the fact that in those regions the underlying rock is limestone, and in percolating through the limestone the water, which originally was soft, dissolves carbonates and sulphates of lime or magnesia from the rock. The solvent capacity of water for lime and magnesia is greater when the water is cold than when it is hot. Therefore, deep-well water in limestone-regions is usually saturated with lime or magnesia, and when heated in water-tanks or boilers the point of saturation is lowered and lime is precipitated or liberated in the form of hard scale or incrustation. The effect of boiler-incrustation is to shorten the life of the boiler and decrease the efficiency of the boiler while in use. It is estimated that:

1/16-in lime-scale means a loss of 13% of fuel.
1/8-in lime-scale means a loss of 22% of fuel.
1/4-in lime-scale means a loss of 38% of fuel.
3/8-in lime-scale means a loss of 50% of fuel.
1/2-in lime-scale means a loss of 60% of fuel.
3/4-in lime-scale means a loss of 91% of fuel.

These values are probably a little high, but making due allowance, the table will serve to show the loss due to the use of hard water. In the laundry the increased consumption of soap to soften hard water is a further item of expense. It requires about 1 lb of soap to soften 100 gal of moderately-hard water, besides the soap required for washing after the water has been softened. Besides the expense, hard water forms an insoluble curd when washing which makes it particularly annoying to hotel-guests; therefore, it is advisable to treat all hard water for large hotel-buildings, laundries and for many industrial purposes. Permanently hard waters contain sulphates of lime or magnesia. Temporarily hard waters contain carbonates of lime or magnesia.

Temporarily and permanently hard waters contain both carbonates and sulphates of lime or magnesia. Temporarily hard waters are softened by adding lime-water to the raw water to remove the carbonates of lime. This is known as the CLARK PROCESS. Permanently hard waters are softened by the PORTER PROCESS, which consists of adding soda-ash to the raw water. Stock types of apparatus are manufactured for this purpose, and may be had with capacities of any required amount.

Heating Water with Steam-Coils. The following constants will be found convenient for proportioning steam-coils for heating water:

W = gallons of water to be heated.
$W + 10$ = sq ft of iron pipe-coil required for exhaust-steam.
$W + 15$ = sq ft of copper pipe-coil required for exhaust-steam.
$W \times 0.07$ = sq ft of iron pipe-coil for 5 lb pressure-steam.
$W \times 0.045$ = sq ft of copper pipe-coil for 5 lb pressure-steam.
$W \times 0.05$ = sq ft of iron pipe-coil for 25 lb steam-pressure.
$W \times 0.035$ = sq ft of copper pipe-coil for 25 lb steam-pressure.
$W \times 0.04$ = sq ft of iron pipe-coil for 50 lb steam-pressure.
$W \times 0.25$ = sq ft of copper pipe-coil required for 50 lb steam-pressure.
$W \times 0.03$ = sq ft of iron pipe-coil required for 75 lb steam-pressure.
$W \times 0.02$ = sq ft of copper pipe-coil required for 75 lb steam-pressure.

Capacity of Water-Backs. The average size of water-back having about 110 sq in, or about ¾ sq ft of exposed surface, will heat to the ordinary temperature of domestic hot water, 180° F., about 21 gal of water an hour. It will heat about 17 gal of water to the boiling-point with an ordinary fire. With a fire such as is used for roasting, washing, or baking, a water-back of this same size will heat about 23 gal of water to the boiling-point, or 27 gal to a temperature of 180° F. Wrought-iron pipe heating-coils will heat from 30 to 40 gal of water under the same conditions, and copper pipes will heat from 45 to 60 gal per hour for each square foot of surface exposed to the fire. In calculating the heating capacity of water-backs or coils, the average temperature of the water is taken. Thus, if water at 60° is heated to 200° F., the average temperature of the water would be $(60 + 200) \div 2 = 130°$ F., and the range of temperature through which it is heated would be $200 - 60 = 140°$ F.

Value of Pipe-Covering. Hot-water pipes and hot-water tanks when uncovered lose by radiation from their surface about 13 heat-units per minute per square foot of surface. To prevent this loss of heat and consequent extra consumption of coal, hot-water pipes, circulation-pipes and hot-water tanks in large institutions are generally covered with some non-heat-conducting material. The value of pipe-covering is not proportional to its thickness. Sectional pipe-coverings average about 1¾ in in thickness and reduce the loss by radiation about 90%. Doubling the thickness of pipe-covering saves only about another 5% of heat-loss. In specifying covering for pipes and boilers, therefore, a thickness of 1¾ in will be sufficient. Carbonate of magnesia is a very poor conductor of heat. Therefore, it is a good material for covering hot-water pipes. Carbonate of lime, on the other hand, is not a good covering material, although it often masquerades as carbonate of magnesia. When magnesia pipe-covering is specified, therefore, it is well to require a composition containing from 80 to 90% of magnesia, and require a test to be made at the expense of the contractor, but by a chemist named by the architect. The following coverings are the best materials for hot-water pipes, in the order in which they are named. Nonpareil Cork, Magnesia, Asbestos Air-Cell and Imperial Asbestos.

(3) ILLUMINATING-GAS AND GAS-PIPING*

Varieties of Gas. Five varieties of gas are now commonly used for lighting and cooking, namely:

(1) **Coal-Gas,** which is made by heating bituminous coal in air-tight retorts. This is the most common variety of gas furnished for the lighting of cities and towns.

(2) **Water-Gas,** which is made usually from anthracite coal and steam, and is quite extensively used in Eastern cities. Gas made by this process contains less carbon than good coal-gas, and consequently does not give as bright a light, although it burns perfectly in heating-burners. When used for lighting purposes it is enriched in carbon by vaporizing a quantity of petroleum by heat and injecting it into the hot gas before it leaves the generator. Pure water-gas is lighter and has less odor than coal-gas.

(3) **Natural Gas** is obtained from holes or wells which are drilled in the ground. In localities where it can be obtained it furnishes cheap light and fuel. The natural gas obtained in the hard-coal regions develops more heat per cubic foot in burning than any other kind of gas except acetylene. Natural gas is usually under greater pressure in the street-mains and house-pipes than manufactured gas.

(4) **Acetylene-Gas.** Used almost exclusively for the lighting of isolated buildings, or for public buildings in towns or cities where there is no public gas-supply, and commonly generated on the premises. It is formed by bringing water and calcium carbide in contact. Calcium carbide is produced by the electrical fusion of coke and lime. It is now a commercial article produced in large quantities and sold at a moderate price. It is a very hard substance like dark granite, has a very slight odor, will not burn or explode, and can be handled in any quantity with perfect safety. The fact that carbide begins to disintegrate and give off acetylene at the slightest touch of moisture makes it practicable to generate the gas in small quantities for single buildings.

Process of Generating Acetylene-Gas. The satisfactory production of acetylene-gas requires a generator which shall feed carbide of sufficient size and weight to be plunged a sufficient depth under the water in the generator-chamber to insure coolness and proper washing. The carbide-chamber must be so arranged and protected that no gas can return to it to be wasted when the chamber is refilled and permeate the house with its smell. It must feed carbide loosely and in very small quantities, in order to provide for perfect coolness by free access of water to all of the carbide. It must work automatically and with absolute certainty. Acetylene-gas to be pure must be thoroughly washed. Impure acetylene, as with any other illuminating-gas, means a discoloration of the flame, diminished illuminating power, clogging of pipes and burners with carbon and other foreign matter, and smoky burners, causing blackening of ceilings and tarnished and soiled woodwork and upholstery. It is now generally agreed that the requirements above outlined can be attained only by a generator of the plunger-type. Portable generators which may be set in the cellar or basement of any building are manufactured in great variety; it is estimated that 100 000 acetylene-gas generators are now in use in the United States. They are made in sizes of 5, 10, 15, 20 and up to 500-lights capacity. In all machines dropping carbide into water there should be a connection open from the carbide-holding receptacle to the safety-vent run out of doors from the gasometer. It is claimed that for a given degree of illumination, acetylene is cheaper than dollar gas. A large residence may be lighted for about $2.50 a month. To develop the full illuminating power of the gas it is necessary to use a burner-tip having the thinnest slit obtainable, the illuminating power of the gas being about fifteen times that of coal-gas, for the same consumption. The light is a clear white, very nearly resembling sunlight in color and diffusiveness, with none of the red of the incandescent lamp, the orange of the ordinary gas-flame, or the green tone of the incandescent mantle; and it possesses the quality, unique among artificial illuminants, of reproducing even the most delicate shades of color as faithfully as sunlight. Even when used with mantle-burners, as it may be with great economy, acetylene-light presents a strong dissimilarity from ordinary gas under the same conditions. Acetylene corrodes silver and copper, but does not affect brass, iron, lead, tin, or zinc. A government specification for a complete apparatus for acetylene-gas was published in Engineering News of Feb. 4, 1904.

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* See, also, Lighting and Illumination of Buildings, page 1351.

(5) **Gasolene-Gas** is a mixture of gasolene vapor with air. It is never piped, but is generated close to the burner, and is seldom used for lighting except for street stands, and the like. It is much used for fuel, however. Gasolene changes from the liquid to the gaseous form under ordinary atmospheric pressure, at temperatures above 40° F., the evaporation being very slow at 40°, quite rapid at 70°, and furious at 212°. If a tank containing liquid gasolene is left open to the air, the liquid will all pass away in the form of gas. If a match be lighted near an open can of gasolene, the escaping gas at once takes fire and communicates the fire to the liquid, causing it to explode with great violence. Although generally considered dangerous, it is only so when carelessly or ignorantly handled. To produce 1 000 cu ft of gas of good quality requires about 4½ gal of the best grade of gasolene. An ordinary burner consumes about 5 cu ft per hour.

Piping a House for Gas * †

General Principles and Requirements. Ordinary wrought-iron pipe, such as is used for steam or water, is suitable and proper for all kinds of gas. Galvanized malleable-iron fittings, in distinction from plain iron, are very superior. The coating of zinc inside and out effectually and permanently covers all blow-holes, makes the work solid and durable, and avoids the use of perishable cement. Before the pipe is placed in position it should be looked and blown through. It is not infrequently obstructed, and this precaution will save much damage and annoyance. What is known as gas-fitters' cement never should be used. It cracks off easily, in warm places it will melt, and it can be dissolved by several different kinds of gas. Nothing but solid metals is admissible for confining gas of any kind. When pipes under floors run across floor-timbers, the latter should be cut into near their ends, or where supported on partitions, and not near the middle of spans. It is evident that a 10-in timber notched 2 in in the middle is no stronger than an 8-in timber. All branch outlet-pipes should be taken from the sides or tops of running lines. Bracket-pipes should run up from below, and not drop from above. Never drop a center pipe from the bottom of a running line. Always take such outlet from the side of the pipe. The whole system of piping must be free from low places or traps, and decline toward the main rising pipe, which should run up in a partition as near the center of the building as is practicable. It is obvious that where gas is distributed from the center of a building, smaller running lines of pipe will be needed than when the main pipe runs up on one end. Hence, timbers will not require as deep cutting, and the flow of gas will be more regular and even. For the same reason in large buildings, more than one riser may be advisable. When a building has different heights of post, it is always better to have an independent rising pipe for each height of post, than to drop a system of piping from a higher to a lower post, or to grade to a low point and establish drip-pipes. Drip-pipes in a building should always be avoided. The whole system of piping should be so arranged that any condensed gas will flow back through the system and into the service-pipe in the ground. All outlet-pipes should be so securely and rigidly fastened in position that there will be no possibility of their moving when the gas-fixtures are attached. Center pipes should rest on a solid support fastened to the floor-timbers near their tops. The pipe should be securely fastened to the support to prevent lateral movement. The drop-pipe must be perfectly plumb, and pass through a guide fastened near the bottom of the timbers, which will keep them in position despite the assault of lathers, masons and others. In the absence of express directions to the contrary, outlets for brackets should generally be 5 ft 6 in high from the floor, except that it is usual to put them 6 ft high in halls and bath-rooms. The upright pipes should be plumb, so that the nipples that project through the walls will be level. The nipples should project not more than ¾ in from the face of the plastering. Laths and plaster together are usually ¾ in thick; hence the nipples should project 1½ in from the face of the studding. Drop center pipes should project 1½ in below the furring, or timbers if there is no furring, where it is known that there will be no stucco or centerpieces used. Where centerpieces are to be used, or where there is a doubt whether they will be or not, then the drop-pipes should be left about a foot below the furring. All pipes being properly fastened, the drop-pipe can be safely taken out and cut to the right length when gas-fixtures are put on. Gas-pipes should never be placed on the bottoms of floor-timbers that are to be lathed and plastered, because they are inaccessible in the contingency of leakage, or when alterations are desired, and gas-fixtures are insecure. The whole system of piping should be proved to be air and gas-tight under a pressure of air that will raise a column of mercury 6 in high in a glass tube. The pipes are either tight or they leak. There is no middle ground. If they are tight the mercury will not fall a particle. A piece of paper should be pasted on the glass tube, even with the mercury, to mark its height while the pressure is on. The system of piping should remain under test for at least a half-hour. It should be the duty of the person in charge of the construction of the building to thoroughly inspect the system of gas-fitting; surely as much so as to inspect any other part of the building. He should know from personal observation that the specifications are complied with. After being satisfied that the mercury does not fall he should cause caps on the outlets to be loosened in different parts of the building, first loosening one to let some air escape, at the same time observing if the mercury falls, then tightening it and repeating the operation at other points. This plan will prove whether the pipes are free from obstruction or not. When he is satisfied that the whole work is properly and perfectly executed, he should give the gas-fitter a certificate to that effect.

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* Circular issued by the Gilbert & Barker Manufacturing Company.

† See, also, Lighting and Illumination of Buildings, pages 1345 to 1350.

The following requirements from specifications published by the Denver Gas and Electric Company are worthy of attention. Always use fittings in making turns; do not bend pipe. Do not use unions in concealed work; use long screws or right-and-left couplings. Long runs of approximately horizontal pipe must be firmly supported at short intervals to prevent sagging.

Rules and Table for Proportioning Sizes of House-Pipes for Gas* †

Rules Governing Sizes of Gas-Pipes. The table on page 1349 is based on the well-known formula for the flow of gas through pipes. The friction, and therefore the pressure necessary to overcome the friction, increases with the quantity of gas that goes through, and as the aim of the table is to have the loss in pressure not exceed ⅒ in water-pressure in 30 ft, the size of the pipe increases in going from an extremity toward the meter, as each section has an increasing number of outlets to supply. The quantity of gas the piping may be called on to pass through is stated in terms of ⅜-in outlets, instead of cubic feet, outlets being used as a unit instead of burners, because at the time of first inspection the number of burners may not be definitely determined. In making the table, each ⅜-in outlet was assumed to require a supply of 10 cu ft per hour. In using the table observe the following rules: ‡

(1) No house-riser shall be less than ¾ in. The house-riser is considered to extend from the cellar to the ceiling of the first story. Above the ceiling the pipe must be extended of the same size as the riser, until the first branch line is taken off.

(2) No house-pipe shall be less than ⅜ in. An extension to existing piping may be made of ¼-in pipe to supply not more than one outlet, provided said pipe is not over 6 ft long.

(3) No gas-range shall be connected with a smaller pipe than ¾ in.

(4) In figuring out the size of pipe, always start at the extremities of the system, and work TOWARD the meter.

(5) In using the table, the lengths of pipe to be used in each case are the lengths measured from one branch or point of juncture to another, disregarding elbows or turns. Such lengths will be hereafter spoken of as SECTIONS. No change in size of pipe may be made except at branches or outlets, each section therefore being made of but one size of pipe.

(6) If any outlet is larger than ⅜ in it must be counted as more than one, in accordance with the schedule below:

Size of outlet, inches	½	¾	1	1¼	1½	2	2½	3	4
Value in table	2	4	7	11	16	28	44	64	112

(7) If the exact number of outlets given cannot be found in the table, take the next larger number.

(8) If, for the number of outlets given, the exact length of the section which feeds these outlets cannot be found in the table, the next larger length, corresponding to the outlets given, must be taken to determine the size of pipe required. Thus, if there are eight outlets to be fed through 55 ft of pipe, the length next larger than 55 in the eight-outlet line in the table is 100, and as this is in the 1¼-in column, that size pipe would be required.

(9) For any given number of outlets, do not use a smaller size pipe than the smallest size that contains a figure in the table for that number of outlets. Thus, to feed 15 outlets, no smaller size pipe than 1 in may be used, no matter how short the section may be.

(10) In any piping-plan, in any continuous run from an extremity to the meter, there may not be used a longer length of any size pipe than found in the table for that size, as 50 ft for ¾ in, 70 ft for 1 in, etc. If any one section would exceed the limit length, it must be made of larger pipe. Thus, 6 outlets could

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* The Denver Gas and Electric Company.

† See, also, Lighting and Illumination of Buildings, pages 1345 to 1350.

‡ With the exception of typographical changes made to conform to the rest of the base, these rules are quoted literally. Editor-in-chief.

Table Showing the Correct Sizes of House-Pipes for Different Lengths of Pipes and Number of Outlets

Number of ⅜-in outlets	Lengths of pipes in feet									
	⅜-in pipe	½-in pipe	¾-in pipe	1-in pipe	1¼-in pipe	1½-in pipe	2-in pipe	2½-in pipe	3-in pipe	4-in pipe
1	20	30	50	70	100	150	200	300	400	600
2	....	27	50	70	100	150	200	300	400	600
3	....	12	50	70	100	150	200	300	400	600
4	....	....	50	70	100	150	200	300	400	600
5	....	....	33	70	100	150	200	300	400	600
6	....	....	24	70	100	150	200	300	400	600
7	....	....	18	70	100	150	200	300	400	600
8	....	....	13	50	100	150	200	300	400	600
9	....	....	....	44	100	150	200	300	400	600
10	....	....	....	35	100	150	200	300	400	600
11	....	....	....	30	90	150	200	300	400	600
12	....	....	....	25	75	150	200	300	400	600
13	....	....	....	21	60	150	200	300	400	600
14	....	....	....	18	53	130	200	300	400	600
15	....	....	....	16	45	115	200	300	400	600
16	....	....	....	14	41	100	200	300	400	600
17	....	....	....	12	36	90	200	300	400	600
18	....	....	....	....	32	80	200	300	400	600
19	....	....	....	....	29	73	200	300	400	600
20	....	....	....	....	27	65	200	300	400	600
21	....	....	....	....	24	58	200	300	400	600
22	....	....	....	....	22	53	200	300	400	600
23	....	....	....	....	20	49	200	300	400	600
24	....	....	....	....	18	45	190	300	400	600
25	....	....	....	....	17	42	175	300	400	600
30	....	....	....	....	12	30	120	300	400	600
35	....	....	....	....	.....	22	90	270	400	600
40	....	....	....	....	.....	17	70	210	400	600
45	....	....	....	....	.....	13	55	165	400	600
50	....	....	....	....	.....	.....	45	135	330	600
65	....	....	....	....	.....	.....	27	80	200	600
75	....	....	....	....	.....	.....	20	60	150	600
100	....	....	....	....	.....	.....	.....	33	80	360
125	....	....	....	....	.....	.....	.....	22	50	230
150	....	....	....	....	.....	.....	.....	15	35	160
175	....	....	....	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	28	120
200	....	....	....	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	21	90
250	....	....	....	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	14	59

not be fed through 75 ft of 1-in pipe, but 1¼ in would have to be used. When two or more successive sections work out to the same size of pipe and their total length or sum exceeds the longest length in the table for that size pipe, make the section nearest the meter of the next larger size. For example, if we have 5 outlets to be supplied through 45 ft of pipe and these 5 and 5 more, making 10 in all, through 30 ft of pipe, we should find by the table that 10 outlets through 30 ft would require 1-in pipe, and that 5 outlets through 45 ft would also require 1-in pipe, but as the sum of the two sections, 30 plus 45 equals 75 ft, is longer than the amount of 1 in that may be used in any continuous run, the 30-ft section, being the one nearer the meter, must be made of 1¼-in pipe. The application of the limit in length of any one size in a continuous run may also be shown as follows: Eight outlets will allow of 13 ft of ¾-in pipe in the section between the eighth and ninth outlet (counting from the extremity of the system toward the meter), provided that this 13 ft added to the total length of ¾-in pipe that may have been used between the extremity of the run and the eighth outlet does not exceed 50 ft, which, according to the table, is the greatest length of ¾ in allowable in any one branch of the system. Therefore, up to the eighth outlet, 37 ft of ¾-in pipe could have been used, and yet allow 13 ft of ¾ in to be used in the section between the eighth and ninth outlet. If more than 37 ft had been used, then the entire 13 ft between the eighth and ninth outlets would have to be of 1-in pipe.

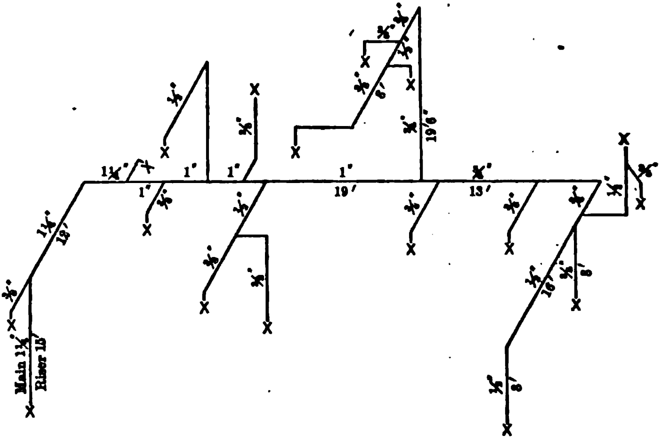

Fig. 18. Diagram of Gas-piping

(11) Never supply gas from a smaller size of pipe to a larger one. If we have 25 outlets to be supplied through 200 ft of pipe, and these 25 and 5 more, making 30 in all, through 100 ft of pipe we should find by the table that 25 outlets through 200 ft would require 2½-in pipe, and 30 outlets through 100 ft would require 2-in piping, but as under this condition a 2-in pipe would be supplying a 2½-in pipe, the 100-ft section must be made 2½ in. The sizes of pipes in Fig. 18 are in accordance with the foregoing rules and the table.

LIGHTING AND ILLUMINATION OF BUILDINGS*

By

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HEAD OF APPLIED SCIENCE DEPARTMENT, WENTWORTH INSTITUTE

General Principles. Objects are illuminated for the sole purpose of making them visible to the eye. The eye, then, is the natural starting-point. When passing upon the merits of any scheme of ordinary illumination, that which should mark it as a success or failure should be the general effect of the scheme upon the eye. Success should be measured largely by the degree of clearness with which the objects are perceived by the eye, as to shape and color. If certain parts of a room or street are too brilliantly lighted, objects in the dimmer portions are not perceived by the eye. If a certain side of one object is too highly illuminated, the general shape of the object is lost, as the eye does not readily perceive its more dimly lighted parts. This is because the eye automatically adjusts itself to the most brilliantly lighted area within its view, and, accordingly, is out of adjustment for perceiving the rest. We should get rid of the idea, therefore, that a light of intense brilliancy is the thing to be sought. It is, in general, highly undesirable. A room may APPEAR brilliantly LIGHTED and yet objects looked at may not be sufficiently well ILLUMINATED for reading or for working purposes. The lights APPEAR brilliant to the eye, but because they throw their strongest rays in other directions than those in which they are needed for use, they do not give efficient illumination.

Distinction between Light and Illumination. There is not only a great difference between LIGHT and ILLUMINATION, but there is a great difference between a brilliantly lighted room and a well-illuminated one. When anybody is asked whether a room is well illuminated or not, the chances are ten to one that he at once looks at the light itself. If the light appears to him to be brilliant and dazzling, he will invariably say, "Why, of course, the room is well lighted." He should first look away from the light at the objects around the room or underneath the light. If these can be seen clearly and easily, then the room is well ILLUMINATED. Afterwards he should look at the lights themselves, and if they appear soft and pleasing to his eyesight the room is well LIGHTED. A room in which the lights appear soft to the eye and yet in which the eye can distinguish objects clearly is both well lighted and well illuminated. A room in which the objects appear clear to the eye while the lights remain dazzling is well illuminated but badly lighted. A room in which the lights appear soft to the eye and the objects not clearly illuminated, is well lighted, but badly illuminated. A room in which the lights appear dazzling to the eye and the surrounding objects or those underneath appear not clear to the eyesight is both badly lighted and badly illuminated. An axiom in good artificial illumination is to keep the illumination of objects as strong as is necessary, but the intensity or brilliancy of the lights as low as possible. By doing the first we enable the eye to see better; by doing the second we enable the eye to feel better and suffer less from temporary discomfort or permanent injury. It is not generally understood that a light which is dazzling and brilliant to the eyesight may not be giving as much illumination as another source of light which appears soft, or even dim, by comparison. Thus an open gas-light is more dazzling than an enclosed light, but is less efficient in illuminating a room. The problem, then, resolves itself into two parts. The first step should be to secure a kind of lamp which will cause objects to appear in their accustomed colors; that is, the colors in which they appear by sunlight. The second is to so distribute the lamps that the several illuminated surfaces receive their share of the light, and yet no bright light is thrown directly into the eyes.

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* See, also, Illuminating-Gas and Gas-Piping, pages 1345 to 1350.

Nature of Light. All space is supposed to be filled with a medium infinitely lighter than air, called ETHER. The sensation of light is experienced when certain wave-motions in this ether are transmitted to the eye. These wave-motions are called LIGHT-WAVES. Light-waves differ from one another in length and violence. The DIFFERENCE IN LENGTH causes a difference in color. Thus short waves may be blue or violet, while longer waves may be red or orange. If we have a source of light which sends out long ether-waves, we may expect a predominance of red and orange light in it. The sunlight contains waves of practically all lengths and thus is composed of all colors. The DIFFERENCE IN VIOLENCE of the waves gives rise to a difference in intensity of the light. When these light-waves strike any object, they are partly reflected and partly absorbed. Substances differ widely as to the percentage of light they absorb and the percentage they reflect. If two objects are illuminated by the same amount of light, the one which absorbs the less light and reflects the more will appear the brighter. Some objects reflect light-waves of a certain length only, and absorb all the rest. It is this property that gives color to objects. Suppose, for instance, that a piece of cloth were receiving light from the sun, all of which it absorbed except the waves of proper length to cause a sensation of green to the eye. The green waves only would then come from the cloth to the eye, all the rest being absorbed, and the cloth would appear green. If it absorbed waves of all lengths, it would appear black, because no light would be reflected from it to the eye. If now the piece of cloth, which absorbs all wave-lengths except that of green, were exposed to a source of light which was emitting all colors EXCEPT GREEN, there being no green waves to be reflected from it, the cloth in this light would appear black. Suppose a piece of cloth absorbed all colors but two, say violet and red. When light having all wave-lengths fell upon it, it would absorb all the waves except violet and red. These two, the cloth would reflect as a mixture and would appear purple. If, however, the source of light contained no violet waves, it could only reflect the red waves and appear red. This light, then, would not cause the cloth to show its normal color. So in choosing an artificial source of light, it is necessary to select one which will send out all wave-lengths, if we wish to have the different objects appear in their normal colors.

Table I. Colors of Light-Sources *

Sun (at zenith)	White (all colors)
Electric arc	Violet-white
Candle	Orange-yellow
Kerosene	Pale orange-yellow
Gas-flame	Pale orange-yellow
Welsbach (gas)	Nearly white to amber, depending upon composition of mantle
Acetylene-flame	Almost white
Carbon, incandescent	Reddish white
Tungsten or Mazda	Yellowish white
Mercury-arc	Blue-green
Moore tube (carbon dioxide)	White

* Compiled by R. F. Pierce, Welsbach Company.

Experiment has shown that no artificial light except the CO_2 Moore tube is even a remote approximation to daylight. The Welsbach white mantle gives a much whiter light than the tungsten-lamp, although neither can be said to approximate daylight.

Light-Intensity or Brilliancy. Candle-Power. The brilliancy of a source of light is stated as its CANDLE-POWER; that is, the number of standard candles to which it is equivalent. Thus an ordinary open gas-flame, consuming 5 cu ft of gas per hour, is equivalent in brilliancy to about 18 candles, and is said to have an intensity of 18 candle-power. Welsbach lamps, consuming 3 cu ft per hour, average about 75 candle-power; that is, they are equivalent to 75 candles. Since no two sources of light have the same amount of luminous surface, it is customary to rate a lamp by the number of candle-power per square inch of its apparent (or projected) surface. Thus an ordinary candle-flame has about ⅓ sq in of area, and its intensity would be rated as 3 candle-power per square inch; that is, the candle-power it would have if its area consisted of exactly 1 sq in. This is often called the INTRINSIC BRILLIANCY of a light-source.*

Table II. Accepted Values of Intrinsic Brilliancy for Various Light-Sources now in Use *

Light-Source	Candle-power per sq in
Moore tube	0.3–1.75
Frosted electric incandescent-lamp	2–5
Candle	3–4
Gas-flame	3–8
Oil-lamp	3–8
Cooper-Hewitt lamp	17
Welsbach gas-mantle	20–50
Acetylene-burner	75–100
Enclosed alternating-current arc-lamp	75–200
Enclosed direct-current arc-lamp	100–500
Incandescent lamps:	
Carbon, 3.5 watts per candle	375
Carbon, 3.1 watts per candle	480
Gem, 2.5 watts per candle	625
Tantalum, 2.0 watts per candle	750
Mazda or tungsten 1.25 watts per candle	875
Mazda or tungsten, 1.0 watt per candle	1 000
Nernst, 1.5 watts per candle	2 200
Sun, on horizon	2 000
Flaming arc-lamp	5 000
Mazda, nitrogen-filled	7 700
Open arc-lamp	10 000–50 000
Open arc-crater	200 000
Sun, 30° above horizon	500 000
Sun, at zenith	600 000

* E. B. Rowe, Holophane Works.

Intensity of Illumination. Foot-Candle. The extent to which a surface is illuminated is measured in FOOT-CANDLES. A surface has 1 foot-candle illumination when it is placed, at right-angles to the light-rays, 1 ft away from a light of 1 candle-power intensity. Thus a paper placed 1 ft away from a 16-candle-power incandescent lamp would be illuminated to 16 foot-candles.

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* The total amount of light given out by a light-source is measured in LUMENS. For the definition and use of this term see any standard book on illumination.

Law of Inverse Squares. The farther away from the light the above paper is held the less the illumination. But if it were held 2 ft away, that is, twice as far as stated above, it would not have one-half the illumination. The illumination which an object receives varies inversely as the square of the distance from the source. Thus, in this example the paper would receive one-fourth as much illumination, or 4 foot-candles. If it were held 3 ft away, it would be illuminated by one-ninth of 16, or 1.6 foot-candles.

Rule. To find the intensity of illumination on any surface, at right-angles to light-rays, divide the CANDLE-POWER of the lamp by the SQUARE of the distance in FEET. The result will be FOOT-CANDLE illumination. This is called the LAW OF INVERSE SQUARES. Accordingly, an unshaded 32-candle-power lamp will illuminate a surface facing it squarely and 1 ft away from it with an intensity of 32 foot-candles, but a surface 4 ft away, with only $32/4^2$, or 2 foot-candles.

Candle-Power and Foot-Candle. Careful distinction should be made between CANDLE-POWER and FOOT-CANDLE. CANDLE-POWER is the measure of the intensity of a source of light. The FOOT-CANDLE is the measure of the intensity of illumination of some surface upon which the light falls.

Example 1. What is the illumination on a surface 5 ft from a 32-candle-power lamp?

Solution. $\frac{32}{5 \times 5} = 1.28$ ft-candles.

Example 2. The illumination required on a printed page for easy reading is about 2 foot-candles. (1) How high above a reading-table should a 16-candle-power lamp be hung? (2) A 32-candle-power lamp?

Solution. $\frac{16}{x^2} = 2 \qquad x^2 = 8 \qquad x = \sqrt{8} = 2.83$ ft (1)

$\frac{32}{x^2} = 2 \qquad x^2 = 16 \qquad x = 4$ ft (2)

The Primary Function of a Lighting-Installation is to supply sufficient illumination as required by the character of the work to which the lighted space is devoted. The following table can be used in computing the amount of electric power or of gas necessary to satisfactorily illuminate the various rooms included.

Since the lower efficiencies of the indirect and semiindirect systems are largely compensated by the lower intensities required as compared to direct lighting, the same watts per square foot may be allowed in either case, provided the conditions are fairly favorable to the use of the indirect and semiindirect systems, namely, light-cream or yellow ceilings. The following table is based upon rooms of average proportions with light-cream, or yellow ceilings and medium walls. High, narrow rooms may require about 10% more, and low, wide rooms about 10% less, energy. Similar allowances may be made for dark or light walls, respectively.

Three Systems of General Illumination. To secure the proper illumination, as indicated in Table III, there are three general systems.

Table III. Amount of Gas or of Electric Power Required to Illuminate Rooms Used for Various Purposes

Class of service	* Cu ft of gas per sq ft per hour	* Watts per sq ft
Armory or drill-hall	0.02 –0.025	0.5–0.6
Auditorium	0.04 –0.05	1.0–1.3
Barber-shop	0.06 –0.07	1.5–1.7
Church (see Auditorium)	....	....
Drafting-room	0.10 –0.112	2.5–2.8
Factory (general illumination)	0.01 –0.02	2.5–0.5
Hospital (corridor)	0.016–0.02	0.4–0.5
Hospital (operating-room)	0.14 –0.15	3.5–3.9
Hotel (lobby)	0.06 –0.065	1.5–1.6
Hotel (ball-room)	0.05 –0.052	1.2–1.3
Hotel (dining-room)	0.04 –0.045	1.0–1.1
Hotel (restaurant)	0.06 –0.07	1.5–1.7
Hotel (kitchen)	0.05 –0.052	1.2–1.3
Hotel (writing-room, general illumination only)	0.052–0.06	1.3–1.5
Hotel (billiard-room, general illumination only)	0.06 –0.065	1.5–1.6
Hotel (buffet)	0.065–0.072	1.6–1.8
Library (reading-room)	0.055–0.06	1.4–1.5
Library (stacks)	0.012–0.024	0.3–0.6
Office (banking and accounting)	0.06 –0.065	1.5–1.6
Office (general)	0.052–0.06	1.3–1.5
Office (private)	0.05 –0.52	1.2–1.3
Office (stenographic)	0.06 –0.07	1.5–1.7
Residence (bedroom)	0.012	0.3
Residence (dining-room)	0.036–0.04	0.9–1.0
Residence (hall)	0.008	0.2
Residence (living-room)	0.036–0.04	0.9–1.0
Residence (music-room)	0.02 –0.025	0.5–0.6
Residence (kitchen)	0.05 –0.052	1.2–1.3
School (assembly or class-room)	0.04 –0.045	1.0–1.1
School (class-room, business colleges)	0.055–0.06	1.4–1.5
Stores (piano, furniture, haberdashery, dry-goods, automobile, clothing, cigar)	0.06 –0.07	1.5–1.7
Stores (book, shoe, hardware)	0.055–0.06	1.4–1.5
Warehouses	0.012–0.036	0.3–0.9

* These figures are based upon the use of Welsbach reflex lamps and Mazda electric lamps. For Welsbach KINETIC lamps and nitrogen-filled tungsten-lamps (type C Mazda) use about 0.6 the values in the first and second columns, respectively. Data on gas supplied by R. F. Pierce, Welsbach Company.

(1) **Direct Lighting.** A system is designated as DIRECT when more than one-half the light reaches the area to be illuminated by coming directly from the light-source, without being reflected from the ceiling or walls. This includes all systems using lamps with clear, frosted, translucent, or opalescent globes, or reflectors, in which the light is reflected downward. It is the most efficient system, was the first to be used, and is still the most common. The color of the walls or ceiling has less effect in this system than in the others.

(2) **Indirect Lighting.** A system is designated INDIRECT when all the light is thrown first on the ceiling and walls, and reflected from these to the surface to be illuminated. Any system which conceals the source of light by opaque reflectors is thus INDIRECT. Light finish must always be used on the walls and ceiling

with this system. Even then, the efficiency is usually lower than that of a direct system, but the total absence of glare and shadows and the even distribution of light make this a popular scheme in restaurants, show-rooms, etc., where decorative lighting is desired.

(3) **Semiindirect Lighting.** This system throws most of the light to the walls and ceiling, but allows a small percentage to be diffused through the reflector straight to the area to be illuminated. This system is rapidly coming into favor because apparently we have become accustomed to looking for the source of light and miss it when it is concealed as in the indirect system. The totally indirect fixtures often show up rather unpleasantly as a dark spot against a light background.* This is avoided in the semiindirect system. The slightly higher efficiency of this system is another advantage over the indirect. Any given room may usually be lighted by any one of the three systems although it is generally true that conditions are such as to make one of the three more desirable than either of the other two. The following paragraphs show in detail how each system may be worked out for a given room.

General Considerations † in Direct Lighting

Outlets and Lamps. Outlets should be located in the centers of as nearly as possible square and equal areas into which the ceiling, for the purpose of calculation, may be subdivided. The greater the number of outlets the more uniform the illumination and the greater the freedom from annoying shadows. Unless great care is used in planning the directions in which the light is received by illuminated surfaces, a disagreeable glare from glazed paper is likely to be present. The greater the height of lamps above the illuminated area, the more uniform the illumination. Figures suggestive of good practice in selection of mounting-heights are given in Table IV, page 1358.

General Considerations in Indirect and Semiindirect Lighting

Outlets and Lamps. The location of outlets should in general conform to the requirements for direct lighting, that is, at the centers of approximately square and equal areas. Since glare from glazed papers is minimized when most of the light is received from ceiling-reflection, larger and fewer units are permissible than in the case of direct lighting. The nearer to the ceiling the lamps are placed, the less uniform the illumination and, within reasonable limits, the higher the illuminating efficiency of the installation. Generally speaking, lamps should not be placed less than 2 ft from the ceiling. Aside from this, the position of a fixture should be determined by artistic considerations and reflectors selected which will direct most of the light upon the ceiling without concentrating it enough to illuminate the ceiling unevenly.

A. The Interior Colorings and Finishes.‡ (1) Ceilings especially should be of nearly white, cream, or light-buff colors to efficiently diffuse the light downward. Dark greens, reds, or blues are not advisable since the reduction in illumination caused by a green color, over a cream tint, may easily be from 30% to 60%. On the other hand, this system shows very plainly all dirt and discolorations on the ceiling, and no colors should be used that are so light as to easily show dirt, where there may not be careful cleaning.

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* This unpleasant effect can sometimes be avoided by illuminating the underside of the fixture.

† By R. F. Pierce, Welsbach Company and G. S. Fobes, Macbeth-Evans Company.

‡ By G. S. Fobes, Macbeth-Evans Company.

(2) Finishes preferably should be matt, or satin, rather than glazed or varnished. From the matt ceiling-surface the maximum light will always be downward, but the varnished ceiling will reflect specularly, directing light sidewise or showing lamp-images and glare.

(3) Tints and details of decoration should be considered together with the lighting-system, so that daylight-colors and reliefs will not be reversed or distorted by colored light from artificial illuminants and shadows.

B. The Positions of Outlets and of Fixtures. (1) Semiindirect units should, if possible, be placed above the places where maximum light is wanted.

(2) Fixtures should not be so close to side walls as to cause light-spots running down across picture-moldings, etc.

(3) Outlets should be placed logically with reference to the ceiling-panels, so that the more brightly illuminated ceiling-areas will be the ones that on account of their tints, shapes, or decorations, will naturally bear emphasis. If the panels are deep (deep beams), and one outlet is in each panel, it will ordinarily be located at the center. If several panels intervene between units, the fixtures should be on the beams rather than in the panels, to prevent dark ceiling-areas in the shadows of the beams.

(4) Spacing should be such as to have the illuminated ceiling-areas overlap if the ceiling-surface is uniform.

C. The Proper Lamp and Bowl-Sizes. (1) Ordinarily the symmetrical appearance of fixtures with respect to the other interior furnishings will largely determine their sizes, although the bowls should never be so small as not to completely conceal and nearly surround the lamp-bulb.

(2) The smaller the bowl and the brighter the lamp, the less effective the semiindirect system becomes, and the more the effect approaches direct lighting.

D. Shapes and Styles of Bowls. (1) Bowls used close together or hung far from the ceiling should be of the focusing (upward) distribution, while broadly distributing bowls are better when used singly, or when fairly wide apart and close to the ceiling.

(2) Bowls too flat in shape may waste considerable light sidewise to the upper walls and therefore be inefficient.

(3) Wide open-top bowls should not be used in halls, etc., where the bare lamps are visible to the observer from above, nor on or below the level of a balcony or mezzanine.

E. Care of Fixtures. (1) The average saving in light (expressed in terms of cost of current) that results from washing once and dusting once monthly, will be from four to ten times the cost of such cleaning. Bowls often collect films of dust which are not visible and which materially reduce the efficiency both of reflection and transmission.

(2) A bowl with a dust-cap, button-ornament, or small area of thick glass at the bottom, will allow dead insects or dirt to collect at that point without marring the appearance of the unit.

(3) Dilute ammonia is an excellent glass-cleanser.

(4) Fixtures should be arranged to be lowered, for cleaning, from above if on a very high ceiling in a church or similar structure.

(5) It should be possible to easily raise the lamp or lamps from within the bowl, to allow of dusting or wiping out.

Figures suggestive of good practice in the selection of mounting-heights and types of light-distribution are given in Table VI.

Table IV. Direct System

LAMP-SIZE, MOUNTING-HEIGHT AND SPACING*

Mounting-height	Commercial size of lamps in watts = W and cubic feet per hour		Watts per square foot = w and cubic feet per square foot		Ideal spacing = distance $\sqrt{\frac{W}{w}}$		Minimum spacing-distance		Maximum spacing-distance	
ft	Watts	cu ft	Watts	cu ft	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
7 to 10	40	1.6	0.5	0.02	9	0	8	0	10	0
			1.5	0.06	5	2	4	6	6	0
			2.5	0.10	4	0	3	9	4	3
8 to 13	60	3.0	0.5	0.02	11	0	9	6	12	9
			1.5	0.06	6	4	5	6	7	3
			2.5	0.10	4	11	4	6	5	6
12 to 16	100	4.0	0.5	0.02	14	5	12	6	16	0
			1.5	0.06	8	2	7	0	9	6
			2.5	0.10	6	4	5	8	7	0
14 to 20	150	6.0	0.5	0.02	17	4	15	0	20	0
			1.5	0.06	10	0	9	0	11	0
			2.5	0.10	7	9	7	0	8	6
17 to 27	250	10.0	0.5	0.02	22	5	20	0	25	0
			1.5	0.06	12	11	11	9	14	3
			2.5	0.10	10	0	9	0	11	0
25 to 35	400	16.0	0.5	0.02	28	2	25	0	31	6
			1.5	0.06	16	4	15	0	17	9
			2.5	0.10	12	7	11	6	13	6
30 to 40	500	20.0	0.5	0.02	31	7	28	0	35	6
			1.5	0.06	18	6	16	6	20	9
			2.5	0.10	14	2	12	6	15	0

* To determine the size of equivalent Welsbach lamps allow 1 cu ft per hour for each 25 watts. Adapted from the Electric Journal, by A. J. Airston.

The Designing of General Illumination by Each System Using Tungsten or Welsbach Lamps

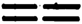
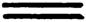
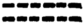
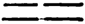
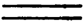
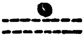
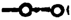
(1) From Table III should be determined the watts per square foot desirable for the given class of work, and the total number of watts necessary should then be computed.

(2) From Table IV should be obtained the size of unit desirable for a given height of room and the number and spacing of fixtures then computed.

(3) The ceiling should be laid off in squares the sides of which are as nearly as possible equal to the value of the ideal spacing. One fixture should be located at the center of each square.

(4) Each lamp should be checked up on the plan to see that it is useful and clear of obstacles, and the layout incorporated into the building plans using the standard methods and symbols for electricity or gas as the case may be.

Table V. Standard Symbols for Gas-Piping Plans*

4	Ceiling-outlet; gas only. Numeral indicates the number of single-mantle gas-lamps.
	Single-lamp outlet (ceiling-units, pendants, etc.); gas only.
$\frac{4}{2}$	Ceiling-outlet; combination. $\frac{4}{2}$ indicates 4 electric lamps and 2 single-mantle gas-lamps.
2	Bracket-outlet; gas only. Numeral indicates the number of gas-lamps.
$\frac{4}{2}$	Bracket-outlet; combination. $\frac{4}{2}$ indicates 4 electric lamps and 2 gas-lamps.
2	Baseboard-outlet; gas only. Numeral indicates number of gas-lamps.
	Floor-outlet; gas only.
	Special outlet (for portable lamp, heater, etc.); gas only.
$\frac{2}{5}$	Outlet for outdoor-standard or pedestal; gas only. $\frac{2}{5}$ indicates 2 gas-lamps, with 5 mantles per lamp.
$\frac{6}{2/5}$	Outlet for outdoor standard or pedestal; combination. $\frac{6}{2/5}$ indicates 6 electric lamps, and 2 gas-lamps, with 5 mantles per lamp.
4	Arc-lamp outlet; gas only. Numeral indicates the number of mantles.
2	Pump or pneumatic lighting-system. Numeral indicates the number of lamps to be operated from one pump.
2	Push-button for magnet-valve. The numeral indicates the number of lamps to be operated from one push-button switch.
	Meter-outlet.
	Main or supply-pipe concealed under floor.
	Main or supply-pipe concealed under floor above.
	Main or supply-pipe exposed.
	Branch pipe concealed under floor.
	Branch pipe concealed under floor above.
	Branch pipe exposed.
	Street gas-main.
	Battery-outlet.
	Riser.

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* Illuminating Engineering Laboratories, Welsbach Company.

Distance from Floor to Center of Wall-Outlets *

	ft	in
Living-room	5	6
Chambers	5	0
Offices	6	0
Corridors	6	3
Push-button switches or pneumatic pumps	4	0

* Illuminating Engineering Laboratories, Welsbach Company.

Examples of Design of Lighting-System for accounting-office, 63 by 25 ft with 13-ft ceiling (Fig. 1). Walls and ceiling-light in color.

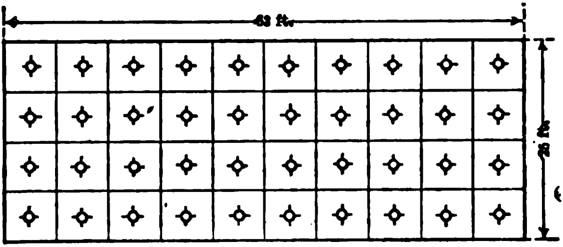

Fig. 1. Plan of Ceiling-lights

Direct System

Watts per sq ft = 1.5 (Table III)
Total watts = 1.5 × 63 × 25 = 2 400 (nearly)
Unit, size of = 60 watt electric (Table IV)
= 3 cu ft per hour, ordinary inclosed gas, or } about
= 2 cu ft per hour, Welsbach KINETIC }
Number of units = 2 400/60 = forty
Spacing (average) desired = 6 ft 4 in (Table IV)
Number of rows = 25/6⅓ = four
Number of outlets per row = 40/4 = ten
Spacing between rows = 25/4 = 6¼ ft
Spacing in rows = 63/10 = 6⅓ ft
Spacing-average = 6 ft 4 in.

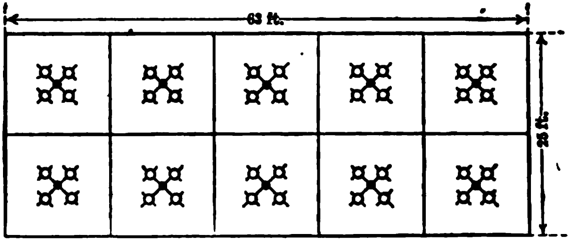

Fig. 1A. Modification of Plan Shown in Fig. 1

Fig. 1A is a modification of the plan shown in Fig. 1, and is a great improvement. It will not produce such even illumination but will result in a much more artistic effect, especially if fixtures are chosen which harmonize with the furnishings of the room. The lamps are placed in groups of four on ten fixtures and these are equally spaced throughout the room. Here again it is always possible to use lamps of higher wattage at any point where the illumination is not sufficient. The importance of a proper choice of reflector is shown from a study of Figs. 2 to 5.* It will be noted in Fig. 2 how a bare tungsten-lamp throws the greater part of its light to the walls. The distribution of any light can be controlled to a remarkable extent by the use of the proper reflector. Figs. 3 to 5 show how the several types of Holophane reflectors distribute the light.

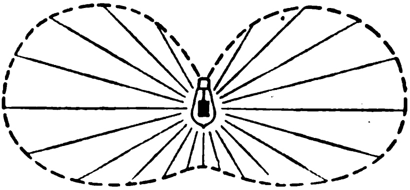

Fig. 2. Distribution of Candle-power about a Bare Tungsten Lamp

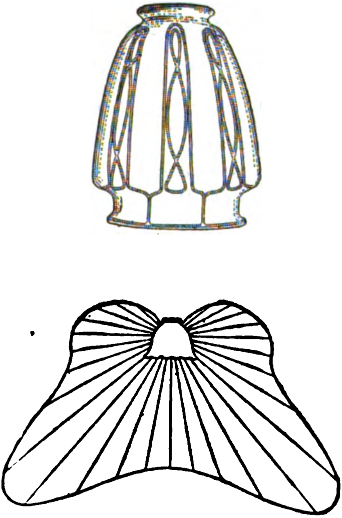

Fig. 3. Holophane Reflector. Extensive Distribution of Light

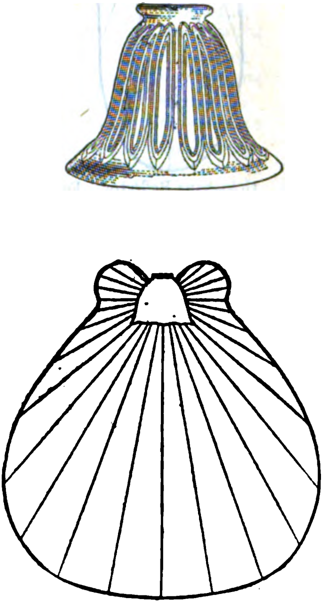

Fig. 4. Holophane Reflector. Intensive Distribution of Light

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* Furnished by E. B. Rowe, of the Holophane Works.

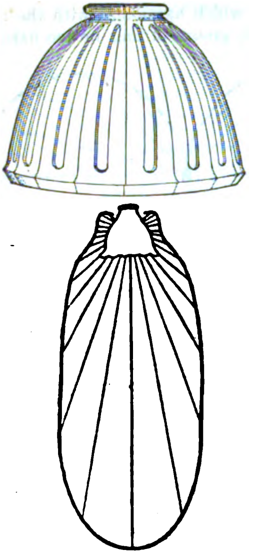

Fig. 5. Holophane Reflector. Focusing Effect on Light

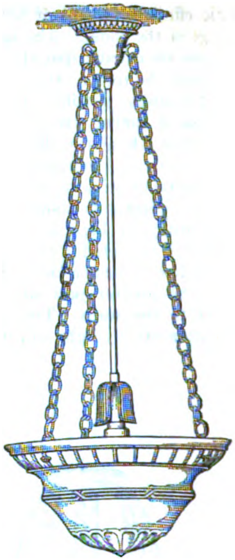

Fig. 6. Example of Type of Fixture Used in Semiindirect System. Macbeth-Evans Company

Indirect or Semiindirect Systems, for Electricity

Watts per sq ft = 1.5 (Table III)
Total watts = 2 400, nearly
Average spacing = 14 to 24 ft (Table VI)*
Select 25/2 = 14 ft for lamps in two rows
Number of units in row = 63/12.5 = five
Spacing in row = 63/5 = 12 ft 7 in, about
Type of reflector = Concentrating (Table VI)
Distance from reflector to ceiling = 30 in (Table VI)
Number of units = two rows of five each = ten
Watts per unit = 2 400/10 = 240
Lamps per unit = one, 250 watts
four, 60 watts
six, 40 watts

Calculations for this Example for Gas-Lighting

Welsbach kinetic burner used.
Cu ft per hour per sq ft = 0.06 × 0.6 = 0.036 (Table III)
Total hourly consumption = 63 × 25 × 0.036 = 57 cu ft per hour.
Average spacing (see above) = 12½ ft
Number of units = ten
Consumption per unit = 57/10 = 6
Reflector and mounting-height as in preceding problem
Lamps per unit = one, 6 cu ft
Lamps per unit = two, 3 cu ft, etc.

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* See How to Use Table VI, immediately following the Table.

Table VI. For Determining Number of Ceiling-Outlets, Type of Reflector and the Distance from Top of Reflector to Ceiling for Indirect and Semiindirect Lighting *

Height of ceiling in feet	Type of reflector	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30	32	34	36	38	40
20	Distributing						....	....	....	....	....	....	48	48	48	5′-0	6′-6
	Concentrating						....	....	48	5′-0	6′-6	7′-0	....	....	....	....	....
19	Distributing						....	....	....	....	....	....	48	48	5′-0	6′-0	....
	Concentrating						....	....	48	6′-0	6′-6	6′-6	....	....	....	....	....
18	Distributing						....	....	....	....	....	42	48	48	6′-0	....	....
	Concentrating						....	42	5′-0	6′-0	6′-0	....	....	....	....	....	....
17	Distributing						....	....	....	....	42	42	4′-6	6′-0	....	....	....
	Concentrating						36	4′-6	6′-0	6′-0	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
16	Distributing	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	42	42	4′-6	5′-6				
	Concentrating	....	....	....	....	36	42	5′-6	5′-6	....	....	....	....				
15	Distributing	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	30	36	4′-6	5′-0	....				
	Concentrating	....	....	....	30	36	4′-6	5′-0	....	....	....	....	....				
14	Distributing	....	....	....	....	....	....	30	30	48	5′-0	....	....				
	Concentrating	....	....	....	30	48	5′-0	....	....	....	....	....	....				
13	Distributing	....	....	....	....	....	30	30	48	....	....	....	....				
	Concentrating	....	....	30	36	48	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				
12	Distributing	....	....	....	....	24	30	42	48	....	....	....	....				
	Concentrating	....	....	30	48	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				
11½	Distributing	....	....	....	24	24	36	48	....	....	....	....	....				
	Concentrating	....	24	36	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				
11	Distributing	....	....	....	24	30	42	48	....	....	....	....	....				
	Concentrating	....	24	42	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				
10½	Distributing	....	....	....	24	36	42	....	....	....	....	....	....				
	Concentrating	....	30	42	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				
10	Distributing	....	....	18	24	36	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				
	Concentrating	18	30	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				
9½	Distributing	....	18	18	30	36	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				
	Concentrating	18	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				
9	Distributing	....	18	24	30	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				
	Concentrating	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				
8½	Distributing	....	18	24	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				
	Concentrating	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				
8	Distributing	12	18	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				
	Concentrating	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				

One side of the limiting square in feet that can be uniformly illuminated from one center outlet

Table VI gives the distance in inches (except as noted) from the top of the reflector to the ceiling to obtain the desired distribution of light from one ceiling-outlet.

Where values are not given to the left, it is advisable to submit data to illuminating engineers and for greater ceiling-heights than 20 ft.

* H. B. Wheeler, X-Ray Eye-Comfort Company.

An idea of the appearance of some of the typical modern fixtures using gas or electricity in these systems of lighting may be obtained from Figs. 6, 7 and 8.

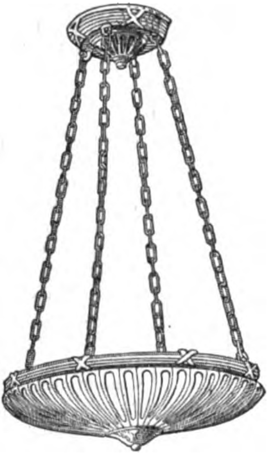

Fig. 7. Type of Fixture in Indirect Illumination. National X-Ray Reflector Company

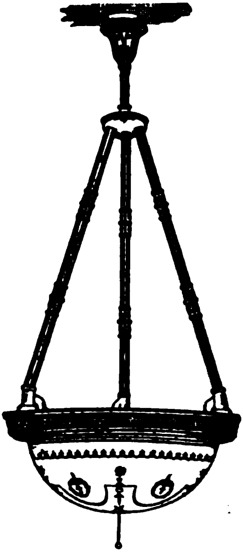

Fig. 8. Fixture Used for Gas by Either Indirect or Semiindirect System

How to Use Table VI. In the first column of Table VI is located the height of ceiling, in this case, 13 ft. The last square to the right of this figure, which has a number in it, is noted. In this case the last square to the right of 13 ft, which has a number in it, contains the number 48. By following this column containing the number 48 down to the figures printed in heavy type at the bottom of the table, the heavy-faced number in this case is found to be 24. This 24 is the length of the side of the largest square which a single fixture can properly illuminate when the ceiling is 13 ft high. The 48 which is opposite the 13 is merely the number of inches the fixture must be hung from the ceiling. Thus the largest squares into which we can possibly divide the ceiling have 24-ft sides. But a room 25 ft wide cannot be divided into 24-ft squares. We are compelled, therefore, to divide it into squares of a smaller size, since the fixtures will not illuminate any larger square. The greatest length into which we can divide 25 ft is 12½ ft. We may, then, decide to use fixtures which will illuminate 14-ft squares. Locate the number 14 in heavy type at bottom of table, and trace up the column in which it is found until the square is reached which is opposite the ceiling-height of 13 ft. Here the number 30 is found. This means we must hang the fixture so that the top of it is 30 in from the ceiling in order to get the desired results. Looking along the squares to the right of the one in which we find the 30, we find the word CONCENTRATING, which signifies the type of reflector advised for this installation.

School-Room Lighting.* The following illumination-constants have been worked out by experiments and experience covering a wide range of conditions. In each of the following cases light tinted walls and ceilings are taken as a standard.

Auditoriums and Lecture-Halls. Since no continuous reading is required here, 0.75 watt per sq ft, direct system, is all that is needed, if it is properly diffused to a pleasant softness.

Class-Rooms and Laboratories. These must be lighted for the purpose of writing notes and taking accurate readings of instruments. Thus 1¼ watts per sq ft, direct system, are required.

Wood-Working Shops. The surfaces here are generally high and offer good reflecting properties, so that 1½ watts per sq ft, direct system, are sufficient.

Machine-Shops. Because the belts, machines and dingy floors offer great absorbing surfaces at least 2 watts per sq ft, direct system, are necessary.

Foundries. The dark molding-sand and the dust and smoke in the air make 3 watts per sq ft, direct system, necessary.

Drafting-Rooms. The semiindirect system with 2¼ watts per sq ft (about the equivalent of 1¾ watts per sq ft, direct system) has proved highly satisfactory.

Illumination by Gas.† Recent progress in incandescent gas-lighting has resulted in the development of appliances in which practically all of the shortcomings of previous types are overcome, and except for inaccessible locations, or where lamps are very infrequently lighted, there is little to choose between the two illuminants, gas and electricity, upon the score of convenience or of artistic possibilities, while the greater economy of gas-lighting (often in the ratio of about 2½ to 1) coupled with the freedom from interruption which characterizes gas-service makes it desirable to pipe all buildings, particularly residences, for gas throughout, preferably installing combination-fixtures and providing wall-outlets and baseboard-outlets for the connection of the various gas-operated conveniences which are being developed in rapidly increasing numbers.

Welsbach Kinetic-Burner Lamps [With Nearest Equivalent Sizes in Electric Incandescent Lamps

Lamps	Mazda watts	Nitrogen-filled Mazda (Type C) watts
1 mantle 2.5 cu ft per hour	two, 40	....
2 mantles 5.0 cu ft per hour	150	....
3 mantles 7.5 cu ft per hour	250	....
4 mantles 10.0 cu ft per hour	six, 40	....
5 mantles 12.5 cu ft per hour	400	....
6 mantles 15.0 cu ft per hour	500	....
8 mantles 20.0 cu ft per hour	....	500
10 mantles 25.0 cu ft per hour	....	750

Gas-Lamps are available in a variety of types and sizes. The most recent development is the KINETIC burner of the Welsbach Company in which the efficiency is increased by from 50% to 100% over the previous types. With this burner no enclosing glassware or housings are required, and the lamp is said to require no attention beyond the renewal of mantles every 2 000 burning-hours. There is practically no depreciation in candle-power during this interval. Ignition is accomplished either by a pilot-flame burning about 1/10 cu ft per hour, or by electrical means, and several types of distant control are available. The following table gives the sizes in which these lamps may be obtained and the nearest equivalent sizes in electric incandescent lamps.

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* A. L. Williston. † R. F. Pierce, Welsbach Company.

Selection of Illuminants

(1) Factors favorable to the use of electricity:
- Units less than 60 candle-power required.
- Lamps in inaccessible positions.
- Lamps lighted at infrequent intervals.
- Lamps placed very close to ceiling (12 in or less).
- Poor gas service as regards:
  - Pressure-regulation (more than 50% variation from minimum).
  - Non-uniformity of gas-quality.
  - Imperfect purification.
- Good electric service as regards:
  - Voltage-regulation.
  - Freedom from liability to derangement by accident.
- Non-rigid fixtures.

(2) Factors favorable to the use of gas:
- Units of 60 candle-power or more.
- Accessible locations.
- Frequent use of lamps.
- Lamps placed 15 in or more from ceiling.
- Good gas service as regards:
  - Pressure-regulation (not more than 50% variation from minimum).
  - Uniformity of gas-quality (chemical composition).
  - Proper purification.
- Poor electric service as regards:
  - Voltage-regulation (more than 5% variation from maximum) most likely on alternating-current circuits.
  - Liability to derangement by accident (overhead circuits).
  - Rigid fixtures.

Hygiene.[*] From the hygienic point of view there is little to choose between the two illuminants. The investigations of Dr. Rideal have shown that: (1) Gas-light positively improves the air for breathing purposes under the actual conditions of use. The causes of this improvement are the acceleration of ventilation, the destruction of disease-germs and the addition of necessary moisture. Gas-burners give rise to stronger air-currents and invariably produce a more active ventilation and diffusion of air than electric lights; hence, along with the products of the gas-burner, the exhalations of persons present are more rapidly removed; (2) The ascending currents of air from the gas-lights on reaching the ceilings rapidly part with their heat, which is conducted away by the rafters and joists; (3) The electric lamps produce more heat than is commonly accredited to them, and this is the explanation of the unexpected result that the average temperature of the room is practically the same under either illuminant, and that the electric light does not show the superiority in coolness usually claimed. When excessive temperatures are encountered in gas-lighted rooms, it will be found due to the radiant heat from low-hung lamps of excessive size. On account of the economy of gas-lighting, it is a common practice to provide from four to six times as much illumination as is required. Dr. Rideal's tests also emphasized, what is a matter of common experience, that under direct lighting, the lower brilliancy of the gas-mantle reduced the glare from glazed papers to such an extent as to be noticeable in the results: "The sensitiveness of the eye to light as measured in the perception-test diminished very markedly after exposure to the electric light, while no corresponding effect is noticeable after the eye has been subjected to gaslight. All the results point strongly in the same direction, namely, that gaslight, as used in these experiments, is less fatiguing to the eye than electric light." Under semi-indirect or indirect lighting, of course, no such disparity in effect is found.

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[*] See Relative Hygienic Values of Gas and Electric Lighting, by Samuel Rideal, Transactions Royal Sanitary Institute, March, 1908.

The Foregoing Rules Indicate the General Practice in planning the illumination of a room. It must be said, however, that this set of rules must not be followed too slavishly. In illumination no rules can take the place of judgment and intelligence. Each project must be considered more or less as a problem by itself, for which previous experience and former installations should be made to furnish data and to suggest methods. It is well, therefore, when planning the illumination of a room, to visit as many similar rooms as possible, note the effect of the systems in use and obtain data as to their efficiency, cost, etc. The most successful scheme may then be used as the basis for planning the desired installation.

The Diffusion of Light through Windows *

Tests on the Diffusion of Light by Glass. Abstracts from report of Charles L. Norton, on an elaborate series of tests made at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology:† The results of the tests on a score or more of different glasses may be stated briefly. We may increase the light in a room 30 ft or more deep to from three to fifteen times its present effect by using FACTORY-RIBBED GLASS instead of PLANE GLASS in the upper sashes. By using prisms we may, under certain conditions, increase the effective light to fifty times its present strength. The gain in effective light on substituting ribbed glass or prisms for plane glass is much greater when the sky-angle is small, as in the case of windows opening upon light-shafts or narrow alleys. The increase in the strength of the light directly opposite a window in which ribbed glass or prisms have been substituted for plane glass is at times such as to light a desk or table 50 ft from the window better than one 20 ft from the window had previously been lighted.

The Kinds of Glass Tested were as follows:

(1) Ground glass of different degrees of fineness.

(2) Rough plate or hammered glass.

(3) Ribbed or corrugated glass, with five, and eleven and twenty-one ribs to the inch, the corrugations being sinusoidal in outline, as in *A*, Fig. 9, and the back of the plate smooth.

(4) Glass known as MAZE, FLORENTINE or FIGURED, in which a raised pattern is worked upon one side, practically roughening the whole surface.

(5) Wash-board glass, corrugated, with twenty-one ribs to the inch on one side and five ribs to the inch on the other side, the ribs being parallel.

(6) Skylight-glass, which has five ribs to the inch on each side, the groove on one side being opposite the rib on the other, giving a sinuous section *B*, Fig. 9.

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* See, also, the subjects Pressed Prism-Plate Glass and Prism Glass, Part III, pages 1491 to 1493.

† From Report No. III, Insurance Engineering Experiment Station, September, 1902.

(7) Ripple-glass, with rippled surfaces on both sides; of very beautiful appearance and a clear white color.

(8) Glass ribbed on one side and figured on the other.

(9) Ribbed glass with a wire net pressed into it, to increase its resistance to fire.

Of these several specimens, one or two may be dismissed with brief mention. Ground glass is of little value, except as a softening medium for bright sunlight. Its rapidly increasing opaqueness with moisture and dust makes it undesirable as a window-glass. The common rough plate has very little action as a diffusing-medium, giving no perceptible change in the effective light. Ripple-glass has great value as a diffusing-medium in small rooms with nearly open horizon. Of the ribbed glasses, the fine Factory-Ribbed, with twenty-one ribs to the inch, is distinctly the best, not in all probability because of the fineness, but because of the greater sharpness of the corrugations. The Ribbed wire-glass is about 20% less effective than the ordinary Factory-Ribbed glass. The addition of a second corrugation upon the back of the plate giving the Skylight and Wash-Board glass is of no apparent value. The raised pattern imprinted upon one surface of the glass, as in the case of the Maze glass, gives the widest diffusion, especially in bright sunlight. A raised figure, when worked upon the back of the Ribbed glass, renders it less offensive to the eye in bright sunlight, but less effective in deep rooms. The only glasses of this group which it is worth while, then, to discuss further are the Factory-Ribbed and the Maze glass.

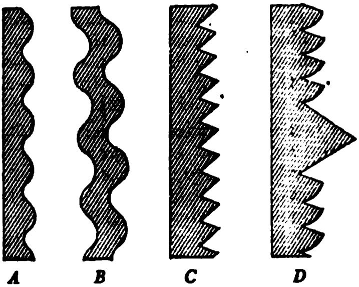

Fig. 9. Types of Ribbed or Prism-glass

The second group comprises the following glasses:

(1) The Luxfer prisms.

(2) The Solar prisms.

(3) The Daylight-prisms.

(4) The glass of prismatic section made by the Mississippi Glass Company.

(5) Three-way prisms.

(6) Maltby prisms.

The Luxfer prism consists of a plate smooth on one side and deeply notched on the other as in *C*, Fig. 9, the teeth or prisms being of very flat, smooth faces of brilliant appearance. The glass is clear white, and the prisms used in canopies and in the major part of the vertical glazing are made in tiles or plates about 4 in square. Tiles are built up in large sheets in frames of copper or brass, so made as to give to the sheets of tiles a strength and durability far in excess of a single sheet of the same size. The Luxfer prisms are made for factory-use in large sheets, as well as in the small tiles. The Solar prisms are made in small tiles, which are held together in a metal frame to make large sheets. The main difference between the Solar and Luxfer prisms is that the under face of the former prism is curved instead of plane, as in *D*, Fig. 9. The Daylight-prisms tested were made in large sheets and of approximately the same cross-section and general appearance as the Luxfer prisms for factory-use. No tiles of Daylight-prisms were tested, as none came to hand in time for the test. The Mississippi prism glass is much like the other prisms in cross-section, but the ridges or prisms do not run across the plate in a straight line, but in a wavy or sinuous line. No advantage arising from this over the straight-edge prism was detected.

Conclusions. (1) The conditions in a room less than 15 ft deep are such that, except with a skylight of less than 45°, it is not advisable to alter the general course of the light by using a prismatic or ribbed glass. A nearly hemispherical diffusion, such as is given by the Maze or Ripple-glass, is ordinarily preferable.

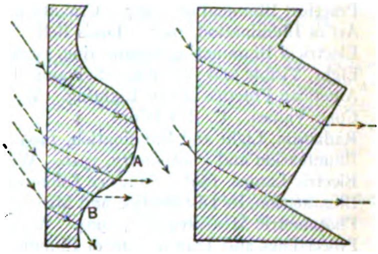

Fig. 10. Refraction of Light in Ribbed and Prism-glass

(2) When a room is from 20 to 60 ft deep, or even more, and has a skylight of 60° or less, the ribbed and prismatic glass results in a very great gain in effective light. The gain in brilliancy is such as to make a basement with prism-canopies as light as a second story with plane glass.

Rooms with windows opening upon light-shafts and narrow alleys with very limited openings to the sky, where the available light is now small, may have the light 20 ft back from the window increased ten or twenty times by using prisms; and, by using canopies of prisms, it is sometimes possible to strengthen the light fifty to one hundred times. With sky-angles of 30°, or less, and in deep rooms, the relative efficiency of the prism tile increases greatly. The refraction of the incident ray in a case of the ribbed glass and prism is shown in Fig. 10. Ribbed and maze glass are of very great value in softening the light, especially in the case of such windows as are exposed to the direct sun, aside from their effectiveness in strengthening the light at distant points. With the Maze glass, the artist may have, in all weather and in all directions, what is in effect a much-desired NORTH LIGHT. The photographer may have in this way as well diffused a light as he now has with cloth screens or shades, and with a much greater intensity. To be efficient in rooms 20 ft deep or more, ribbed glass should be set with its ribs horizontal, and where the sunlight falls upon it, it should be provided with thin white shades. All inferences drawn from the test are made upon the assumption that the windows are to be glazed with diffusing glass only in the upper half, which is the common practice. If the lower sash is to be glazed with diffusing glass as well, a further increase of about 25% may be expected.

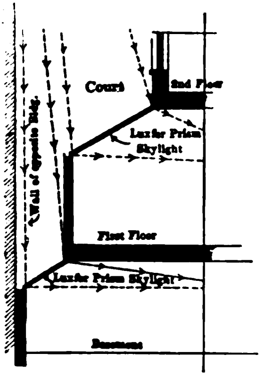

Fig. 11. Basement and First Story Lighted from Court

Considering both expense and efficiency, the following general suggestions are given: Use Maze or Ripple-glass in small rooms or offices not more than 15 or 20 ft deep; use Factory-Ribbed glass in rooms from 30 to 50 ft deep, with sky-angles of 60° or more; use prisms or Factory-Ribbed glass, in sheets, in all vertical windows in rooms more than from 50 to 60 ft deep, with sky-angle of less than 45°. With a sky-angle of less than 30° use prisms in canopies. Fig. 11 shows an effective method of lighting the basement and first story where the light must come from a court.

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ELECTRIC WORK FOR BUILDINGS

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General Considerations and Definitions. Electrical energy is now in common use, furnishing power, heat and light, operating bells and buzzers, and transmitting messages by telephone and telegraph. In order to accomplish these results, a current of electricity must flow around an electric circuit. The nature of electricity is not known, but the flow of it through an electric circuit is analogous to the flow of water through a system of pipes.

Current. Amperes. The flow of water is measured in GALLONS PER SECOND. The flow of electricity is measured in AMPERES. An ampere-flow of electricity is analogous to a gallon-per-second flow of water. The amperes thus indicate the quantity of electricity flowing through an electrical appliance in one second. About ½ ampere is flowing through an ordinary carbon-filament incandescent lamp when it is glowing at 16 candle-power. The same current of ½ ampere causes a modern tungsten lamp to produce over 40 candle-power. An arc-lamp usually requires a flow of from 5 to 10 amperes.

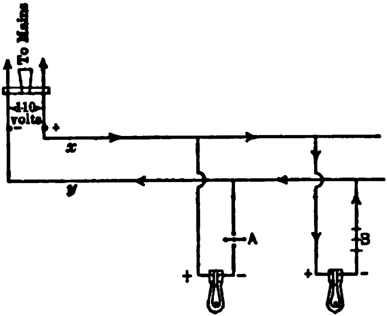

Fig. 1. Current Always Flows from (+) to (−)

Pressure. Volts. When a current of water flows from one point to another in a pipe-system, it is always because there is a hydraulic pressure present causing it to flow. This pressure is usually measured in pounds per square inch. Similarly, when a current of electricity flows from one point to another in an electric circuit, it is because there is an electric pressure present which causes it to flow. This electric pressure is measured in VOLTS. An electric pressure of 1 VOLT is analogous to a hydraulic pressure of 1 lb per sq in. The pressure which causes the ½-ampere current to flow through an incandescent lamp is usually 110 volts. The electric company instals at least two wires in a residence and then maintains an electric pressure of 110 volts between them just as the water company maintains a pressure in the water-pipes. This electric pressure is at all times tending to force electricity from one wire to the other wire across the space between the two wires, just as the water-pressure tends to force the water out from the pipe. The rubber insulation is put on to prevent this flow, very much as the strength and compactness of the iron prevents the flow of water through the walls of the pipe. But when one terminal of a lamp is connected to one wire and the other terminal to the other wire, the electric pressure tending to send a current from one wire to the other, sends a current through the lamp and causes it to glow. We mark the wire bringing the current to the lamp (+). The wire taking the current away, we mark (−). Thus in Fig. 1, if the current comes in on the wire marked (x), this wire is (+) and the wire (y) is (−). A pressure of 110 volts is maintained which tends to cause a current to flow across from the wire (x) to the wire (y). No current can flow, however, unless some path is afforded between the two wires. For instance, no current is flowing through lamp L_1, because the open switch A makes a gap across which the current cannot pass. Switch B, however, is closed, thus allowing the pressure to force a current from the wire (x) through the lamp L_2 to the wire (y) and back into the street-mains. Of course the electric company maintains the 110-volt pressure between the wires (x) and (y) whether any current is drawn from the wires or not, just as a water company maintains the pressure in the water-mains whether any water is drawn from the pipes or not.

Resistance. Ohms. The fact that a current of only ½ ampere flows through an incandescent lamp when a pressure of 110 volts is applied to it, is due to the RESISTANCE of the fine filament. This resistance of the filament is analogous to the resistance which a pipe of small bore offers to the flow of water. The resistance of an electrical appliance is merely the ratio of the pressure to the current which that pressure can force through it. As an equation, it is expressed

$$\text{Resistance} = \frac{\text{pressure}}{\text{current}}$$

When the pressure is measured in volts and the current in amperes, the resistance is then in ohms. Thus

$$\text{Ohms} = \frac{\text{volts}}{\text{amperes}}$$

Thus, since a pressure of 110 volts forces ½ ampere through an ordinary incandescent lamp, the resistance of the lamp is 110/½ = 220 ohms.

Ohm's Law. This relation between pressure, current and resistance is called OHM'S LAW. It is written in symbols in the three forms

$$R = E/I$$
$$E = IR$$
$$I = E/R$$

where

R = resistance in ohms;
E = pressure in volts;
I = current in amperes.

Example. An electric flat-iron has a resistance of 35 ohms. What current will flow through it when it is put across a 110-volt circuit?

$$I = E/R = 110/35 = 3.14 \text{ amperes}$$

Example. An electric toaster takes 1½ amperes when on a 115-volt circuit. What resistance does it have?

$$R = E/I = 115/1.5 = 76.6 \text{ ohms}$$

Insulators and Conductors. In order that practically no current may leak from one wire to the other, the wires are covered with rubber. This rubber covering offers such high resistance to the flow of an electric current that, although two wires may lie very close to one another with only this rubber between them, practically no current leaks through the rubber from one wire to the other. Materials such as rubber, glass, porcelain, dry wood, etc., have this resisting property and are said to be INSULATORS. Metals, on the other hand, offer very little resistance to the flow of an electric current and are called CONductors. A copper wire 1/10 in in diameter has a resistance of only 1/1000 of an ohm per foot. Accordingly, because of their low resistance, copper wires are generally used to carry electric currents, and because of its high resistance, rubber is generally used as a covering of the copper wires to prevent leakage from one wire to another. Wire, approved by the National Board of Fire Underwriters and installed according to their rules, will have the proper insulating covering for each installation.

Power. Watts. The flow of an electric current has been likened to the flow of water through a pipe. A current of water is measured by the number of gallons, or pounds, flowing per minute; a current of electricity is measured by the number of amperes. The power required to keep a current of water flowing is the product of the current in pounds per minute by the head, or pressure, in feet. This gives the power in foot-pounds per minute. To reduce to horse-power, it is necessary merely to divide by 33 000. Thus

$$\frac{\text{(pounds per minute)} \times \text{(feet)}}{33\,000} = \text{horse-power}$$

In exactly the same way, the power required to keep a current of electricity flowing is the product of the current in amperes by the pressure in volts. This gives the power in watts.

$$\text{Watts} = \text{amperes} \times \text{volts}$$

The term watt is merely a unit of power, and denotes the power used when one volt causes one ampere of current to flow. The watts consumed when any given current flows under any pressure can always be found by multiplying the current in amperes by the pressure in volts. Thus, if an incandescent lamp takes 0.5 ampere when burning on a 110-volt line, the power consumed equals

$$0.5 \times 110 = 55 \text{ watts}$$

That is,

$$\text{Power} = \text{current} \times \text{pressure}$$

or

$$\text{Watts} = \text{amperes} \times \text{volts}$$

Example. What power is consumed by a motor which runs on a 220-volt circuit, if it takes 4 amperes?

$$\text{Watts} = \text{amperes} \times \text{volts} = 4 \times 220$$
$$\text{Power} = 880 \text{ watts}$$

Incandescent lamps are rated as to the voltage of the line on which they can run, and also as to the amount of electric power it takes to keep them glowing. Thus, a carbon-filament lamp may be rated as a 110-volt, 50-watt lamp. A tungsten-lamp may be rated as a 110-volt, 25-watt lamp. This means that both lamps are intended to run on a 110-volt circuit, but that it takes twice as much power to keep the carbon-filament lamp glowing as it does to keep the tungsten-lamp glowing.

The Power-Equation. The above relation between volts, amperes and watts is usually expressed in the form of an equation:

$$P = IE$$
$$I = P/E$$
$$E = P/I$$

where

P = power in watts;
I = current in amperes;
E = pressure in volts.

Example. What current does a 40-watt tungsten-lamp take when running on a 115-volt circuit?

$$I = P/E = 40/115 = 0.267 \text{ ampere}$$

Power. Kilowatt and Horse-Power. Because the watt is so small a unit of power, being only 0.74 ft-lb per second, a larger unit, the kilowatt, is generally used in connection with machines, etc.

$$1 \text{ kilowatt} = 1\,000 \text{ watts} = 1\tfrac{1}{3} \text{ horse-power}$$

Thus a motor drawing 10 amperes from a 220-volt line would take $10 \times 220 = 2\,200$ watts $= 2\,200/1\,000 = 2.2$ kilowatts.

At 80% efficiency this motor would give out 80% of $2.2 = 1.76$ kilowatts $= 1.76 \times 1\tfrac{1}{3} = 2\tfrac{1}{3}$ horse-power.

Horse-Power-Hour. Kilowatt-Hour. When a man buys mechanical power to run machinery, he has to pay not only according to the horse-power he uses but also according to the number of hours he uses the power. For instance, he may use 40 horse-power for 1 hour and pay $1.20 for it, that is, at the rate of 3 cts for each horse-power-hour. If he uses 40 horse-power for 2 hours he would have to pay twice as much, because he has used the same power twice as long. Another way of stating the same fact is to say that he used twice as many horse-power-hours. For in the first instance he used 40×1, or 40 horse-power-hours, and in the second 40×2, or 80 horse-power-hours. In other words, he did twice as much work in the second case as he did in the first, or received twice as much energy. The unit of work or energy, then, is the HORSE-POWER-HOUR, and is the work done in 1 hour by a 1-horse-power machine.

Example. How much work is done by a machine delivering 15 h.p. when it is run for 8 hours?

1 h.p. in 1 hr does 1 h.p.-hr
15 h.p. in 1 hr does 15 h.p.-hr
15 h.p. in 8 hr does 8×15, or 120 h.p.-hr

That is

$$\text{Work} = \text{horse-power} \times \text{hours}$$

or

$$15 \times 8 = 120 \text{ h.p.-hr}$$

Similarly, electric power is sold by the KILOWATT-HOUR. This unit is the work or energy delivered in one hour by a 1-kilowatt machine.

For lighting purposes electrical energy is usually sold for from 10 to 15 cts per kilowatt-hour. Thus at 12 cts per kw-hr the monthly bill for burning a 40-watt lamp on an average of 5 hours per day would be computed as follows:

For 1 month of 30 days the lamp is burning

$$30 \times 5 = 150 \text{ hours}$$

To use a 40-watt lamp 150 hours consumes

$$40 \times 150 = 6\,000 \text{ watt-hours} = 6\,000/1\,000 = 6 \text{ kilowatt-hours}$$

At 12 cts per kw-hr, 6 kw-hr cost

$$6 \times 12 = \$0.72$$

An instrument called a KILOWATT-HOUR METER is placed in each house to measure the number of kilowatt-hours which each customer consumes. See Fig. 13 for diagram of installation.

Heating-Effect of Current. An electric current always heats the material through which it passes. Examples of this are the incandescent lamp, in which the current heats the fine tungsten wire until it glows; the electric heaters for chafing-dishes, toasters, etc. Even the wires carrying the current to and from the lamps are heated by the passage of the current through them. But since the heating effect for a given current is directly proportional to the resistance of the conductor, and the conductors always have very little resistance, the heating here is very slight indeed. If conductors of smaller size, and therefore of a higher resistance, were used, the heating would be very pronounced; in fact, it would soften the rubber insulation and might even produce a temperature high enough to set fire to the building. For this reason The National Board of Fire Underwriters issues a table specifying the size of wire which must be used for each amount of current. If smaller wire is used, the resistance of it might be great enough to raise the temperature to a dangerous degree. On the other hand, if a greater current than allowed by this table is sent over the wire, the temperature will also rise, because the heating of a current is also directly proportional to the SQUARE OF THE CURRENT. Thus, doubling the current which a certain wire is carrying will quadruple the amount of heat which the wire must radiate. For this Tables III and IV, see pages 1387 and 1388.

Fuses and Circuit-Breakers. Use is made of the heating effect of a current to protect a circuit against too much current, very much as a boiler is protected by a safety-valve against too much pressure. A small piece of fusible metal, generally a mixture of lead and bismuth, is inserted in the circuit in such a way that all the current which passes through the circuit must also pass through this piece of metal. This device is called a FUSE. Any current which would be dangerous to the circuit melts this fuse, opens the circuit at this point, and thus protects the rest of the circuit from the effects of the current. The cause of the large current may be then removed and a new fuse inserted in place of the old one. CIRCUIT-BREAKERS are also used to protect a circuit against too much current. They are AUTOMATIC SWITCHES controlled by an electro-magnet and are made in a variety of styles. They operate upon the principle that when an electric current passes through a coil of wire it makes a magnet of the coil. The coil is so adjusted that when a current of a certain number of amperes passes through it, it attracts to itself a small piece of iron. The motion of this piece of iron opens the circuit. Fuses and circuit-breakers are thus AUTOMATIC SAFETY-DEVICES required for the protection of all constant-potential systems whatever the voltage. Both are for the purpose of protecting the wires from damage due to the presence of too much current from any cause whatever. The ordinary fuse consists of a porcelain base that has suitable terminals for inserting a fuse between the ends of a wire. It must be constructed so that the blowing out of a fuse can do no damage, that is, set anything on fire, and placed where it can easily be reached to replace the fuse. Formerly a piece of fuse-wire, called a LINK-FUSE, was used in cut-outs, but the underwriters now require enclosed fuses (Fig. 2) or fusible plugs which screw into a receptacle. Fuse-

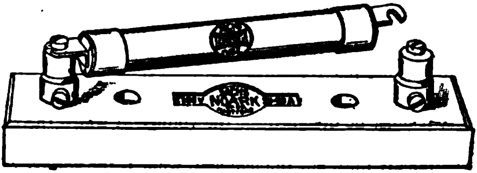

Fig. 2. Enclosed Fuse

plugs may be used for currents up to 30 amperes; above that enclosed fuses must be used. Fuse-plugs and enclosed fuses are somewhat more expensive than the link-fuse, but are considered safer. A FUSE CUT-OUT or CIRCUIT-BREAKER is required at or near the place where the wires enter a building, and every circuit of twelve 16-c.p. carbon-lights or of sixteen 40-watt tungsten-lights must be protected by a cut-out. Circuit-breakers are more expensive than fusible cut-outs, and are generally used only on SWITCHBOARDS for large installations and where it is desirable to open the circuit instantly on certain loads, which a fuse cannot be depended on to do with any degree of accuracy, owing to both time and surrounding temperature-factors. Circuit-breakers are also used largely on installations where the variation in load is large and frequent and the repeated burning out of fuse would become expensive not only for renewals but also on account of the time required to replace them.

Lamps. Two kinds of lamps are used for electric lighting, INCANDESCENT LAMPS and ARC-LAMPS. The former are used principally for interior illumination, although sometimes used for street-lighting, especially where the streets are thickly shaded by trees. Arc-lamps are especially adapted for street-lighting and for large interiors where they can be kept concealed or above the range of the eye, as in railway-stations, stores, etc. An incandescent lamp as commonly made consists of a glass bulb containing a simple carbon or a tungsten conductor the ends of which are connected to the source of the electric current. When the current flows through the filament it heats it to such a degree that it becomes incandescent; hence the name of the lamp. The lamps with the filament of finely-drawn tungsten represent the latest type and are superior in every way to those having a carbon filament. Tungsten-lamps require about one-third as much power to produce the same candle-power as carbon-lamps, and have a much longer life.

Voltages. In order that the current shall cause the lamp to give its rated CANDLE-POWER, it must be designed for the voltage at which the system is run. If the voltage of the current is much greater than that for which the lamp is designed it will quickly burn out the filament, while if the voltage of the current is below that of the lamp, it will not give its rated candle-power, a voltage 10% lower reducing the candle-power about one-half. The voltage commonly used for tungsten-lamps is from 100 to 130. Tungsten-lamps are also made for voltages of from 20 to 260. Two to four candle-power lamps, for illuminating signs or decorative purposes, are made for from 10 to 13 volts by ½-volt steps, these lamps being commonly used in series, ten lamps on a 100 to 130-volt circuit. Two 5-watt lamps, 50 volts, are also often used in series on a 100-volt circuit.

Candle-Power. Incandescent lamps of from 100 to 130 volts are commonly made 15, 20, 25, 40, 60, 100, 150, 250, 400 and 500 watts. These lamps average 1 candle-power for every 1.1 watts. For the method of computing the number, size and distribution of tungsten-lamps for illuminating a given room see pages 1390 and 1391.

Arc-Lamps. These are of two kinds, OPEN ARC-LAMPS and ENCLOSED ARC-LAMPS, the latter being generally used for interior illumination. The light from the enclosed arc is much softer and steadier than that from the old-style open arc; there are no sparks, and the life of the carbon is from twelve to fifteen times as great as in the open arc.

"**Direct-Current Open Arcs** usually require about 10 amperes at 45 volts, or 450 watts. The range of voltage is from 42 to 52 for ordinary constant-current arcs. The most satisfactory light is given by from 45 to 47 volts.

Arc-lights used for stereopticon-lanterns may use as high as 25 amperes and provision should always be made in the wiring-plans for such a light for sufficiently large wires to be installed to carry one and one-half times this current.

"**Direct-Current Enclosed Arcs** consume about 5 amperes at 80 volts, or 400 watts." Arc-lamps generally require a resistance in series with the arc in order to regulate properly. This resistance is usually placed within the structure of the lamp, and may be so adjusted that a single lamp can be made to burn well on any circuit from 100 to 130 volts.

Dynamo-Electric Machines. There are three classes of dynamo-electric machines:

(1) GENERATORS for generating an electric current.
(2) MOTORS for converting electrical into mechanical energy.
(3) TRANSFORMERS and ROTARY CONVERTERS.
  (*a*) Transformers for converting one voltage into a higher or lower voltage. Converters and transformers belong to the same class.
  (*b*) Rotary converters for changing alternating currents to direct currents or vice versa.

A DYNAMO is either a motor or a generator. A MOTOR is the same machine as a generator, but with the nature of its operation reversed. GENERATORS are of two general classes, namely, continuous-current and alternating-current machines; the latter are commonly called ALTERNATORS. Generators and motors of all kinds vary in voltage, current and speed, according to the purpose for which they are designed. A TRANSFORMER consists essentially of two coils of wire, one coarse and one fine, wound upon an iron core. Its function is to convert electrical energy from one voltage to another. If it reduces the voltage it is known as a STEP-DOWN transformer, and if it raises it, it is known as a STEP-UP transformer. A transformer has no moving parts and requires no attendant.

Kinds of Currents Produced. There are two kinds of electrical currents commonly used for light and power in buildings, (1) DIRECT CURRENTS, and (2) ALTERNATING CURRENTS.

"A direct current is uniform in strength and direction, while an alternating current rapidly rises from zero to a maximum, falls to zero, reverses its direction, attains a maximum in the new direction and again returns to zero. A complete set of these changes is called a CYCLE. The number of times the current goes through these changes during each second is called the FREQUENCY of the current. The frequency commonly used for incandescent lighting is 60 cycles per second; that is, the current goes through the above changes in value 60 times per second. A frequency of 25 cycles is also in common use, especially for running motors, although it is not so satisfactory for use with incandescent lights. If a direct current is likened to the steady flow of water through a pipe-system, an alternating current may be likened to the rapid surging back and forth of water in a pipe-system. More difficulty was experienced in utilizing these rapid surges of electricity than in developing direct-current apparatus. Consequently the use of the alternating current was retarded but is now becoming general. The advantages of alternating over direct currents are: (1) Greater simplicity of dynamos and motors, no commutators being required in some types; (2) the feasibility of obtaining high voltages by means of transformers for cheapening the cost of transmission; (3) the facility of transforming from one voltage to another, either higher or lower, for different purposes." *

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* Kent, page 1388.

Table I. Average Current Taken by Direct-Current Motors

Horse-power	Amperes on 110-volt line	Amperes on 220-volt line	Horse-power	Amperes on 110-volt line	Amperes on 220-volt line
¼	3	1.5	25	186	93
½	5.4	2.7	30	222	111
1	9	4.5	35	260	130
2	17	8.5	40	296	148
3	25	12.5	50	....	185
5	40	20	60	....	220
7½	58	29	75	....	275
10	76	38	85	....	312
15	114	57	100	....	366
20	150	75	....	....	....

The current taken by single-phase alternating-current motors can be found by noting the current taken by a direct-current motor of the same size and voltage, and dividing this current by the power-factor of the alternating-current motor. To find the current taken by each terminal of a three-wire, three-phase alternating-current motor, divide the current taken by a single-phase alternating-current motor of the same size and voltage by 1.73.

Example. What current is taken by a 5-horse-power, alternating-current, 220-volt, induction-motor of 80% power-factor?

Solution. A 5-horse-power, direct-current, 220-volt motor takes 20 amperes. A single-phase, 5-horse-power, 220-volt motor of 80% power-factor takes 20/.80 = 25 amperes.

Electric-Lighting Systems Commonly Used for Supplying the Electrical Energy to Lamps

Direct-Current, Constant-Potential Systems. The systems most used in America are:

(1) Two-wire system largely used for incandescent lighting from small plants, as for a large office-building or factory. It is usually operated at 110 volts.

(2) Three-wire system used in small towns for the lighting of buildings from the public mains, usually operated at 220 volts. Also in large cities with underground conduit-system. See pages 1380 to 1382.

Five-wire and seven-wire systems with high voltage have been used in Europe, but very little in America.

Alternating-Current, Constant-Potential Systems. There are two systems:

(1) Single-phase system. Current transmitted to building at from 1 000 to 2 000 volts and reduced to from 50 to 110 volts by a transformer. The term phase is used in connection with alternating-current systems only in the sense of circuit. Thus a single-phase system means an alternating-current system sending out power from one circuit only of the generator. A three-phase system has three circuits.

(2) Three-phase system. Three or four wires are used. This system is most used for lighting from public plants, principally because it enables both lights and motors to be operated from the public dynamo and is the most economical in wire. (See Table I.) Both of these systems are used for incandescent lighting and for power from central stations. For a comparison of a three-wire direct current with a three-phase, three-wire alternating current, see pages

1382–3. An alternating current may be changed to a direct current at a substation by a rotary converter or by a mercury-arc rectifier. The latter is very generally used in garages in order to convert an alternating current into a direct current for charging storage-batteries.

Methods of Connecting Lamps. There are three ways of connecting lamps to the distribution-wires: (1) in series; (2) in parallel; and (3) in parallel series.

(1) Lamps in Series. Lamps are said to be connected in series when they are arranged one after the other, so that the same current flows through all the lamps. The most common example of this system is the lighting of electric cars and the stations on an electric-railway line. The voltage of such lines is usually 550 volts. Since the ordinary incandescent lamp requires but 110 volts, five of these are placed in series as in Fig. 3. Each lamp now has a pressure of 110 volts across it, and the set of five lamps requires 550 volts across it, and so can be placed across the railway supply-wires. When lamps are arranged in series the total resistance of the circuit is the sum of the resistances of the several parts, and the voltage required to force the current through a number of lamps in series is the sum of the voltages required for the separate lamps. Thus the voltage required to supply the proper current for four 52-volt lamps is 4 × 52 = 208 volts. Arc-lamps for street-lighting are often connected in series, but incandescent lamps are very seldom connected in series except as described above or for decorative purposes or electric signs. Where lamps of low voltage, as in signs, etc., are used on 110-volt systems it is necessary to connect them in series. The underwriters do not approve connecting incandescent lamps in series. The series system requires that the same current flow through each lamp, and if one lamp burns out the circuit is broken and all of the lamps will go out, unless some provision is made for maintaining the circuit around the dead lamps.

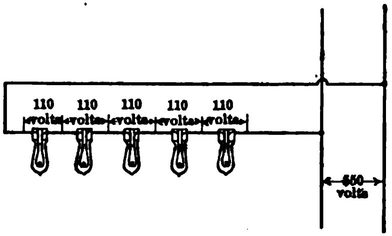

Fig. 3. Five Lamps in Series on a 550-Volt Line. Each Lamp has a Voltage of 110 Volts Across It

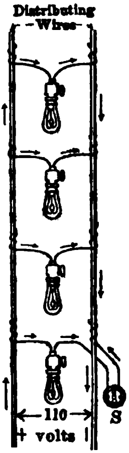

Fig. 4. Four Lamps in Parallel. Each Lamp Has the Full-line Pressure of 110 Volts Across It

(2) Lamps in Parallel. This is the common method of connecting incandescent lamps. It is illustrated in Fig. 4. With this system the pressure in each lamp is the same as in the distributing lines, and any lamp may be turned on or off without affecting the other lamps. For this system the PRESSURE or voltage must be kept constant, while the current or quantity of electricity flowing in the lines will depend upon the number of lamps that are burning. Thus with twelve 16-candle-power lamps of 110 voltage on a parallel circuit, each lamp requiring 0.51 ampere when all the lamps are burning, a current of 6.12 amperes, or 673.2* watts, will be required. With but one lamp burning, a current of only 0.51 ampere will flow. The voltage, however, must be the same for one lamp as for the twelve. For lamps in parallel, therefore, a CONSTANT-POTENTIAL system is required. The current for lamps in parallel may be turned on or off at the lamp, or a switch-loop may be run any distance and the contact made by a switch (*S*) as for the lower lamp (Fig. 4).

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* Watts being equal to amperes times voltage.

(3) **Lamps in Parallel Series.** This method is a combination of the other two. Parallel lines are run as in the parallel system, but two or more lamps are connected in series between them as in Figs. 5 and 6. This method of connecting lamps is used principally in places where it is desired to operate lamps on a power system. Fig. 5 shows a series of five lamps operated on a 500-volt system and Fig. 6 a series of two lamps on a 220-volt system using 110-volt lamps. Any number of series may be connected across the mains, each series being independent of the others. But in each series if one light burns out, the others in the same series will be useless, and one lamp alone cannot be used. The sum of the voltages of the lamps in series must be approximately equal to the voltage between the mains. There are a number of special cases in which this method of connection may be used.

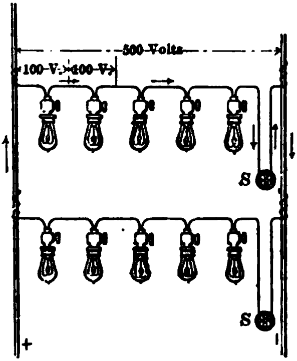

Fig. 5. Lamps in Parallel Series

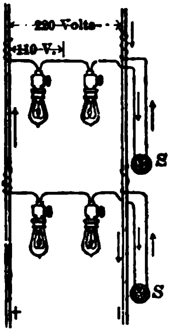

Fig. 6. Lamps in Parallel Series

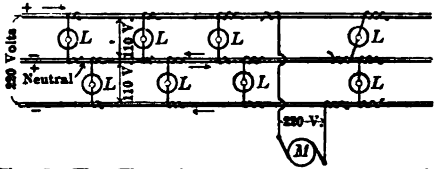

Fig. 7. The Three-wire Edison System. 220 Volts Between Outside Wires; Only 110 Volts Between Either Outside Wire and Neutral Wire

The Edison Three-Wire System. Figs. 4, 5 and 6 are examples of the two-wire system of distribution, which is the system recommended for average-sized office-buildings, apartment-houses, theaters and stores. Where power for motors is to be taken from the same plant as the lighting current, and where the power is not too great a portion of the capacity of the installation, this two-wire system may also be used. Separate mains, however, should under all circumstances be run for the motors, as the variation in load and, consequently, the current-demand on the mains would cause a very appreciable fluctuation in candle-power of the lamps, if on the same mains with the motors. Where comparatively long lines are required and the amount of current to be supplied is large the THREE-WIRE SYSTEM is used. By this system two voltages or pressures can be supplied, 110 and 220 volts being those generally adopted, the 110-volt circuit supplying the arc and incandescent lights and the 220-volt circuit the motors. Fig. 7 shows how the wires are run and connections made. The pressure between the two outside wires is the full voltage transmitted from the generator, usually 220 volts for interior wiring. The current in these two wires flows in opposite directions. The middle wire, called the NEUTRAL WIRE, forms one side of two circuits, the current from one circuit tending to flow in one direction and that from the other circuit in the opposite direction; consequently when currents of the same strength, in amperes, are flowing in both circuits they neutralize each other in the middle wire and there will be no current flowing in this wire. With a current of 10 amperes flowing in one circuit and one of 6 amperes in the other circuit, the current flowing in the neutral wire will be

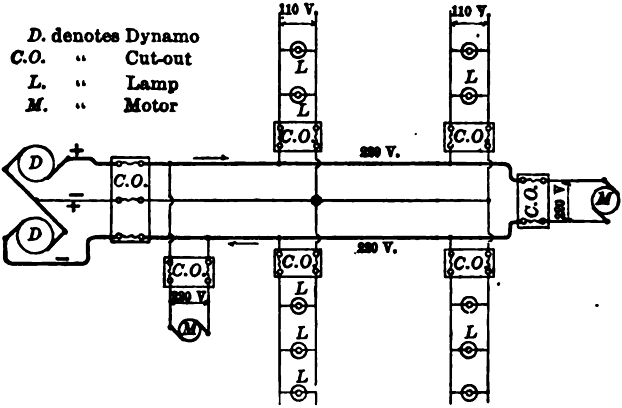

Fig. 8. Example of Three-wire System of Wiring

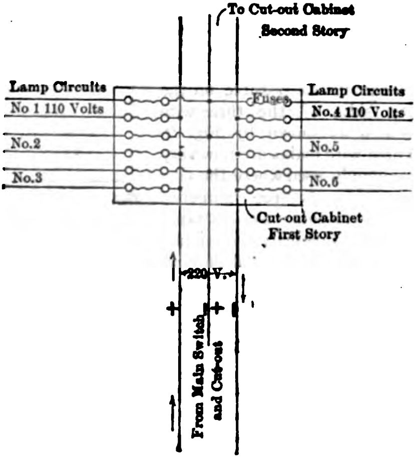

Fig. 9. The Wiring of a Cabinet. Showing How to Divide a Three-wire System into Six Two-wire Circuits, Three Circuits to Each Leg

amperes. To obtain the greatest benefit from this system, it should always be installed so that there will be nearly the same load or number of lamps on each side of the neutral wire. Even then there will be times when more lamps will be burning on one side than on the other, so that it is necessary to give some size to the neutral wire. The neutral wire is seldom made less than one-half the cross-section of the outer wires. For distributing mains in buildings carrying lamps only, the neutral wire should be of the SAME SIZE as the outer wires. From Table II it will be seen that the three-wire system effects a considerable saving in copper, amounting to fully 60% of the ordinary two-wire 110-volt system. As a rule, in supplying current for light and power from one plant, the main wires only are arranged on the three-wire system and the distributing wires are run on the two-wire system as in Fig. 8. When using the three-wire system for lighting only, the three wires are usually run no farther within the building than to the centers of distribution, and from these centers two wires are run for each circuit, the circuits being divided as equally as possible on the two sides of the three-wire system as shown by Fig. 9. Three-wire mains are now very commonly used where the current exceeds 100 amperes. When motors are operated from the three-wire system they are usually connected only to the outside wires. Motors used on three-wire incandescent-lighting systems should be wound for 220 volts.

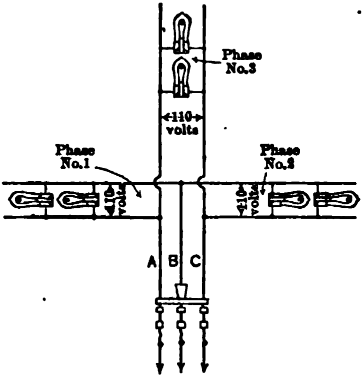

Fig. 10. Three-wire System, Alternating Current. Compare with Fig. 11

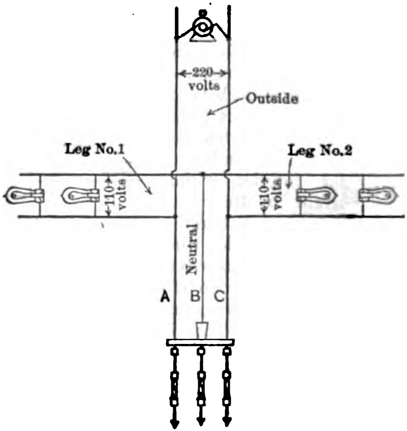

Fig. 11. Three-phase, Three-wire System, Direct Current. Compare with Fig. 10

Comparison of the Three-Phase and Three-Wire Edison Systems. The wiring for the Edison three-wire direct-current system is the same as that for the three-wire, three-phase alternating-current system, the only difference being that the voltage BETWEEN ANY TWO WIRES of a three-phase system is the same. Thus in Fig. 10 which represents a three-wire, three-phase system the voltage between the wires *A* and *B* (phase No. 1) is 110 volts; between *B* and *C* (phase No. 2) is 110 volts; and between *A* and *C* (phase No. 3) is 110 volts. But in Fig. 11, which represents a three-wire direct-current system, in which the voltage across *A* and *B*, and *B* and *C*, is 110 volts, the voltage across *A* and *C* is 220 volts or twice that across either leg.

Table II.* Relative Weight of Copper Required in Different Systems for Equal Effective Voltage

Direct-current, ordinary two-wire system..................	1.000
Direct-current, three-wire system, all wires of same size......	0.375
Direct-current, three-wire system, neutral, one-half size.......	0.313
Alternating-current, single-phase two-wire system............	1.000
Three-phase three-wire..................................	0.750
Three-phase four-wire..................................	0.333

Wire-Calculations

Wire-Gauges. As the diameter of wires is ordinarily designated by the number of a wire-gauge, and as there are a number of wire-gauges in common use, some knowledge of those used for copper wire is necessary. The Brown & Sharpe, or B. & S., gauge (see page 1388) is almost exclusively used in America in connection with electrical work, except where the size of the wire is designated in circular mils. The sizes of wire given by this gauge range from No. 0000 (0.46 in) to No. 40 (0.0031 in), but No. 14 is the smallest size permitted for interior wiring. The No. 10 wire has a diameter of about 1/10 in and its resistance per 1 000 ft is very nearly 1 ohm. For any given number of this gauge a wire three numbers higher has very nearly half the cross-section, and one three numbers lower has twice the cross-section; thus a No. 13 wire has very nearly one-half the cross-section of a No. 10 wire, and a No. 7 has twice the cross-section of a No. 10, or four times that of a No. 13.

The Circular-Mil Wire-Gauge. This gauge was designed by the engineering department of the Edison Company especially for the designation of copper wire for electrical work, and is now in general use in this country. In practice the B. & S. gauge is commonly used for designating wires up to No. 0 or No. 00, and all wires above that size are designated by circular mils (c.m.). The size of wire required is often determined in circular mils and designated by the corresponding B. & S. gauge-number, which is readily done by means of Table III, page 1387. Copper wire is sold by the pound if bare or of the numerous weather-proof varieties, but rubber-covered wire is sold by the 1 000 ft.

The basis of the circular-mil gauge is the area of a wire 1/1000 in in diameter (1 mil = 0.001 in); consequently, 1 c.m. = 0.0000007854 sq in. As the areas of circles vary as the squares of their diameters, it follows that the sectional area of a wire 2 mils in diameter = 4 c.m., of a wire 10 mils in diameter 100 c.m., and so on.

When wires are designated by circular mils, the SECTIONAL AREA and not the diameter is generally given, c.m. always referring to sectional area. The diameter of a wire in MILS OR IN THOUSANDTHS OF AN INCH = square root of its area in CIRCULAR MILS.

Thus the diameter of a wire of 3 600 c.m. = 60 mils, or 0.060 in.

The diameter of a wire 14 400 c.m. = 120 mils = 0.12 in.

The area of a wire 0.162 in in diameter, or 162 mils, = 162^2 = 26 244 c.m.

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* Kent.

To reduce circular mils to square inches. Multiply by 7 854 and point off ten places of decimals. Thus, 5 000 c.m. = 7 854 × 5 000 = 0.0039270000 sq in.

To obtain the sectional area of a square or rectangular bar in circular mils. Multiply together its dimensions in mils and the product by 1.273.

Example. What is the sectional area in circular mils of a bar ⅛ in × ¼ in?

Solution. ⅛ in = 0.125 in = 125 mils, ¼ in = 0.250 in = 250 mils; 125 × 250 × 1.273 = 39781.25 c.m.

The weight of bare copper wire per 1 000 ft = c.m. × 0.003027 lb. Thus the weight of 1 000 ft of copper wire having a sectional area of 2 000 c.m. = 0.003027 × 2 000 = 6.054 lb. Table IV, page 1388, gives the dimensions and weights of bare copper wire from No. 18 to No. 0000 B. & S.

Carrying Capacity of Copper Wire. The safe carrying capacity of copper wire for interior wiring is practically fixed by the underwriters, and if the capacity-limits given in the table published by them are exceeded it would tend to destroy the right to recover insurance in case of fire. The safe carrying capacity of rubber-covered and weather-proof wires given by the National Board of Fire Underwriters is shown by Table III, page 1387. The lower ampere-capacity assigned to rubber-covered wires is due to the fact that the rubber insulation would deteriorate in quality under a temperature as high as that allowed for weather-proof wire; that is, the rubber covering makes necessary a lower rate of heat-development than is required for safety from fire. No wire smaller than No. 14 may be used under insurance-rules, except that No. 16 may be used for flexible cord and No. 18 for fixture-wiring. Nos. 13, 11, 9 and 7 are not usually carried in stock and can only be purchased on special order. Rubber-covered wire must be used for service-wires, for molding-work and in damp places; it is more expensive than weather-proof wire. The latter wire may be used in open or exposed places and for outside line-wires.

Drop of Potential. When an electric current flows through a wire of any appreciable length the pressure becomes reduced by the resistance of the wire, so that if the current enters the wire at, say, 110 volts, at the extreme end of the circuit it will be somewhat less, depending upon the length and sectional area of the wire. This loss in voltage is called DROP OF POTENTIAL. Drop of potential corresponds to LOSS OF HEAD in hydraulics. As a drop of voltage materially below that for which the lamps are designed means diminished candle-power, it is very important that the wires be proportioned so that the drop shall not be sufficient to affect the illumination. The table for safe carrying capacity for wires has nothing to do with the drop of potential which these currents will cause in the wires. Accordingly, mains and distributing wires may be capable of carrying the number of amperes in accordance with Table III, page 1387, and yet cause a drop of potential of such magnitude that the most distant lamps will burn only at a dull red. It is therefore necessary, in computing the size of these mains and distributing wires, to consider two things:

(1) That the wire is large enough, according to the underwriters' table, to carry the current safely.

(2) That the potential drop from the generator to the farthest lamp shall not be excessive. An excessive drop in voltage also means increased cost for light and not enough copper in the wires.

Where the current is supplied from the public mains it is usual to specify a 2% drop, but where the current is produced cheaply, as by a dynamo on the premises, a 3% or 5% drop may be allowed. Not more than a 5% drop on short distances should be permitted, even where very cheap work is desired. The drop in volts (not in percentage) = current in line × resistance of line, or drop in volts = amperes × ohms.

Example. What will be the drop in a circuit of No. 14 copper wire 280 ft long, supplying nine lamps, requiring 4.5 amperes?

Solution. From Table V, page 1389, it is found that the resistance of No. 14 wire is 2.527 ohms per 1 000 ft; hence for 280 ft it will be $2.527 \times 0.280 = 0.7075$ ohm, and drop in volts $= 4.5 \times 0.7075 = 3.1837$ volts. The voltage for this current (0.5 ampere per lamp) will be about 110; consequently the percentage of drop $= 3.1837/110 = 2\frac{9}{10}\%$, nearly. A 2% drop on a pressure of 110 volts is 2.2 volts.

Center of Distribution. The meaning of this term may best be illustrated by an example. Let Fig. 12 represent a circuit carrying six lamps, the first lamp being 40 ft from the cut-out, or source of supply. The whole of the current must be transmitted through this 40 ft, but from that point it will gradually fall off, and the average current will only extend to the point *CD*, halfway between the extreme lamps. Or, in other words, the center of distribution is analogous to the center of gravity of the lamps on the circuit. The center of distribution determines the length of the line in the rules for finding the necessary size of wire.

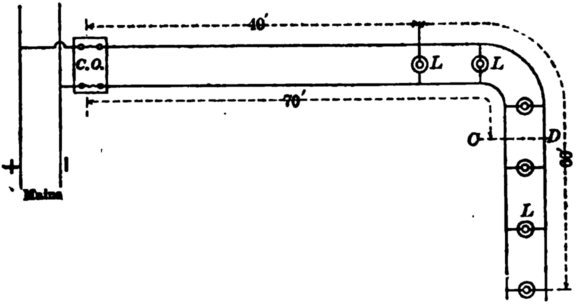

Fig. 12. The Point *D* is the Center of the Lamp-distribution

Distributing Centers are the points in a building where the cut-out cabinets are located and the branch circuits taken off.

Calculations for Size of Wire for Incandescent Lighting. The sizes of wires for interior lighting are or should be always determined on a basis of a fixed drop of potential, usually 2 volts on the distributing circuit and from 2 to 3 volts on the feeders or mains.* The size of wire may be determined either in terms of its sectional area in circular mils or in terms of its resistance in ohms per 1 000 ft. Knowing the sectional area in circular mils, one may find the corresponding gauge-number from Table III, page 1387, or if the resistance in ohms per 1 000 ft is known, the corresponding gauge-number may be found from Table IV, page 1388.

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* Many municipal lighting companies require that there shall be no more than 2% total drop in the wiring for interior lighting.

The formula for circular mils is as follows:

$$\text{Circular mils} = \frac{10.4 \times 2d \times N \times c}{v} \qquad (1)$$

The formula for resistance per 1 000 ft of wire is

$$\text{Resistance} = \frac{1\,000\,v}{N \times c \times 2d} \qquad (2)$$

In both these formulas d = distance in feet, one way, from cut-out to center of distribution (see page 1389) for distributing wires, or from entrance cut-out or source of current to distributing center for main lines or feeders. c = current in amperes PER LAMP. N = number of lamps supplied. v = drop in volts. Both formulas apply to any voltage and to any two-wire system. To use these formulas for the ordinary three-wire system, let N = maximum number of lamps on ONE SIDE of the neutral wire and DOUBLE THE DROP IN VOLTS. The neutral or middle wire should be of the same size as the outside wires.

Example. The distance from the cut-out to center of distribution of a circuit carrying sixteen 40-watt, 110-volt lamps is 50 ft. What size of wire should be used for a drop of 2 volts?

Solution. $d = 50$; $N = 16$; $c = 40/110 = 0.364$; and $v = 2$.
By Formula (1),

$$\text{Circular mils} = \frac{10.4 \times 100 \times 16 \times 0.364}{2} = 3\,030$$

Table III, page 1387, shows that the next larger size of wire is 4 107 c.m., equivalent to a No. 14 wire.
By Formula (2),

$$\text{Resistance per 1 000 ft} = \frac{1\,000 \times 2}{12 \times 0.364 \times 100} = 4.59$$

which we see from Table IV, page 1388, is about the resistance of a No. 16 wire; but as No. 14 is the smallest wire permitted that size must be used.

Example. The distance from the entrance cut-out, where the wires enter the building, to the main distributing center of a building is 100 ft. The total number of 16-candle-power, 110-volt carbon-lamps supplied is ninety. What is the size of the mains that should be used on the two-wire system with a drop of 2 volts? (A 16-candle-power 110-volt carbon lamp takes approximately 0.51 ampere.)

Solution. $d = 100$; $N = 90$; $c = 0.51$; $v = 2$
By Formula (1),

$$\text{Circular mils} = \frac{10.4 \times 200 \times 90 \times 0.51}{2} = 47\,800$$

In Table III it is seen that No. 3 wire must be used. If a drop of 3 volts is allowed the sectional area required will be 33 048 c.m., which requires a No. 5 wire. The weight per 1 000 ft of No. 3 weather-proof wire (Table IV) is 200 lb and of No. 5 wire 125 lb; consequently, the SAVING IN WEIGHT OF WIRE by using a drop of 3 volts instead of 2 is 75 lb, or 37½% of 200, and as wire is sold by the pound, the SAVING IN COST with a 3% drop ranges from 30 to 40% of a 2% drop.

Example. With the same conditions as given in the preceding example what is the size of the wire that will be required for the ordinary three-wire system with 2% drop?

Table III. Carrying Capacity of Wires and Cables

FOR INTERIOR CONDUCTORS, ALL VOLTAGES

From the National Electrical Code

No. of wire, B. & S. gauge	Circular mils	Capacity in amperes	
		Rubber-covered	Weather-proof
18	1 624	3	5
16	2 583	6	10
14	4 107	15	20
12	6 530	20	25
10	10 380	25	30
8	16 510	35	50
6	26 250	50	70
5	33 100	55	80
4	41 740	70	90
3	52 630	80	100
2	66 370	90	125
1	83 690	100	150
0	105 500	125	200
00	133 100	150	225
000	167 800	175	275
0000	211 600	225	325
Cables	200 000	200	300
"	300 000	275	400
"	400 000	325	500
"	500 000	400	600
"	600 000	450	680
"	700 000	500	760
"	800 000	550	840
"	900 000	600	920
"	1 000 000	650	1 000
"	1 100 000	690	1 080
"	1 200 000	730	1 150
"	1 300 000	770	1 220
"	1 400 000	810	1 290
"	1 500 000	850	1 360
"	1 600 000	890	1 430
"	1 700 000	930	1 490
"	1 800 000	970	1 550
"	1 900 000	1 010	1 610
"	2 000 000	1 050	1 670

A current of one ampere will supply two 16-candle-power carbon lamps.

Solution. In this case we use one-half of N, or 45, and $2v$ instead of v; then

$$\text{Circular mils} = \frac{10.4 \times 200 \times 45 \times 0.51}{4} = 11\ 920$$

or just ONE-FOURTH the section required for the two-wire system. The size of wire required is No. 8; a No. 9 would answer if it could be had. Comparing the weight of wire required with the two-wire system gives two No. 3 wires weighing 400 lb per 1 000 ft, and with the three-wire system three No. 8 wires weighing 207 lb; hence, the saving in cost is nearly 50% and if No. 9 wire were obtainable the saving would be 55%. With a drop of 3% (3.3 volts) the circular mils required for the three-wire system $= \dfrac{10.4 \times 200 \times 45 \times 0.51}{6.6} = 7\ 230$, requiring No. 10 wires. The current in amperes in the two-wire system $= N \times c = 45.9$, and in the three-wire system $\frac{1}{2} N \times c = 22.95$. Referring to Table III it is seen that the smallest size of weather-proof wire permitted for 45.9 amperes is No. 8; consequently, No. 8 wire could be used with the two-wire system and comply with the underwriters' rules, but the drop in potential would be $45.9 \times 0.2 \times 0.6285$ (amperes × resistance of line) $= 5.77$ volts; or over 5%.

For the three-wire system, the current being 23 amperes, the smallest weather-proof wire permitted by Table III is No. 12, which would give a drop of 7.4 volts, or 3.8 volts on each side, or about 3½% of the lamp-voltage. Except on very short lines a 2% drop will always demand larger wires than required by the underwriters, and this is also usually true of a 3% drop.

Table IV. Dimensions, Weights and Resistances of Copper Wire

Gauge-number, B. & S.	Diameter in mils	Area in cir. mils	Area in sq in	Weight in lb per 1 000 ft		
				Bare wire	Weather-proof* wire	Ohms per 1 000 ft at 20° C. or 68° F.
0000	460	211 600	0.166190	640.73	800	0.04893
000	410	167 800	0.131790	508.12	666	0.06170
00	365	133 100	0.104520	402.97	500	0.07780
0	325	105 500	0.082887	319.74	363	0.09811
1	289	83 690	0.065732	253.43	313	0.1237
2	258	66 370	0.052128	200.98	250	0.1560
3	229	52 630	0.041339	159.38	200	0.1967
4	204	41 740	0.032784	126.40	144	0.2480
5	182	33 100	0.025999	100.23	125	0.3128
6	162	26 250	0.020618	79.49	105	0.3944
7	144	20 820	0.016351	63.03	87	0.4973
8	128	16 510	0.012967	49.99	69	0.6271
9	114	13 090	0.010283	39.65	....	0.7908
10	102	10 380	0.008155	31.44	50	0.9972
11	91	8 234	0.006466	24.93	....	1.257
12	81	6 530	0.005129	19.77	31	1.586
13	72	5 178	0.004067	15.68	....	1.999
14	64	4 107	0.003225	12.44	22	2.521
15	57	3 257	0.002558	9.86	....	3 179
16	51	2 583	0.002028	7.82	14	4.009
17	45	2 048	0.001608	6.20	....	5.055
18	40	1 624	0.001275	4.92	11	6.374

* Approximate weight of weather-proof line-wire for outdoor work is 10% less than here given.

To find the smallest size of wire that will comply with the underwriters' rules it is only necessary to compute the total current in amperes, and from Table III select the wire having a capacity equal to or next above the required number of amperes. Table VI shows at a glance the maximum number of 16-candle-power 110-volt carbon lamps permitted by the National Code.

Formulas (1) and (2), page 1386, may also be used for MOTOR-WIRING, if the required current in amperes is known, by substituting the given number of amperes for $N \times c$.

Table V. Maximum Length of Line for Given Number of Lamps that can be Used with a Two-Per-Cent Drop. Two-Wire System

Based on ½ ampere per carbon-lamp. One 32-candle-power carbon-lamp = two 16-candle-power carbon-lamps. Four 40-watt tungsten-lamps = three 16-candle-power carbon-lamps

No. of wire, B. & S. gauge	Number of 16-candle-power, 110-volt carbon-lamps								
	4	6	8	10	11	12	16	20	24
	Maximum length of line, one side, in feet								
14	209	139	104	83	76	70	52	42	35
12	.....	221	166	133	120	110	83	66	55
10	.....	.....	264	211	192	176	132	105	88
8	.....	.....	.....	326	297	272	204	163	136
6	.....	.....	.....	.....	......	440	334	267	220
	Number of 16-candle-power, 110-volt lamps								
	30	36	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
	Maximum length of line, one side, in feet								
12	44	37	.....	.....	......	......	......	......	......
10	70	58	52	42	......	......	......	......	......
8	109	91	81	65	54	37	40	......	......
6	178	148	133	107	89	76	66	59	53
5	225	187	168	135	112	96	84	75	67
4	.....	236	212	170	141	121	106	94	85
3	.....	.....	268	214	180	153	134	119	107
2	.....	.....	.....	270	225	193	169	150	135
1	.....	.....	.....	.....	285	243	213	190	170

For three-wire mains with 220 volts between outer wires and same number of lamps on each side, length of wire may be increased four times.

Table VI. Maximum Carrying Capacity of Wires in Terms of 16-Candle-Power 110-Volt Lamps, However Short the Wires May Be

Based on ½ ampere per lamp
Four 40-watt tungsten-lamps = three 16-candle-power carbon-lamps

No. of wire, B. & S. gauge	Number of lamps		No. of wire, B. & S. gauge	Number of lamps	
	Rubber-covered	Weather-proof		Rubber-covered	Weather-proof
14	24	32	4	130	184
12	34	46	3	152	220
10	48	64	2	180	262
8	66	92	1	214	312
6	92	130	0	254	370
5	108	154	00	300	440

Example. What should be the size of the wires to be run to a motor that requires 30 amperes at 220 volts and is situated 200 ft from the distributing pole, the drop in volts not to exceed 2%?

Solution. Using Formula (1), and substituting 30 for $N \times c$, we have

$$\text{Circular mils} = \frac{10.4 \times 400 \times 30}{4.4} = 28\,400$$

which requires a No. 5 wire. Either the watts or the current in amperes is stamped on every motor. If watts are given, the current in amperes may be found by dividing the watts by the voltage. If kilowatts are given, multiply by 1 000 and then divide by the voltage.

Wiring-Tables. Several forms of wiring-tables which are very useful to electricians are published in various books on electricity. For ordinary interior wiring for 110-volt, 16-candle-power carbon-lamps, Table V, computed by Mr. Kidder, will show at a glance the number of wire, B. & S. gauge, required to supply the given number of lamps by first ascertaining the length of line (one way) through which the average current flows, as explained under Center of Distribution. (See page 1385.)

Simple Example of Wiring. To show the method of wiring an ordinary building for incandescent lighting we will take a two-story building having a floor-plan as shown in Fig. 13. Most of the light-outlets are on the ceiling and are indicated by a small circle. The outlet marked *E* is a special outlet for heating, etc., and must be described in the specifications. Let us assume it is to take 320 watts. This is equivalent to adding eight 40-watt lamps to this circuit. *F* and *G* are wall-outlets. The meanings of the symbols used are explained on pages 1398–9. The numbers

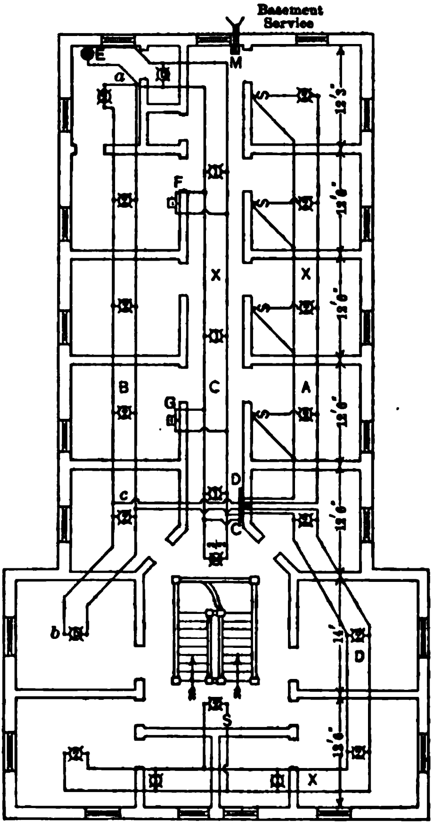

Fig. 13. Wiring-diagram for Second Story. For Meaning of Symbols, see pages 1398–9.

1 and 2 inside the circles denote the number of 16-candle-power carbon-lamps to the outlet. The same number of 25-watt or 40-watt tungsten-lamps may always be used without overloading the circuits. See pages 1398 and 1399 for Standard-Wiring Symbols. The current to be obtained from the wires of the public lighting company, which carry a current at 220 volts between the outside wires, and at 110 volts between either outside wire and the neutral wire. The feed-wires for the building should enter through the alley-wall at about the level of the second floor and should drop in the partition just inside the wall for the main fuse-block and switch, which should be in a small cabinet and the meter (*M*). The distribution-cabinet should be located near the center of the building, say at *DC*, and there should be a cabinet in each story. From this cabinet we will run four circuits for each story, which are indicated by the letters *A*, *B*, *C* and *D*. Circuit *A* shows the wires run for a switch on the wall near the door of each of four rooms to control the lights in those rooms. All of the lights on circuit *C* should be controlled by keys in the lamp-sockets. The lights on circuits *B* and *D* are not switched, except the outlet at head of stairs, which is controlled by a snap or push-button switch at *S*. For a first-class job all of the four circuits would be controlled by knife-switches in the cabinet, as shown in Fig. 14; but this is not absolutely necessary.

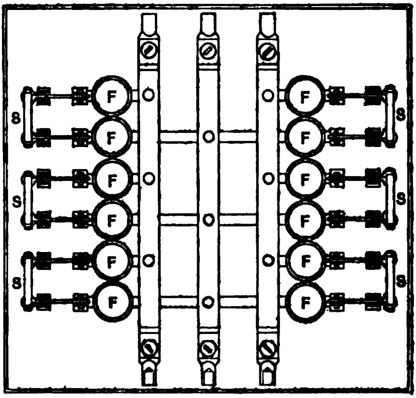

Fig. 14. Cabinet-wiring for Knife-switch Control

Size of Wires. The center of distribution of circuits *A*, *C*, and *D* would be at about the points marked *X* (Fig. 13). For circuit *B* take one-half the distance *ab* and add to it the distance from *c* to the cabinet. In figuring the length of line, 6 ft should be added for the drop from ceiling to the cabinet. Let us assume that tungsten-lamps are to be used. In computing the current taken by each lamp it is always assumed that no smaller than a 40-watt tungsten is used. The drop-lights, marked -○- would probably be 25-watt lamps, but must be counted as 40-watt, according to the underwriters' rules. The number of 40-watt lamps and length of wire for each circuit are as follows:

Circuit *A*, 8 lights, 41 ft one way to center of distribution.
Circuit *B*, 11 lights, 52 ft one way to center of distribution.
Circuit *C*, 16 lights, 37 ft one way to center of distribution.
Circuit *D*, 12 lights, 59 ft one way to center of distribution.
Total number of lamps, 47.

From Table V we see that the maximum length of line one way for No. 14 wire carrying twelve carbon or sixteen 40-watt lamps is 70 ft. Consequently, all of the lamp-circuits can be No. 14 wire, which is the smallest size permitted.

Feed-Wires. These should be run on the three-wire system. Allowing for 2 × 47 or 94 lamps in first and second stories and eight in basement, the feed-wires must be capable of supplying 102 lamps. Each 40-watt lamp would take $40/110 = 0.364$ ampere. The distance from outside the building to distribution-cabinet is about 72 ft, allowing for three drops. Using Formula (1), and assuming that there will be fifty-one lamps on each side of the three-wire system, and doubling the drop in volts, gives

$$\text{Circular mils} = \frac{10.4 \times 144 \times 0.364 \times 51}{4} = 6\,960 \text{ c.m.}$$

which calls for No. 11 wire; but as this size is not carried in stock we must use No. 10. From the second story to the third No. 12 wires could be used. For almost all buildings lighted from a central station the lamp-circuits will not usually require a wire larger than No. 14, so that about the only wires which the architect needs to look after are the wires which run to the distribution-cabinets.

Switches. A switch is a device for opening or closing a circuit at will either at the fixture or at any other point. In the better class of buildings the majority, if not all, of the ceiling-lights are controlled by switches placed at a convenient place on a side wall. Lights may be controlled at any distance from the fixture by running a switch-loop. For controlling either a single lamp or fixture, or any number of lamps, a switch-loop is run as shown on circuits *A* and *C*, as in Fig. 13. As shown also in Fig. 4, one side of the loop must be connected with one of the distributing wires and the other side to the lamp. When a number of lamps are to be controlled by one switch, as in the case of hall-lights, and the lamps in large rooms, such as churches, theaters, concert-halls, etc., a separate circuit is usually run for those lamps, and a switch anywhere in one of the distributing lines will turn on or off all of the lights on that line. As the underwriters do not permit more than twelve 16-candle-power carbon or sixteen 40-watt tungsten-lamps on one circuit, not more than these numbers of lamps can be controlled by one switch, except where the switch is placed on the mains. It is also practicable to control one lamp from two or three places. Thus by a duplex or three-point switch and proper wiring, a lamp may be lighted or turned off from either the first or second story at will. By means of two three-point switches and one four-point switch a first-story hall-lamp may be

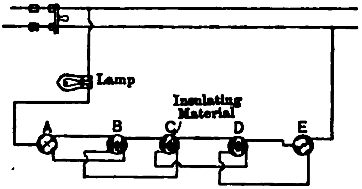

Fig. 15. The Lamp May Be Turned Off or On From Any of the Five Points, *A*, *B*, *C*, *D*, or *E*

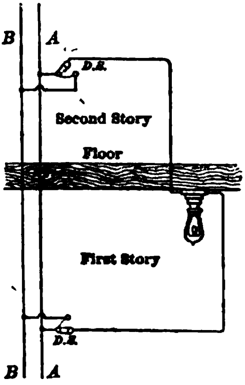

Fig. 16. The Lamps May Be Turned Off or On From Either the First or Second Story

controlled at will from either the first, second or third stories. Fig. 15 shows the method of control from any number of points, since any number of 4-point snap-switches, such as *B*, *C* and *D*, can be inserted between the 3-point switches *A* and *E* if more points of control are needed. Fig. 16 shows one method of wiring for controlling a hall-light from first and second stories by means of two 3-point switches. With the switches in the position shown the circuit is broken, as there is no connection between the lamps and line *B*. By turning either switch a connection is made with line *B* and the current will flow.

Kinds of Switches. For controlling lamps from one point three kinds of switches are used, namely, SNAP-SWITCHES, FLUSH or PUSH-BUTTON SWITCHES and KNIFE-SWITCHES. When less than eight lamps are controlled by the switch, a flush or push-button switch is commonly used where a neat appearance is desirable, and in places where this is of no importance, a snap-switch is used, as it is the cheaper. Where a circuit of twelve or more lamps is controlled by a switch, a double-pole (d.p.) knife-switch (Fig. 17) is commonly used, being generally placed in a cabinet. Knife-switches should always be used on main wires. Snap and push-button switches are made both single and double pole. A SINGLE-POLE switch opens only one side of the circuit and a DOUBLE-POLE switch both sides. A double-pole knife-switch necessarily opens both sides. A switch used on a three-wire system must have three poles. Double-pole snap and push-button switches are seldom used for less than twelve lamps. DUPLEX SWITCHES, sometimes called THREE-POINT SWITCHES, are usually of the snap or of the push-button type.

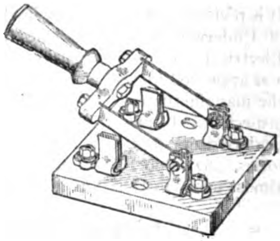

Fig. 17. Common Knife-switch

Conduit-Systems. As weather-proof or rubber-covered wire cannot be run in brick walls or floors of brick, terra-cotta, or concrete without some protection other than the covering of the wires, it is necessary in such places to run the wires in tubes or conduits, and in fire-proof buildings all of the lighting-wires are generally run in a system of conduits.

Kinds of Conduits. There are two kinds of interior conduits now in common use:

(1) **Lined Mild-Steel Pipe.** The lining consists of a thin coat of enamel which must be impervious to water, sulphuric acid, acetic acid, hydrochloric acid and carbonate-of-soda solutions. For regular conduit systems only mild-steel piping of the same thickness as ordinary gas-piping is approved by the underwriters. The conduit must be continuous from outlet to outlet or junction-boxes or cabinets and must properly enter and be secured to all fittings, and the entire system must be mechanically secured in position. Mild-steel pipe may be galvanized, coated, or enameled on the outside, but it must be enameled on the inside as stated above. Rigid conduit, WHETHER LINED OR UNLINED, are installed in the same manner as a good job of gas-fitting, except that for conduits the pipe may be bent to a curve and no elbow can be used having less than 3½-in radius for the inner edge. Wherever branches are taken off, junction-boxes must be provided and every outlet must have an approved outlet-box or plate. The wire drawn into conduits must be of at least No. 14 size, rubber-covered and with double braid. All conduit-systems must be GROUNDED by connecting the steel pipe by a conductor to the gas or water system.

(2) **Flexible Armored Conduit.** This is made of metal ribbon wound spirally, is generally used in wiring old houses because it is easier to install. CIRCULAR LOOM is flexible woven tubing treated with insulating material that makes it hold its shape. This may be used in dry places and for outlets through plastering if it extends back to the nearest porcelain knob holding the wire which the conduit covers.

National Electrical Code. The National Board of Fire Underwriters, in conjunction with committees from the American Institute of Architects, and from the national associations of electrical, mechanical and railway engineers, have prepared a code of rules and requirements for the installation of electrical lighting which is the generally recognized standard and with which all interior wiring must comply if it is desired to obtain insurance on the building. This code has also been made a part of the ordinances of most of the larger cities. It is revised every two years, in the odd-numbered years. The National Board of Underwriters also publishes, semi-annually, a SUPPLEMENT to the National Electrical Code which contains a list of all articles that have been examined and approved for use in connection with the code, together with the names of the manufacturers. Articles not included in this list will not be passed by the inspectors. Copies of the code and supplement can be obtained from the nearest Underwriters' Inspection Bureau, or by writing to the Underwriters' Laboratories, 382 Ohio Street, Chicago, Ill. The following requirements apply to almost every installation, and every architect should be conversant with them.

Extracts from the National Electrical Code*

(1) All wire for concealed work must be of the best approved rubber-covered brands, as shown in List of Fittings. No wire smaller than No. 14 B. & S. gauge to be used. All wire run in conduits must have double-braid covering.

(2) Where wires are concealed and run parallel to joists they must be supported on porcelain knobs which hold the wires at least 1 in from woodwork or surface wired over. Knobs must be SECURELY FASTENED and MUST BE PLACED EVERY 4½ FT. Where wires are run through joists they must be bushed with porcelain tubes the entire width of joists. All wires must be drawn tight, so as to have all slack removed.

(3) In concealed work all wires MUST BE SEPARATED FROM EACH OTHER BY AT LEAST 5 IN. Where wires run down partitions, especially partitions formed by 2 by 4-in studs, the wires must be so supported as to run in the middle of partition. If more than two wires are run down partition between studs, they must be separated by at least 5 in.

(4) Where wires pass through floors they must be protected from the floor up to a point 5 ft above the floor with conduit or with boxing. There must always be a space of 1 in between the wires and the boxing.

(5) All joints must be securely soldered and taped. A splice to be approved must be both mechanically and electrically secure without solder, but must be soldered unless made with some form of APPROVED splicing-device. Joints to be properly taped require, where rubber-covered wire is used, first to be taped with rubber tape and then with friction-tape. The insulation of a joint must equal that on the conductors.

(6) Where wires enter the building they must be provided with drip-loops.

(7) There must be a MAIN CUT-OUT AND SWITCH installed in an easily accessible place, as near as possible to the point where the wires enter the building.

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* The numbers here given do not correspond with those in the code, and several of the rules are much abridged. They are intended to give the substance, rather than the exact language.

This will require that cut-out and switch be placed where there is no need of a 12-ft ladder to reach them.

(8) Every lighting-circuit of 660 watts must be protected by a cut-out. This will limit the number to twelve 16-candle-power or sixteen 40-watt lights on a two-wire, 110-volt circuit, and to thirty-two 40-watt or twenty 16-candle-power lights on a three-wire, 220-volt circuit. By special permission, where No. 14 wire is carried directly to keyless sockets, and where the location of the sockets is such as to render unlikely the attachment of flexible cords thereto, the circuits may be so arranged that not more than 1 320 watts (or 32 sockets) may be dependent upon the final cut-out. Sockets are to be considered as requiring not less than 40 watts each.

(9) All cut-outs must be placed in an ASBESTOS-LINED CABINET. The asbestos must be at least ⅛ in in thickness and securely held in place by shellac and tacks. Lumber of which cabinet is made must be at least ¾ in in thickness. Cabinet must be furnished with snug-fitting door; door to be hung by strong hinges and to be furnished with a suitable catch.

(10) Cut-outs to be approved must be of the plug or of the cartridge-type.

(11) Enclosed arc-lamps and incandescent lamps must not be placed on same circuit. Arcs must be on separate circuits by themselves. Each arc-light must be protected by an approved cut-out. The cut-outs are to be placed in an asbestos-lined cabinet.

(12) The practice of using fused rosettes will not be approved, except in mills.

(13) Where wires run down the side wall they must be protected from mechanical injury.

(14) All outlets must be made to conform to Rule 24, National Electrical Code.

(15) Fans in series will not be approved.

(16) Runs of lamp-cord will not be approved. Lamp-cord is designed to be used for drops only. Ordinary insulated wire must be run to place desired.

(17) Electric heaters must be installed in accordance with Rule 25 a–f, National Electrical Code.

General Suggestions for Electric Work *

General Principles and Recommendations. In all electric-work conductors, however well insulated, should always be treated as bare, to the end that under no conditions, existing or likely to exist, can a grounding or short circuit occur, and so that all leakage from conductor to conductor, or between conductor and ground, may be reduced to the minimum. In all wiring special attention must be paid to the mechanical execution of the work. Careful and neat running, connecting, soldering, taping of conductors, and securing and attaching of fittings, are specially conducive to security and efficiency, and will be strongly insisted on. In laying out an installation, except for constant-current systems, the work should, if possible, be started from a center of distribution, and the switches and cut-outs, controlling and connected with the several branches, be grouped together in a safe and easily accessible place, where they can be readily got at for attention or repairs. The load should be divided as

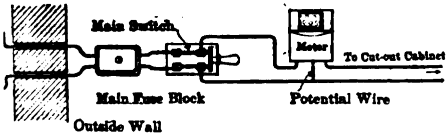

Fig. 18. Main Switch, Fuse-block and Meter Located Near the Point of Entrance of the Service-wires

evenly as possible among the branches, and all complicated and unnecessary wiring avoided. The use of wireways for rendering concealed wiring permanently accessible is most heartily indorsed and recommended; and this method of accessible concealed construction is advised for general use. Architects are urged, when drawing plans and specifications, to make provision for the channeling and pocketing of buildings for electric-light or power-wires, and in specifications for electric gas-lighting to require a two-wire circuit, whether the building is to be wired for electric lighting or not, so that no part of the gas-fixtures or gas-piping be allowed to be used for the gas-lighting circuit. Fig. 18 shows a common arrangement of main cut-out, switch and meter, to comply with Rule 7, page 1394. The main cut-out and switch should be as near as possible to the outside wall, but the meter may be at some distance from the switch if desirable for any reason.

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* Preface to the National Electrical Code

Specifications for Interior Wiring*

Specifications for Interior Wiring should provide:

(1) That the wiring shall be installed in accordance with the latest rules and requirements of the National Board of Fire Underwriters, the local ordinances, and the rules of the local electric light company, where current is to be taken from the public mains.

(2) No electrical device or material of any kind to be used that is not approved by the Underwriters' National Electric Association, and all articles must have the name or trade-mark of the manufacturer and the rating in volts and amperes or other proper units marked where they may readily be observed after the device is installed.

Requirements (1) and (2) are sufficient to insure a SAFE installation.

(3) Contractor must obtain a satisfactory certificate of inspection from the city inspector or from the inspector of the local board of fire-underwriters.

(4) If the wires are to run in a conduit system it should be so specified. When a conduit system is used, THE WIRES SHOULD NOT BE DRAWN IN until all mechanical work as far as possible is completed. It is best to wait until after the plastering is dry. All conduit systems must be GROUNDED.

(5) Size of Wires. The best method is to specify the size of all wires, no wire to be less than No. 14 B. & S. gauge; but if the architect does not care to do this, the following clause is sufficient, provided he can have confidence that the contractor will comply with it: "All wires must be of such size that the drop in potential at farthest light-outlet shall not exceed 2% under maximum load."

(6) Cut-out cabinets and where they are to be placed; also location of main-line cut-out and fuse. For buildings containing not more than forty lights, one distributing point is generally sufficient, although in large houses it is often convenient to have a cut-out cabinet in each story.

(7) Number and kind of switches. All outlets should be marked on the plans, and the number of lights indicated by figures 1, 2, 3, 4, etc., as in Fig. 13. See pages 1398 and 1399 for standard symbols. The location of all switches for controlling lights should also be indicated on the plans.

Approximate Cost of Wiring for Incandescent Lighting. Approximate estimates of the cost of wiring buildings for electric lighting are usually based on the number of outlets (not lamps). The actual cost will depend upon the number of pounds of wire required, the kind and number of switches, character of cut-out cabinets, etc., and the time required to do the work, so that a close estimate cannot be made without plans and specifications. Again, wages and prices of material vary to a considerable extent in different parts of the country, so that an estimate that would be about right for one locality would not suffice for another. The following figures, however, will enable anyone to form an approximate idea of what any proposed wiring-job will cost.

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* Wiring specifications for buildings having their own generating plant should be prepared by an expert.

Count cost of labor as not more than one-third the cost of the installation.

For knob-and-tube work in new houses of less than seventeen outlets or twenty-five lamps, with no switches except main switch and a rough cut-out box lined with asbestos, allow $1.50 per outlet.

For same class of work, from 25 to 100 lamps, allow $1.75 to $2.00 per outlet.

The extra labor involved in wiring old buildings will add from 30 to 50% to the above figures.

For each switch-loop with a single-pole snap-switch, add from $1.50 to $1.75.

For each switch-loop with single-pole push-button switch, add from $2.25 to $2.50.

For each lamp controlled by duplex or three-point switches, add from $5 to $6.

For each hardwood cut-out cabinet with door and lock, add from $7 up according to number of circuits and finish.

Iron cut-out cabinets cost from $8.50 up.

Ordinary exposed wiring, as in factories, can usually be run for from $1.00 to $1.75 per drop, including rosettes, cord and sockets, the cost depending very largely upon how closely the drops are spaced.

Small installations with iron-armored conduit will probably cost from $5 to $6 per outlet. Large installations will cost somewhat less.

A private lighting-plant of 200 lamps, wired on the concealed knob-and-tube system, will cost from $1 250 to $1 500, and a similar plant with 600 lamps will cost from $2 500 to $3 000. These prices include engine, dynamo-switchboard, etc., complete, and wiring, but no switches for controlling lamps.

The iron-armored conduit-system will add about $2.75 per outlet.

None of the above estimates include the cost of fixtures except in the case of exposed wiring.

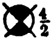
Drop-cord and sockets cost about 90 cts per lamp. Single-lamp fixtures may be purchased from $1.25 upwards; double-lamp fixtures from $2 upwards. Combination-fixtures cost about 25% more than straight electric fixtures.

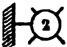
The price of rubber-covered wire varies from $8 to $60 per 1 000 ft according to size, and of weather-proof wire from 16 cts to 25 cts per pound.

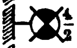
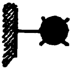
Standard Wiring-Symbols Adopted by the National Contractors' Association and the American Institute of Architects

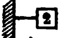
Copyrighted by the National Contractors' Association

Ceiling-outlet; electric only. Numeral in center indicates number of standard 16-c.p. incandescent lamps.[*]


Ceiling-outlet; combination. $\frac{4}{2}$ indicates 4-16c.p. standard incandescent lamps and 2 gas-burners. If gas only.


Bracket-outlet; electric only. Numeral in center indicates number of standard 16-c.p. incandescent lamps.


Bracket-outlet; combination. $\frac{4}{2}$ indicates 4-16 c.p. standard incandescent lamps and 2 gas-burners. If gas only.



Wall or baseboard receptacle-outlet. Numeral in center indicates number of standard 16-c.p. incandescent lamps.

Floor-outlet. Numeral in center indicates number of Standard 16-c.p. incandescent lamps.

Outlet for outdoor standard or pedestal, electric only. Numeral indicates number of standard 16-c.p. incandescent lamps.

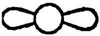
Outlet for outdoor standard or pedestal; combination. $\frac{6}{6}$ indicates 6-16 c.p. standard incandescent lamps; 6 gas-burners.

Drop-cord outlet.

One-lamp outlet, for lamp-receptacle.

Arc-lamp outlet.

Special outlet for lighting, heating and power-current, as described in specifications.


Ceiling-fan outlet.

S^1 S. P. switch-outlet.

S^2 D.P. switch-outlets.

S^3 3-way switch-outlet.

S^4 4-way switch-outlet.

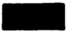
S^D Automatic door switch-outlet.

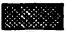
S^E Electrolier switch-outlet.

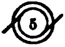
Show as many symbols as there are switches. Or in case of a very large group of switches, indicate number of switches by a Roman numeral, thus; S' XII, meaning 12 single-pole switches.

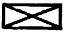
Describe type of switch in specifications, that is, flush or surface, push-button or snap.

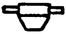
Meter-outlet.


Distribution-panel.


Junction or pull-box.


Motor-outlet. Numeral in center indicates horse-power.


Motor-control outlet.


Transformer.

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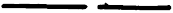
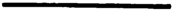
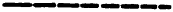
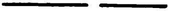
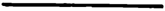
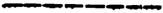
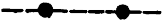
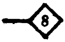
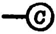
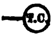
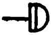
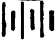
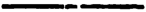
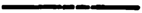
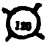
[*] If tungsten-lamps are used instead of carbon-lamps, the figure in the circle may stand for the number of 25-watt tungsten-lamps, a 25-watt tungsten-lamp being the nearest in candle-power to a 16-candle-power carbon-lamp though consuming less than one-half the power. Since tungsten-lamps average about 1.1 watts to the candle-power, many architects place in the circle the number of watts to be used. Dividing this number

Standard Wiring-Symbols Adopted by the National Contractors' Association and the American Institute of Architects (Continued)

	Main or feeder-run concealed under floor.
	Main or feeder-run concealed under floor above.
	Main or feeder-run exposed.
	Branch circuit-run concealed under floor.
	Branch circuit-run concealed under floor above.
	Branch circuit-run exposed.
	Pole-line.
	Riser.
	Telephone-outlet; private service.
	Telephone-outlet; public service.
	Bell-outlet.
	Buzzer-outlet.
	Push-button outlet. Numeral indicates number of pushes.
	Annunciator. Numeral indicates number of points.
	Speaking-tube.
	Watchman-clock outlet.
	Watchman-station outlet.
	Master time-clock outlet.
	Secondary time-clock outlet.
	Door-opener.
	Special outlet for signal-systems, as described in specifications.
	Battery-outlet.
	Circuit for clock, telephone, bell or other service, run under floor, concealed. Kind of service wanted ascertained by symbol to which line connects.
	Circuit for clock, telephone, bell or other service, run under floor above, concealed. Kind of service wanted ascertained by symbol to which line connects.

Heights of center of wall-outlets (unless otherwise specified):

Living-rooms	5 ft 6 in
Chambers	5 ft 0 in
Offices	6 ft 0 in
Corridors	6 ft 3 in
Heights of switches (unless otherwise specified)	4 ft 0 in

by 1.1 gives the candle-power per outlet. Thus  means enough tungsten-lamps can be placed in this outlet to total 120 watts, three 40-watt lamps, or two 60-watt lamps, etc. The candle-power in any case would be 120/1.1 = 110 candle-power.

ARCHITECTURAL ACOUSTICS

BY

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Architectural Acoustics a Rational Engineering Problem. Because familiarity with the phenomena of sound has so far outstripped the adequate study of the problems involved, many of them have been popularly shrouded in a wholly unnecessary mystery. Of none, perhaps, is this more true than of ARCHITECTURAL ACOUSTICS. The conditions surrounding the transmission of speech in an enclosed auditorium are complicated, it is true, but are only such as will yield an exact solution in the light of adequate data. It is not unreasonable, therefore, to include problems of architectural acoustics among the RATIONAL ENGINEERING PROBLEMS.

Character and Application of the Problem. The problem of architectural acoustics is necessarily complex, and each room presents many conditions which contribute to the result in a greater or less degree, according to circumstances. To take justly into account these varied conditions, the solution of the problem should be QUANTITATIVE, not merely QUALITATIVE; and to reach its highest usefulness and the dignity of an engineering science it should be such that its application can precede, not merely follow, the construction of the building.

Conditions and Factors of the Problem. In order that hearing may be good in any auditorium it is necessary that the sound should be sufficiently loud, that the simultaneous components of a complex sound should maintain their proper relative intensities, and that the successive sounds in rapidly moving articulation, either of speech or of music, should be clear and distinct, free from each other and from extraneous noises. These three are the necessary, as they are the entirely sufficient, conditions for good hearing. Scientifically the problem involves three factors:

(1) Reverberation.
(2) Interference.
(3) Resonance.

As an engineering problem it involves the shape of the auditorium, its dimensions, and the materials of which it is composed.

Rate of Absorption of Sound. Sound, being energy, once produced in a confined space, will continue until it is either transmitted by the boundary walls or is transformed into some other kind of energy, generally heat. This process of decay is called ABSORPTION. Thus, in the lecture-room of Harvard University, in which, and in behalf of which, this investigation was begun, the RATE

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* Adapted and reproduced by permission from a paper read by Dr. W. C. Sabine before the Franklin Institute, Philadelphia, October 30, 1914 and published in the January 1915 issue of the Journal of the Franklin Institute. For information regarding further data, other papers and treatises on the subject by the author of this article, the reader is referred to Professor Sabine.

OF ABSORPTION was so small that a word spoken in an ordinary tone of voice was audible for five and a half seconds afterwards. During this time even a very deliberate speaker would have uttered the twelve or fifteen succeeding syllables. Thus the successive enunciations blended into a loud sound, through which and above which it was necessary to hear and distinguish the orderly progression of the speech. Across the room this could not be done; even near the speaker it could be done only with an effort wearisome in the extreme if long maintained.

Multiple Reflection, Reverberation and Echoes. With an audience filling the room the conditions were not so bad, but still not tolerable. This may be regarded, if one so chooses, as a process of MULTIPLE REFLECTION from walls, from ceiling, and from floor, first from one and then another, losing a little at each reflection until ultimately inaudible. This phenomenon will be called REVERBERATION, including, as a special case, the ECHO. It must be observed, however, that, in general, reverberation results in a mass of sound filling the whole room and incapable of analysis into its distinct reflections. It is thus more difficult to recognize and impossible to locate. The term ECHO will be reserved for that particular case in which a short, sharp sound is distinctly repeated by reflection, either once from a single surface, or several times from two or more surfaces.

Rate of Decay of Sound. In the general case of reverberation we are concerned only with the RATE OF DECAY of the sound. In the special case of the echo we are concerned not merely with its intensity, but with the interval of time elapsing between the initial sound and the moment it reaches the observer. In the room mentioned as the occasion of this investigation no discrete echo was distinctly perceptible, and the case will serve excellently as an illustration of the more general type of reverberation.

Duration of Audibility of Residual Sound. After preliminary gropings, first in the literature and then with several optical devices for measuring the intensity of sound, all established methods were abandoned. Instead, the RATE OF DECAY was measured by measuring what was inversely proportional to it, the duration of audibility of the reverberation, or, as it will be called here, the DURATION OF AUDIBILITY OF THE RESIDUAL SOUND. These experiments may be explained to advantage here, for they will give more clearly than would abstract discussion an idea of the nature of reverberation.

Shape of Room and Nature of Furnishings. Broadly considered there are two, and only two, variables in a room, SHAPE (including size), and MATERIALS (including furnishings). In designing an auditorium an architect can give consideration to both; in repair-work for bad acoustic conditions it is generally impracticable to change the shape, and only variations in materials and furnishings are allowable. This was, therefore, the line of work in this case.

The Relative Absorbing Power of Different Substances. It was evident that, other things being equal, the rate at which the reverberation would disappear was proportional to the rate at which the sound was absorbed. The first work, therefore, was to determine the RELATIVE ABSORBING POWER of various substances. With an organ-pipe as a constant source of sound, and a suitable chronograph for recording, the duration of audibility of a sound after the source had ceased in this room when empty was found to be 5.62 seconds. All the cushions from the seats in Sanders Theater, Boston, Mass., were then brought over and stored in the lobby. On bringing into the lecture-room a number of cushions, having a total length of 8.2 meters, the duration of audibility fell to 5.33 seconds. On bringing in cushions of a total length of 17 meters the sound in the room after the organ-pipe ceased was audible for but 4.94 seconds. Evidently the cushions were strong absorbents and rapidly improving the room, at least to the extent of diminishing the reverberation. The result was interesting and the process was continued. Little by little more cushions were brought into the room, and each time the duration of audibility was measured. When all the seats, 436 in number, were covered, the sound was audible for 2.03 seconds. Then the aisles were covered, and then the platform. Still there were more cushions, almost half as many more. These were brought into the room, a few at a time, as before, and draped on a scaffolding that had been erected around the room, the duration of the sound being recorded each time. Finally, when all the cushions from a theater seating nearly 1 500 persons were placed in the room, covering the seats, the aisles, the platform, and the rear wall to the ceiling, the duration of audibility of the residual sound was 1.14 seconds. This experiment, requiring, of course, several nights' work, having been completed, all the cushions were removed and the room was in readiness for the test of other absorbents. It was evident that a STANDARD OF COMPARISON had been established. Curtains of chenille, 1.1 meters wide and 17 meters in total length, were draped in the room. The duration of audibility was then 4.51 seconds. Turning to the data that had just been collected, it appeared that this amount of chenille was equivalent to 30 meters of cushions from Sanders Theater. Oriental rugs (Herez, Demirjik, and Hindoostanee) were tested in a similar manner, as were also cretonne cloth, canvas, and hair-felt. Similar experiments, but in a smaller room, determined the absorbing power of a man and of a woman, always by determining the number of running meters of Sanders Theater cushions that would produce the same effect. This process of comparing two absorbents by actually substituting one for the other is laborious, and it is given here only to show the first steps in the development of a method. Without going into details, it is sufficient here to say that this method was so perfected as to give not merely RELATIVE, but ABSOLUTE, COEFFICIENTS OF ABSORPTION.

Coefficients of Absorption. In this manner a number of COEFFICIENTS OF ABSORPTION were determined for objects and materials which could be brought into and removed from the room, for sounds having a pitch an octave above middle C. In the following table the numerical values are the ABSOLUTE COEFFICIENTS OF ABSORPTION:

Oil-paintings, inclusive of frames	0.28
Carpet-rugs	0.20
Oriental rugs, extra heavy	0.29
Cheese-cloth	0.019
Cretonne cloth	0.15
Shelia curtains	0.23
Hair-felt, 2.5 cm. thick, 8 cm. from wall	0.78
Cork, 2.5 cm. thick, loose on floor	0.16
Linoleum, loose on floor	0.12

When the objects are not extended surfaces, such as carpets or rugs, but essentially spacial units, it is not easy to express the absorption as an absolute coefficient. In the following table the absorption of each object is expressed in terms of a SQUARE METER OF COMPLETE ABSORPTION:

Audience, per person	0.44
Isolated woman	0.54
Isolated man	0.48
Plain, ash settees	0.039
Plain, ash settees, per single seat	0.0077
Plain, ash chairs, bent wood	0.0082
Upholstered settees, hair and leather	1.10
Upholstered settees, per single seat	0.28
Upholstered chairs, similar in style	0.30
Hair-cushions, per seat	0.21
Elastic-felt cushions, per seat	0.20

Coefficient of Absorption of Floors, Ceilings and Wall-Surfaces. Of even greater importance was the determination of the COEFFICIENT OF ABSORPTION of floors, ceilings, and wall-surfaces. The accomplishment of this called for a very considerable extension of the method adopted. If the reverberation in a room as changed by the addition of absorbing material are plotted, the resulting curve will be found to be a portion of a hyperbola with displaced axes. An example of such a curve, as obtained in the lecture-room of the Fogg Art Museum, Cambridge, Mass., is plotted in the diagram in Fig. 1. If now the origin of this curve is displaced so that the axes of coordinates are the asymptotes of the rectangular hyperbola (Fig. 2), the displacement of the origin measures the initial absorbing power of the room, its floors, walls and ceilings. Such experiments were carried out in a large number of rooms in which the different component materials entered in very different degrees, and an elimination between these different experiments gave the following COEFFICIENT OF ABSORPTION for different materials:

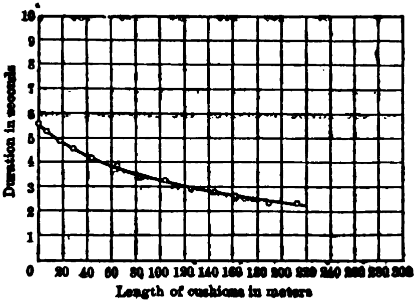

Fig. 1. Curve Showing the Relation of Duration of Residual Sound to Added Absorbing Material

Open window	1.000
Wooden sheathing, hard pine	0.061
Plaster on wooden lath	0.034
Plaster on wire lath	0.033
Glass, single thickness	0.027
Plaster on tile	0.025
Brick set in Portland cement	0.025

Calculating the Reverberation for Any Room. If the experiments in these rooms are plotted in a single diagram, the result is a family of HYPERBOLAS (Fig. 3) showing a very interesting relationship to the volumes of the rooms. Indeed, if from these hyperbolas the parameter, which equals the product of the coordinates, is determined, it will be found to be linearly proportional to the volume of the room. These results are plotted in Fig. 4, showing how strict the proportionality is even over a very great range in volume. We have thus at hand a ready method of calculating the REVERBERATION for any room, its volume and the materials of which it is composed being known. The first five years of the investigation were devoted to violin C, the C an octave above middle C, having a VIBRATION-FREQUENCY of 512 vibrations per second. This pitch was chosen because, in the art of telephony, it was regarded at that time as the characteristic pitch determining the conditions of articulate speech. The planning of Symphony Hall, Boston, Mass., forced an extension of this investigation to notes over the whole range of the musical scale, three octaves below and three octaves above violin-C.

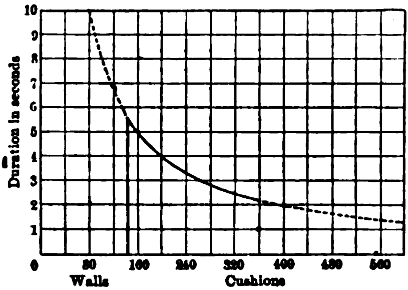

Fig. 2. Curve 5 Plotted as Part of its Corresponding Rectangular Hyperbola. The Solid Part was Determined Experimentally. The Displacement of This to the Right Measures the Absorbing Power of the Walls of the Room

Absorption-Coefficient of an Audience. In the very nature of the problem, the most important datum is the ABSORPTION-COEFFICIENT of an audience, and the determination of this was the first task undertaken. By means of a lecture on one of the recent developments of physics, wireless telegraphy, an audience was thus drawn together and at the end of the lecture requested to remain for the experiment. In this attempt the effort was made to determine the coefficients for the five octaves from $C_2 128$ to $C_6 2048$, including notes E and G in each octave. For several reasons the experiment was not a success. A threatening thunderstorm made the audience a small one, and the sultriness of the atmosphere made open windows necessary; while the attempt to cover so many notes, thirteen in all, prolonged the experiment beyond the endurance of the audience. While this experiment failed, another, the following summer, was more successful. In the year that had elapsed the necessity of carrying the investigation further than the limits intended became evident, and now the experiment was carried from $C_1 64$ to

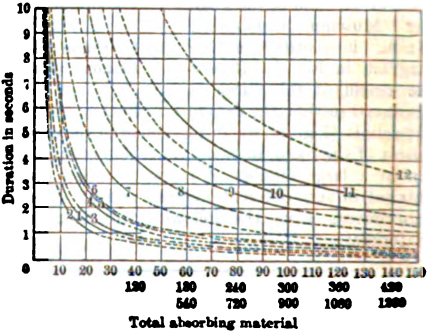

Fig. 3. Curves Entered as Parts of their Corresponding Rectangular Hyperbolas. Three Scales are Employed for the Volumes, by Groups, 1–7, 8–11, and 12

$C_7 4096$, but included only the C notes, seven notes in all. Moreover, bearing in mind the experiences of the previous summer, it was recognized that even seven notes would come dangerously near overtaxing the patience of the audience. Inasmuch as the COEFFICIENT OF ABSORPTION for $C_4 512$ had already been determined six years before, in the investigations mentioned, the coefficient for this note was not redetermined. The experiment was therefore carried out for the lower three and the upper three notes of the seven. The audience, on the night of this experiment, was much larger than that which came the previous summer, the night was a more comfortable one, and it was possible to close the windows during the experiment. The conditions were thus fairly satisfactory. In order to get as much data as possible, and in as short a time, there were nine observers stationed at different points in the room. These observers, whose kindness and skill it is a pleasure to acknowledge, had prepared themselves, by previous practice, for this one experiment. The results of the experiment are shown on the lower curve in Fig. 5. This curve gives the COEFFICIENT OF ABSORPTION PER PERSON. It is to be observed that one of the points falls clearly off the smooth curve drawn through the other points. The observations on which this point is based were, however, much disturbed by a street-car passing not far from the building, and the departure of this observation from the curve does not indicate a real departure in the coefficient, nor should it cast much doubt on the rest of the work, in view of the circumstances under which it was secured. Counteracting the, perhaps, bad impression which this point may give, it is considerable satisfaction to note how accurately the point for $C_4 512$, determined six years before by a different set of observers, falls on the smooth curve through the remaining points. The upper curve represents the absorbing power of an audience per square meter, as ordinarily seated. The vertical ordinates are expressed in terms of total absorption by a square meter of surface. For the upper curve the ordinates are thus the ordinary coefficients of absorption. The several notes are at octave-intervals

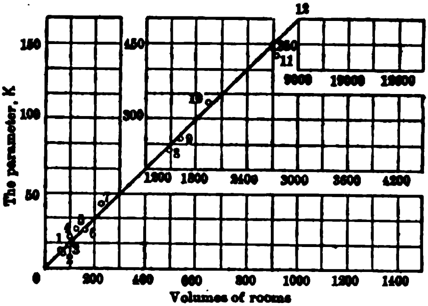

Fig. 4. The Parameters *k*, Plotted Against the Volumes of the Rooms, Showing the Two Proportional

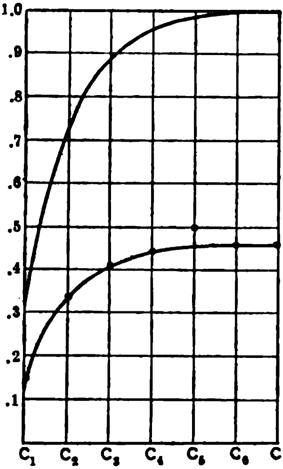

Fig. 5. Absorbing Power of an Audience for Different Notes

as follows: $C_1 64$, $C_2 128$, C_3 (middle C) 256, $C_4 512$, $C_5 1024$, $C_6 2048$, $C_7 4096$. In the audience on which these observations were taken there were 77 women and 105 men. The courtesy of the audience in remaining for the experiment and the really remarkable silence which they maintained are gratefully acknowledged.

Absorption of Sound by Wooden Sheathing. The next experiment was on the determination of the ABSORPTION OF SOUND by wooden sheathing. It is not an easy matter to find conditions suitable for this experiment. The room in which the absorption by wooden sheathing was determined in the earlier experiments was not available for these. It was available then only because the building was new and empty. When these more elaborate experiments were under way the room became occupied, and in a manner that did not admit of its being cleared. Quite a little searching in the neighborhood of Boston failed to discover an entirely suitable room. The best one available adjoined a night-lunch room. The night-lunch was bought out for a couple of nights, and the experiment was tried. The work of both nights was much disturbed. The traffic past the building did not stop until nearly two o'clock, and began again at four. The interest of those passing on foot throughout the night, and the necessity of repeated explanations to the police, greatly interfered with the work. This detailed statement of the conditions under which the experiment was tried is made by way of explanation of the irregularity of the observations recorded on the curve, and of the failure to carry this particular line of work further. On the first night seven points were obtained for the seven notes $C_1 64$ to $C_7 4096$. The reduction of these results on the following day showed variations indicative of maxima and minima, which, to be accurately located, would require the determination of intermediate points. In the experiment on the following night, points were determined for the E and G notes in each octave between $C_2 128$ and $C_6 2048$. Other points would have been determined, but time did not permit. It is obvious that the intermediate points in the lower and in the higher octave were desirable, but no pipes were to be had on such short notice for this part of the range, and in their absence the data could not be obtained. In the diagram, Fig. 6, the points lying on the vertical lines were determined the first night. The points lying between the vertical lines were determined the second night. The sheathing of the room is of North Carolina pine, 2 centimeters thick. The absorption is here due almost wholly to yielding of the sheathing as a whole. It is not possible now to learn as much in regard to the framing and arrangement of the studding in the particular room tested as is desirable. The accuracy with which these points fall on a smooth curve is, perhaps, all that could be expected in view of the difficulty under which the ob-

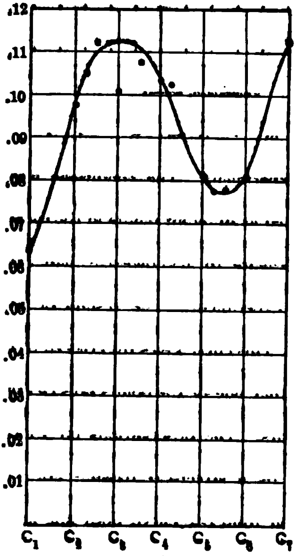

Fig. 6. Absorbing Power of Wooden Sheathing

servations were conducted and the limited time available. One point in particular falls far off from this curve, the point for $C_3$256, by an amount which is, to say the least, serious, and which can be justified only by the conditions under which the work was done. The general trend of the curve seems, however, established beyond reasonable doubt. It is interesting to note that there is one point of maximum absorption, which is due to resonance between the walls and the sound, and that this point of maximum absorption lies in the lower part, though not in the lowest part, of the range of pitch tested. It would have been interesting to determine, had the time and facilities permitted, the shape of the curve beyond $C_7$4096, and to see if it rises indefinitely, or shows, as is far more likely, a succession of maxima.

Absorption of Sound by Cushions. The experiment was then directed to the determination of the absorption of sound by cushions, and for this purpose return was made to the constant-temperature room. Working in the manner indicated in the earlier papers for substances which could be carried in and out of a room, the curves represented in Fig. 7 were obtained. Curve 1 shows the absorption-coefficient for the Sanders Theater cushions, with which the whole investigation was begun ten years ago (1904). These cushions were of a particularly open grade of packing, a sort of wiry grass or vegetable fiber. They were covered with canvas ticking, and that, in turn, with a very thin, cloth covering. Curve 2 is for cushions borrowed from the Phillips Brooks House. They were of a high grade, filled with long, curly hair, and covered with canvas ticking, which was, in turn, covered by a long-nap plush. Curve 3 is for the cushion of Appleton Chapel, hair-covered with a leatherette, and showing a sharper maximum and a more rapid diminution in absorption for the higher frequencies, as would be expected under such conditions. Curve 4 is probably the most interesting, because for more standard commercial conditions ordinarily used in churches. This curve is for the elastic-felt cushions of commerce, of elastic cotton covered with ticking and short-nap plush. The absorbing power is per square meter of surface. It is to be observed that all four curves fall off for the higher frequencies, all show a maximum located within an octave, and three of the curves show a curious hump in the second octave. This break in the curve is a genuine phenomenon, as it was tested time after time. It is perhaps due to a secondary resonance, and it is to be observed that it is the more pronounced in those curves that have the sharper resonance in their principal maxima.

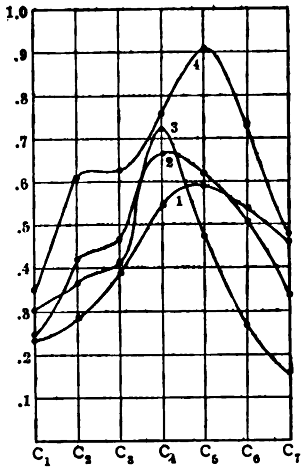

Fig. 7. Absorbing Power of Cushions

Effects of Interference of Sound-Waves. In both articulate speech and in music the source of sound is rapidly and, in general, abruptly changing in pitch, quality and loudness. In music one pitch is held during the length of a note. In articulate speech the unit or element of constancy is the syllable. Indeed, in speech it is even less than the length of a syllable, for the open-vowel sound which forms the body of a syllable usually has a consonantal opening and closing. During the constancy of an element, either of music or of speech, a train of sound-waves spreads spherically from the source, just as a train of circular waves spreads outward from a rocking boat on the surface of still water. Different portions of this train of spherical waves strike different surfaces of the auditorium and are REFLECTED. After such reflection they begin to cross each other's paths. If their paths are so different in length that one train of waves has entirely passed before the other arrives at a particular point, the only phenomenon at that point is PROLONGATION of the sound. If the space between the two trains of waves is sufficiently great, the effect will be that of an ECHO. If there are a number of such trains of waves thus widely spaced, the effect will be that of MULTIPLE ECHOES. On the other hand, if two trains of waves have traveled so nearly equal paths that they overlap, they will, dependent on the difference in length of the paths which they have traveled, either reinforce or mutually destroy each other. Just as two equal trains of water-waves crossing each other may entirely neutralize each other if the crest of one and the trough of the other arrive together, so two sounds, coming from the same source, in crossing each other may produce silence. This phenomenon is called INTERFERENCE, and is a common phenomenon in all types of wave-motion. Of course, this phenomenon has its complement. If the two trains of water-waves so cross that the crest of one coincides with the crest of the other and trough with trough, the effects will be added together. If the two sound-waves are similarly retarded, the one on the other, their effects will also be added. If the two trains of waves are equal in intensity, the combined intensity will be quadruple that of either of the trains separately, as above explained, or zero, depending on their relative retardation. The effect of this phenomenon is to produce regions in an auditorium of LOUDNESS and regions of comparative or even complete SILENCE. It is a partial explanation of the so-called DEAF REGIONS in an auditorium.

Distribution of Intensity of Sound. It is not difficult to observe this phenomenon directly. It is difficult, however, to measure and record the phenomenon in such a manner as to permit of an accurate chart of the result. Without going into the details of the method employed, the result of these measurements for a room very similar to the Congregational Church in Naugatuck, Conn., is shown in the accompanying chart. The room experimented in was a simple, rectangular room with plain side walls and ends and with a barrel or cylindrical ceiling with the center of curvature at the floor-level. The result is clearly represented in Fig. 8, in which the INTENSITY OF THE SOUND has been indicated by contour-lines in the manner employed in the drawing of the geodetic survey-maps. The phenomenon indicated in these diagrams was not ephemeral, but was constant so long as the source of sound continued, and repeated itself with almost perfect accuracy day after day. Nor was the phenomenon one which could be observed merely instrumentally. To an observer moving about in the room it was quite as striking a phenomenon as the diagram suggests. At the points in the room indicated as HIGH MAXIMA OF INTENSITY in the diagram the sound was so loud as to be disagreeable, at other points so low as to be scarcely audible. It should be added that this distribution of intensity is with the source of sound at the center of the room at the head-level. Had the source of sound been at one end and on the axis of the cylindrical ceiling, the distribution of intensity would still have been bilaterally symmetrical, but not symmetrical about the transverse axis.

Interference-Systems and Reverberation. When a source of sound is maintained constant for a sufficiently long time, a few seconds will ordinarily suffice; he sound becomes steady at every point in the room. The distribution of the intensity of sound under these conditions is called the INTERFERENCE-SYSTEM, for that particular note, of the room or space in question. If the source of sound is suddenly stopped, it requires some time for the sound in the room to be absorbed. This prolongation of sound after the source has ceased is called REVERBERATION. If the source of sound, instead of being maintained, is short and sharp, it travels as a discrete wave or group of waves about the room, reflected from wall to wall, producing echoes. In the Greek theater there was ordinarily but one echo, "doubling the case-ending," while in the modern auditorium there are many, generally arriving at a less interval of time after the direct sound, and therefore less distinguishable, but stronger and therefore more disturbing.

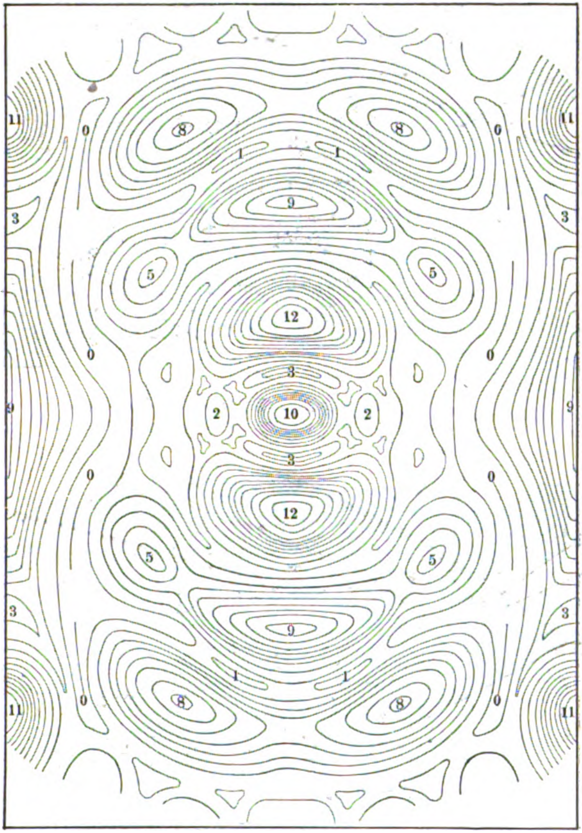

Fig. 8. Distribution of Intensity of Sound

Photographing Air-Disturbances. The formation and the propagation of ECHOES may be admirably studied by an adaptation of the so-called SCHLIEREN-

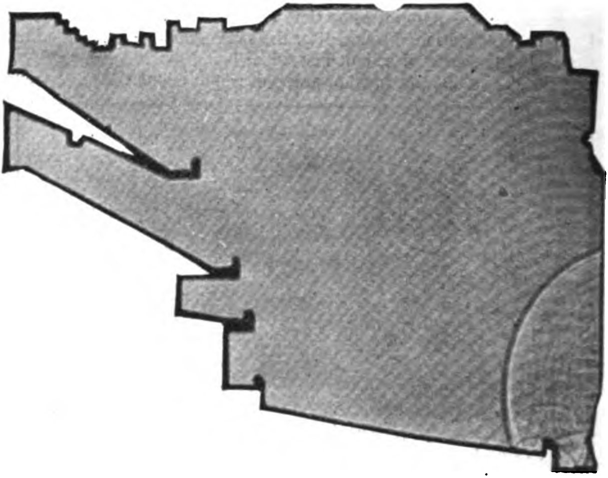

Fig. 9. Photograph of Sound-wave. Vertical Section

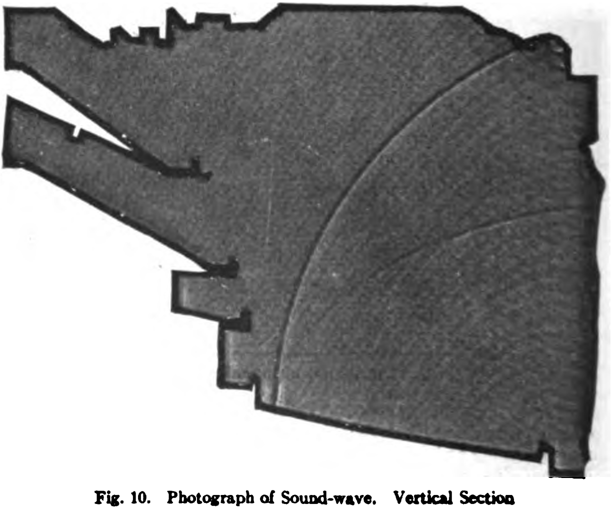

Fig. 10. Photograph of Sound-wave. Vertical Section

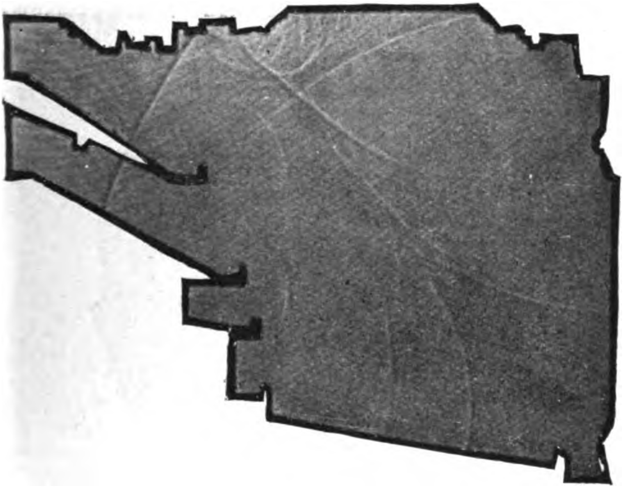

Fig. 11. Photograph of Sound-wave and Echoes. Vertical Section

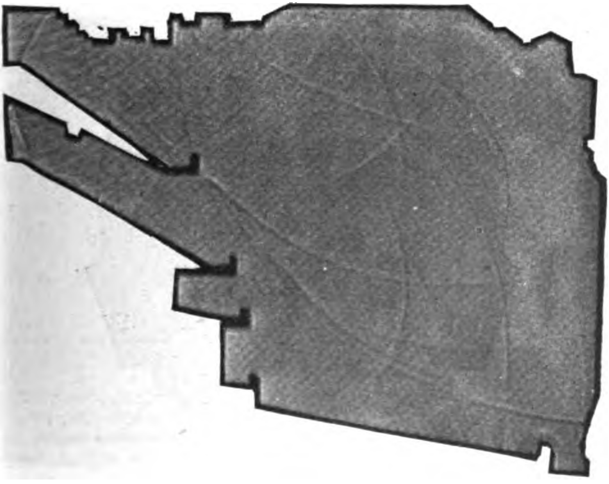

Fig. 12. Photograph of Sound-wave and Echoes. Vertical Section

METHODE device for photographing air-disturbances. It is sufficient here to say that the adaptation of this method to the problem in hand consists in the construction of a MODEL in proper scale, of the auditorium to be studied and an investigation of the propagation through it of a proportionally scaled sound-wave. To examine the formation of echoes in a vertical section, the sides of a model are taken off and, as the sound is passing through it, it is illuminated instantaneously by the light from a very fine and somewhat distant electric spark. In the accompanying illustrations, reduced from the photographs, the silhouettes show parts of the shadows cast by the model, and all within are direct photographs of the actual

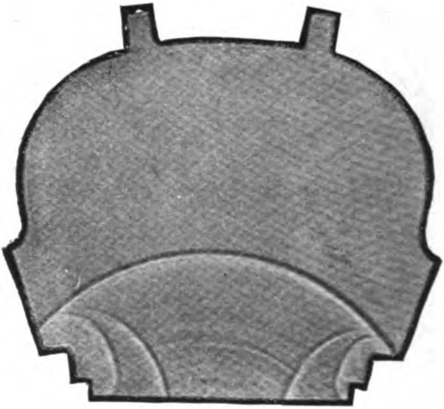

Fig. 13. Photograph of Sound-wave and Echoes. Horizontal Section

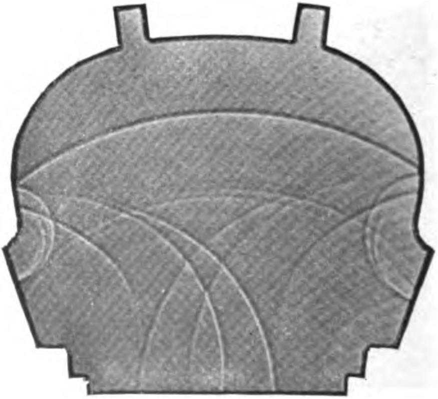

Fig. 14. Photograph of Sound-wave and Echoes. Horizontal Section

sound-wave and its echoes. Figs. 9 to 12 show the sound and its echoes at different stages in their propagation through the room, the particular part of the auditorium under investigation being the New Theater in New York City. It is not difficult to identify the MASTER-WAVE and the various ECHOES which it generates, nor, knowing the velocity of sound, to compute the interval at which the echo is heard. To show the generation of echoes and their propagation in a horizontal plane, the ceiling and floor of the model are removed and the photograph taken in a vertical direction. The photographs shown in Figs. 13 to 16 show the echoes produced in the horizontal plane passing through the marble parapet in front of the box.

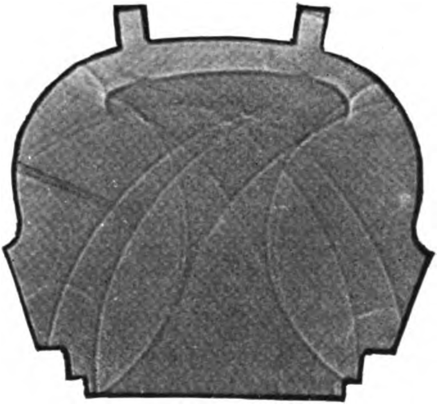

Fig. 15. Photograph of Sound-wave and Echoes. Horizontal Section

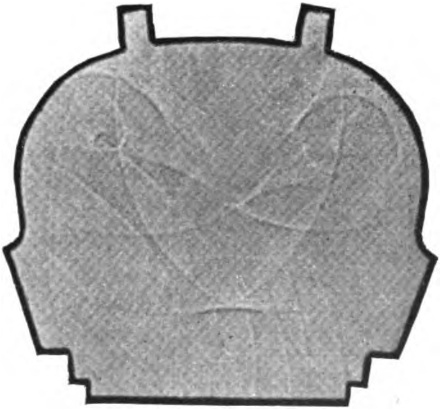

Fig. 16. Photograph of Sound-wave and Echoes. Horizontal Section

Solution of Problems Possible in Advance of Construction. While these several factors, REVERBERATION, INTERFERENCE and ECHO, in an auditorium at all complicated are themselves complicated, nevertheless they are capable of an exact solution, or, at least, of a solution as accurate as are the architect's plans in actual construction; and it is entirely possible to calculate in advance of construction whether or not an auditorium will be good, and, if not, to determine the factors contributing to its poor acoustics and a method for its correction.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY

The Specific Gravity of a substance is the number which expresses the ratio that the weight of a given volume of the substance bears to the weight of the same volume of distilled water at a temperature of 62° F.; or, the specific gravity of a body is equal to its weight divided by the weight of an equal volume of water. The specific gravity of a substance, multiplied by the weight of a cubic foot of water, will give the weight of a cubic foot of the given substance. The weight of a cubic foot of water, at 62° F. and at the sea-level, is about 62.355 lb.* The specific gravity of a solid substance may be determined by first weighing a portion of it in air and then in water and dividing the weight in air by the loss of the weight in water; the quotient is the specific gravity required.

Example. A piece of granite weighs 5.32 lb in air; when immersed in water it weighs 3.32 lb.

Solution. Weight in air (5.32 lb) divided by loss of weight in water (2 lb) = 2.66, the specific gravity.

$$2.66 \times 62.355 \text{ lb} = 165.84 \text{ lb} = \text{weight per cubic foot}$$

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* The textbooks differ slightly in regard to this value.

Specific Gravities and Weights per Cubic Foot of Various Substances *

The basis for specific gravities is pure water at 62° F., barometer 30 in, Weight of 1 cu ft of water, 62.355 lb	Average specific gravity, Water = 1	Average weight of 1 cu ft lb
Agate, ... 2.5 to 2.8	2.6	162.1
Air, atmospheric at 60° F., under pressure of one atmosphere, or 14.7 lb per sq in, weight 1/815 the weight of water	0.00123	0.0767
Alabaster, carbonate .... 2.61 to 2.76	2.68	167.1
Alcohol, absolute, at 32° F.	0.794	49.5
Alcohol, 50 per cent	0.934	58.24
Alcohol, 95 per cent	0.815	50.82
Alcohol, commercial	0.833	51.95
Alder, dry † .... 0.42 to 1.01	0.55	34.3
Alum	1.72	107.4
Aluminum, hammered	2.75	171.7
Aluminum, drawn	2.68	167.1
Aluminum, sheet	2.67	166.5
Aluminum, pure	2.67	166.5
Aluminum, cast	2.56	160.0
Amalgam .... 13.7 to 14.1	13.92	868.0
Amber	1.08	67.4
Ambergris	0.87	54.3
Ammonia, 60° F.	0.894	55.81
Antimony, cast	6.70	418.0
Antimony, native	6.67	416.0
Apple-wood, dry † .... 0.66 to 1.05	0.75	46.8
Arsenic .... 5.7 to 5.8	5.73	357.3
Asbestos .... 2.1 to 3.0	2.81	175.0
Asbestos sheathing-paper	1.20	75.0
Ash, American white, dry †	0.61	38.0
Ashes of soft coal, solidly packed	0.70	40 to 45
Asphalt, for street-paving	1.60	100.0
Asphaltum .... 1.11 to 1.23	1.15	69 to 75
Ballast, brick, gravel	1.79	111.6
Bamboo, dry †	0.36	22.5
Barium	3.88	242.0
Barytes	4.45	277.5
Basalt or trap-rock, average	2.96	184.6
Jersey City, N. J.	3.00	187.1
Duluth, Minn.	2.95	184.0
Staten Island, N. Y.	2.86	178.3
Beech, dry † .... 0.65 to 1.12	0.74	46.0
Beeswax	0.95	59.0
Benzine	0.69	43.0
Beer	1.04	64.9
Birch, dry † .... 0.52 to 1.08	0.65	40.6
Bismuth, cast .... 9.76 to 9.90	9.83	612.3
Blood, at 32° F.	1.06	66.2
Bone .... 1.8 to 2.0	1.90	118.6
Borax .... 1.7 to 1.8	1.75	109.0
Boxwood, French, dry †	1.33	83.0

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* The values given in this table for specific gravities and for weights per cubic foot are AVERAGE values. In the computations and compilations of these tables the Editor is greatly indebted to Mr. T. Z. Talley for valuable assistance.

† The word "dry" in this connection indicates that the wood contains not more than 15% of moisture. Green timbers usually weigh from one-fifth to nearly one-half more than dry; ordinary building-timbers, tolerably seasoned, one-sixth more.

Specific Gravities and Weights per Cubic Foot of Various Substances * (Continued)

The basis for specific gravities is pure water at 62° F., barometer 30 in. Weight of 1 cu ft of water, 62.355 lb	Average specific gravity. Water = 1	Average weight of 1 cu ft lb
Emery	4.00	249.5
Fats	0.93	58.0
Feldspar	2.57	160.2
Filbert-tree, dry †	0.60	37.5
Fir, Douglas (see Douglas Fir).		
Flint	2.63	164.0
Gamboge	1.20	74.8
Garnet 3.4 to 4.3	3.85	240.1
Glass, optical	3.45	215.0
Glass, flint	3.00	187.0
Glass, white	2.89	180.2
Glass, plate	2.80	174.6
Glass, green	2.67	166.5
Glass, floor, heavy	2.53	158.0
Glass, window	2.50	156.0
Gneiss (see Granites).		
Gold, pure	19.50	1 215.9
Gold, hammered, native	19.40	1 209.7
Gold, cast	19.258	1 200.8
Granites and gneiss, Connecticut, Greenwich	2.84	177.3
California, Penryn (hornblende)	2.77	172.9
New York	2.74	171.0
Maryland, Port Deposit	2.72	169.6
Massachusetts, Quincy (hornblende)	2.70	168.5
Wisconsin, Athelstane	2.70	168.5
Georgia, Lithonia and Stone Mountain	2.69	167.9
Minnesota	2.68	167.3
California, Rocklin (muscovite)	2.68	167.3
Rhode Island, Westerley	2.67	166.7
Connecticut, New London	2.66	166.0
New Hampshire, Keene	2.66	166.0
Maine, Hallowell	2.65	165.2
New Hampshire, Concord	2.65	165.2
Vermont, Barre	2.65	165.2
Wisconsin, Montello	2.64	164.6
Colorado, Georgetown (biotite)	2.63	164.0
Maine, Fox Island	2.63	164.0
Massachusetts, Rockport	2.61	162.7
Graphite	2.26	140.0
Gravel, dry	1.79	112.0
Gravel, wet	2.00	125.0
Greenstone, trap 2.8 to 3.2	3.00	187.0
Grindstone	2.14	133.5
Gum arabic	1.32	82.5
Gun-metal (see Bronze).		
Gunpowder (granular)	1.00	62.4
Gutta-percha	0.98	61.0

* The values given in this table for specific gravities and for weights per cubic foot are AVERAGE values.

† The word "dry" in this connection indicates that the wood contains not more than 15% of moisture. Green timbers usually weigh from one-fifth to nearly one-half more than dry; ordinary building-timbers, tolerably seasoned, one-sixth more.

Specific Gravities and Weights per Cubic Foot of Various Substances * (Continued)

The basis for specific gravities is pure water at 62° F., barometer 30 in. Weight of 1 cu ft of water, 62.355 lb	Average specific gravity. Water = 1	Average weight of 1 cu ft lb
Cinnabar	8.12	507.0
Clay, potters', dry . . . 1.8 to 2.1	1.90	118.5
Clay, dry, in lump, loose	1.01	63.0
Coal, anthracite, 1.3 to 1.84; of Penn., 1.3 to 1.7	1.50	93.5
Coal, anthracite, broken, of any size, loose, average	....	52 to 56
Coal, anthracite, broken, moderately shaken	....	56 to 60
Coal, anthracite, broken, heaped bushel, loose, 77 to 83 lb	....	....
Coal, anthracite, broken, a ton loose occupies 40 to 43 cu ft	....	....
Coal, bituminous, solid, 1.2 to 1.5	1.35	84.0
Coal, bituminous, solid, Cambria Co., Pa., 1.27 to 1.34	....	79 to 84
Coal, bituminous, broken, of any size, loose	....	47 to 52
Coal, bituminous, moderately shaken	....	51 to 56
Coal, bituminous, a heaped bushel, loose, 70 to 78	....	....
Coal, bituminous, 1 ton occupies 43 to 48 cu ft	....	....
Coke, loose, good quality	....	23 to 32
Coke, loose, a heaped bushel, 35 to 42 lb	....	....
Coke, loose, 1 ton occupies 80 to 97 cu ft	....	....
Concrete, stone . . . 130 to 150	2.33	145.0
Concrete, cinder . . . 100 to 110	1.68	105.0
Copper, hammered . . . 8.8 to 9.0	8.95	558.0
Copper, rolled . . . 8.9 to 9.0	8.95	558.0
Copper, drawn wire . . . 8.8 to 9.0	8.89	554.5
Copper, sheet	8.72	543.6
Copper, cast . . . 8.6 to 8.9	8.82	550.0
Copper, melted	8.23	513.0
Cork, dry	0.24	15.0
Corundum, pure . . . 3.92 to 4.01	3.96	247.5
Creosote oil . . . 1.04 to 1.10	1.07	66.8
Cypress, American, dry †	0.55	34.3
Dogwood, dry †	0.75	46.8
Douglas fir, dry †	0.51	31.8
Earth, common loam, perfectly dry, loose	....	72 to 80
Earth, common loam, perfectly dry, shaken	....	82 to 92
Earth, common loam, perfectly dry, rammed	....	90 to 100
Earth, common loam, slightly moist, loose	....	70 to 76
Earth, common loam, more moist, loose	....	66 to 68
Earth, common loam, more moist, shaken	....	75 to 90
Earth, common loam, more moist, packed	....	90 to 100
Earth, common loam, as soft, flowing mud	....	104 to 112
Earth, common loam, as soft, flowing mud, well-pressed	....	110 to 120
Ebony	1.22	76.0
Eggs	1.09	68.0
Elder-pith	0.076	4.7
Elm, dry †	0.56	35.0
Elm, rock	0.80	50.0
Emerald	2.70	168.5

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* The values given in this table for specific gravities and for weights per cubic foot ar AVERAGE values.

† The word "dry" in this connection indicates that the wood contains not more tha 15% of moisture. Green timbers usually weigh from one-fifth to nearly one-half mo than dry; ordinary building-timbers, tolerably seasoned, one-sixth more.

Specific Gravities and Weights per Cubic Foot of Various Substances*
(Continued)

The basis for specific gravities is pure water at 62° F., barometer 30 in. Weight of 1 cu ft of water, 62.355 lb	Average specific gravity. Water = 1	Average weight of 1 cu ft lb
Sandstone, (continued)		
Ohio	2.22	138.6
Michigan	2.35	146.5
Wisconsin	2.22	138.6
Minnesota	2.25	140.5
Colorado	2.33	145.3
California, Angel Island	2.73	170.0
Shales, red or black	2.60	162.0
Silica	2.66	166.0
Silver	10.50	654.5
Slate	2.81	175.0
Snow, freshly fallen	....	5 to 12
Snow, moistened, compacted by rain	....	15 to 50
Soapstone	2.73	170.0
Sodium	0.978	61.0
Spelter	7.10	443.0
Spirit, rectified	0.824	51.4
Spruce	0.40	25.0
Steel, cast	7.9	492.6
Steel, wrought	7.85	489.6
Sugar	1.60	100.0
Sycamore, dry	0.58	36.5
Talc	2.81	175.2
Tallow	0.94	58.6
Tamarack	0.38	23.6
Tar	1.00	62.4
Teak	0.70	43.7
Tellurium	6.27	390.9
Tiles, solid	2.20	136.5
Tin, rolled	7.40	461.5
Tin, cast	7.30	455.0
Tin, molten	7.02	437.7
Trap (see Basalt).		
Tungsten	19.129	1 192.8
Turpentine	0.87	54.3
Type-metal, cast	10.45	651.8
Uranium	18.49	1 153.0
Urine	1.02	63.6
Vinegar	1.08	67.3
Walnut, black, dry	0.60	37.5
Water, pure rain, distilled, at 32° F., barometer 30 in.	....	62.4
Water, pure rain, distilled, at 62° F., barometer 30 in.	1.00	62.355
Water, pure rain, distilled, at 212° F., barometer 30 in.	....	59.7
Water, sea 1.026 to 1.030	1.028	64.1
Wax (see Beeswax).		
Willow	0.49	30.5
Wine	1.01	63.0
Zinc or spelter 6.8 to 7.2	7.00	436.5

* The values given in this table for specific gravities and for weights per cubic foot are AVERAGE values.

† The word "dry" in this connection indicates that the wood contains not more than 15% of moisture. Green timbers usually weigh from one-fifth to nearly one-half more than dry; ordinary building-timbers, tolerably seasoned, one-sixth more.

WIRE-GAUGES AND METAL-DATA

A Wire-Gauge is a method of designating the diameter of wires or the thickness of sheets of metal by the numbers of a table arranged on a certain fixed basis. There are at the present time several gauges, resulting in great confusion. Table XIII, page 402, gives the diameters of the gauges in common use. The only legal gauge in this country is the United States standard gauge, described on page 1514. It is used by most of the manufacturers of sheet iron and steel and tin plate. The Brown & Sharpe gauge is commonly used for designating size of copper wires (see page 1424); also for sheet copper and brass. The American Steel and Wire Company uses the old Washburn & Moen gauge for all their steel and iron wire and also for wire nails. The sectional areas for this gauge are given on page 1426. When placing orders for sheets and wire, it is always best to specify the weight per square or linear foot or the thickness or diameter in thousandths of an inch. The gauge for steel wire, used by the J. A. Roebling's Sons Company, is given on page 403, and the circular-mil gauge on page 1387.

Weights in Pounds per Square Foot of Sheets of Wrought Iron, Steel, Copper, and Brass *

Thickness by American (Brown & Sharpe) gauge †

No. of gauge	Thickness in inches	Iron	Steel	Copper	Brass
0000	0.46	18.40	18.77	20.84	19.69
000	0.4096	16.39	16.71	18.56	17.53
00	0.3648	14.59	14.88	16.53	15.61
0	0.3249	12.99	13.25	14.72	13.90
1	0.2893	11.57	11.80	13.11	12.38
2	0.2576	10.31	10.51	11.67	11.03
3	0.2294	9.18	9.36	10.39	9.82
4	0.2043	8.17	8.34	9.26	8.74
5	0.1819	7.28	7.42	8.24	7.79
6	0.1620	6.48	6.61	7.34	6.93
7	0.1443	5.77	5.89	6.54	6.18
8	0.1285	5.14	5.24	5.82	5.50
9	0.1144	4.58	4.67	5.18	4.90
10	0.1019	4.08	4.16	4.62	4.36
11	0.0907	3.63	3.70	4.11	3.88
12	0.0808	3.23	3.30	3.66	3.46
13	0.0720	2.88	2.94	3.26	3.08
14	0.0641	2.56	2.61	2.90	2.74
15	0.0571	2.28	2.33	2.59	2.44
16	0.0508	2.03	2.07	2.30	2.18
17	0.0453	1.81	1.85	2.05	1.94
18	0.0403	1.61	1.64	1.83	1.73
19	0.0359	1.44	1.46	1.63	1.54
20	0.0320	1.28	1.30	1.45	1.37
21	0.0285	1.14	1.16	1.29	1.22
22	0.0253	1.01	1.03	1.15	1.08
23	0.0226	0.903	0.921	1.02	0.966
24	0.0201	0.804	0.820	0.911	0.860
25	0.0179	0.716	0.730	0.811	0.766
26	0.0159	0.638	0.650	0.722	0.682
27	0.0142	0.568	0.579	0.643	0.608
28	0.0126	0.506	0.516	0.573	0.541
29	0.0113	0.450	0.459	0.510	0.482
30	0.0100	0.401	0.409	0.454	0.429
31	0.0089	0.357	0.364	0.404	0.382
32	0.0080	0.318	0.324	0.360	0.340
33	0.0071	0.283	0.289	0.321	0.303
34	0.0063	0.252	0.257	0.286	0.270
35	0.0056	0.224	0.229	0.254	0.240
Specific gravity		7.704	7.85	8.72	8.24
Weight per cubic foot		480.00	489.60	543.6	513.6
Weight per cubic inch		0.2778	0.2833	0.3146	0.2972

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* This table is taken from the handbook of the Cambria Steel Company.

† As there are many gauges in use differing from each other and as even the thicknesses of a certain specified gauge are not assumed to be the same by all manufacturers, orders for sheets and wire should always state the weight in pounds per square foot or the thickness in thousandths of an inch.

Weights of Sheets and Bars of Lead, Copper and Brass

Thickness or diameter, in	Lead			Copper			Brass			Thickness or diameter, in
	Sheets, per sq ft, lb	Square bars 1 ft long, lb	Round bars 1 ft long, lb	Sheets, per sq ft, lb	Square bars 1 ft long, lb	Round bars 1 ft long, lb	Sheets, per sq ft, lb	Square bars 1 ft long, lb	Round bars 1 ft long, lb	
1/32	1.86	0.005	0.004	1.44	0.004	0.003	1.36	0.004	0.003	1/32
1/16	3.72	0.019	0.015	2.89	0.015	0.012	2.71	0.014	0.011	1/16
3/32	5.58	0.044	0.034	4.33	0.034	0.027	4.06	0.032	0.025	3/32
1/8	7.44	0.078	0.061	5.77	0.060	0.047	5.42	0.056	0.044	1/8
5/32	9.30	0.121	0.095	7.20	0.094	0.074	6.75	0.088	0.069	5/32
3/16	11.20	0.174	0.137	8.66	0.135	0.106	8.13	0.127	0.100	3/16
7/32	13.00	0.237	0.187	10.10	0.184	0.144	9.50	0.173	0.136	7/32
1/4	14.90	0.310	0.244	11.50	0.240	0.189	10.80	0.226	0.177	1/4
5/16	18.60	0.485	0.381	14.40	0.376	0.295	13.50	0.353	0.277	5/16
3/8	22.30	0.698	0.548	17.30	0.541	0.425	16.30	0.508	0.399	3/8
7/16	26.00	0.950	0.746	20.30	0.736	0.578	19.00	0.691	0.543	7/16
1/2	29.80	1.240	0.974	23.10	0.962	0.755	21.70	0.903	0.709	1/2
9/16	33.50	1.570	1.230	26.00	1.220	0.955	24.30	1.140	0.900	9/16
5/8	37.20	1.940	1.520	28.90	1.500	1.180	27.10	1.410	1.110	5/8
11/16	40.90	2.340	1.840	31.70	1.820	1.430	29.80	1.700	1.340	11/16
3/4	44.60	2.790	2.190	34.60	2.160	1.700	32.50	2.030	1.600	3/4
13/16	48.30	3.270	2.570	37.50	2.550	1.990	35.20	2.380	1.870	13/16
7/8	52.10	3.800	2.980	40.40	2.940	2.310	37.90	2.760	2.170	7/8
15/16	56.00	4.370	3.420	43.30	3.380	2.650	40.60	3.180	2.490	15/16
1	59.50	4.960	3.900	46.20	3.850	3.020	43.30	3.610	2.840	1
1 1/8	66.90	6.270	4.920	52.00	4.870	3.820	48.70	4.570	3.600	1 1/8
1 1/4	74.40	7.750	6.090	57.70	6.010	4.720	54.20	5.640	4.430	1 1/4
1 3/8	81.80	9.370	7.370	63.50	7.280	5.720	59.60	6.820	5.370	1 3/8
1 1/2	89.30	11.200	8.770	69.30	8.650	6.800	65.00	8.120	6.380	1 1/2
1 5/8	96.70	13.100	10.30	75.10	10.200	7.980	70.40	9.530	7.490	1 5/8
1 3/4	104.00	15.200	11.90	80.80	11.800	9.250	75.90	11.100	8.680	1 3/4
1 7/8	112.00	17.500	13.70	86.60	13.500	10.600	81.30	12.700	9.970	1 7/8
2	119.00	19.800	15.60	92.30	15.400	12.100	86.70	14.400	11.300	2

Sizes and Weights of Smooth Steel Wire *

As made by the American Steel and Wire Company

No. of gauge†	Diameters			Sectional area, sq in	Weight		No. of feet per pound
	Fractions of inch	Decimals of inch	Millimeters		Pounds per 100 feet	Pounds per mile	
000000	....	0.4615	11.72	0.16728	56.81	2999.0	1.76
......	7/16	0.4375	11.11	0.15033	51.05	2696 0	1.959
00000	....	0.4305	10.93	0.14556	49.43	2610.0	2.023
......	13/32	0.40625	10.32	0.12962	44.02	2324.0	2.272
0000	....	0.3938	10.00	0.12180	41.36	2184.0	2.418
......	3/8	0.3750	9.525	0.11045	37.51	1980.0	2.666
000	....	0.3625	9.2075	0.10321	35.05	1851 0	2.853
......	11/32	0.34375	8.731	0.092806	31.52	1664.0	3 173
00	....	0.3310	8.407	0.086049	29.22	1543.0	3.422
......	5/16	0.3125	7.938	0.076699	26.05	1375.0	3 839
0	....	0.3065	7.785	0.073782	25.06	1323.0	3.991
1	....	0.2830	7.188	0.062902	21.36	1128.0	4 681
......	9/32	0.28125	7.141	0.062126	21.10	1114 0	4.740
2	....	0.2625	6.668	0.054119	18.38	970.4	5.441
......	1/4	0.2500	6.350	0.049087	16.67	880.2	5.999
3	....	0.2437	6.190	0.046615	15.84	836.4	6.313
4	....	0.2253	5.723	0.039867	13.54	714.8	7.386
......	7/32	0.21875	5.556	0.037583	12.76	673.9	7.835
5	....	0 2070	5.258	0.033654	11.43	603.4	8.750
6	....	0.1920	4.877	0.028953	9.832	519.2	10.17
......	3/16	0.1875	4.763	0.027612	9.377	495.1	10.66
7	....	0.1770	4.496	0.024606	8.356	441.2	11.97
8	....	0.1620	4.115	0.020612	7.000	369.6	14.29
......	5/32	0.15625	3.969	0.019175	6.512	343 8	15.36
9	....	0.1483	3.767	0.017273	5.866	303.7	17.05
10	....	0.1350	3.429	0.014314	4.861	256.7	20.57
......	1/8	0.125	3.175	0 012272	4.168	220.0	24 00
11	....	0.1205	3.061	0.011404	3.873	204.5	25.82
12	....	0.1055	2.680	0.0087417	2.969	156.7	33.69
......	3/32	0.09375	2.381	0.0069029	2.344	123.8	42.66
13	....	0.0915	2.324	0.0065755	2.233	117.9	44.78
14	....	0.0800	2 032	0.0050266	1.707	90.13	58.58
15	....	0.0720	1.829	0.0040715	1 383	73.01	72.32
16	1/16	0.0625	1.588	0 0030680	1.042	55.01	95 98
17	....	0 0540	1 372	0.0022902	0.7778	41.07	128 60
18	....	0.0475	1.207	0.0017721	0.6018	31.77	166.20
19	....	0.0410	1.041	0.0013203	0 4484	23.67	223.00
20	....	0.0348	0.8839	0.00095115	0 3230	17 05	309.60
21	....	0.0317	0.8052	0.00078924	0.2680	14.15	373 10
......	1/32	0.03125	0.7938	0.00076699	0.2605	13.75	383.90
22	....	0 0286	0 7264	0 00064242	0.2182	11.52	458.40
23	....	0.0258	0 6553	0.00052279	0.1775	9.37	563.30
24	....	0 0230	0.5842	0 00041548	0.1411	7.45	708.70

* For iron wire, the values in columns 6 and 7 should be multiplied by 0.98 and for copper wire, by 1.12.

For other wire-gauges see pages 402, 403, 1387 and 1424.

† American Steel and Wire Company's gauge.

Kinds of Wire Manufactured by the American Steel and Wire Company

Market-wire, Nos. 0000 to 18.

Annealed stone-wire or weaving-wire, Nos. 16 to 47.

Tinned market-wire, Nos. 0 to 18.

Tinned stone-wire, Nos. 16 to 40.

Gun-screw wire, finished with great care as regards roundness and exactness to gauge, Nos. 18 to 50.

Machinery-wire, Nos. 00000 to 18.

Cast-steel wire, ½-in diameter, down to No. 26.

Drill and needle-steel wire, Nos. 12 to 25.

The term MARKET-WIRE applies to the ordinary and most used forms of Bessemer ANNEALED, BRIGHT, GALVANIZED, TINNED and COPPERED wires.

Galvanized-Iron-Wire Strand. The diameter, list-price per 100 ft, weight per 100 feet and approximate breaking-load in pounds for this wire is given in Table XVI, Chapter XI.

Weights and Areas of Square and Round Bars and Circumferences of Round Steel Bars*

Weights are for steel, at 489.6 lb per cu ft

Thickness or diameter, in	Weight of □ bar 1 ft long, lb	Weight of ○ bar 1 ft long, lb	Area of □ bar, sq in	Area of ○ bar, sq in	Circumference of ○ bar, in
1/16	0.013	0.010	0.0039	0.0031	0.1963
5/64	0.021	0.016	0.0061	0.0048	0.2454
3/32	0.030	0.023	0.0088	0.0069	0.2945
7/64	0.041	0.032	0.0120	0.0094	0.3436
1/8	0.053	0.042	0.0156	0.0123	0.3927
9/64	0.067	0.053	0.0198	0.0155	0.4418
5/32	0.083	0.065	0.0244	0.0192	0.4909
11/64	0.100	0.079	0.0295	0.0232	0.5400
3/16	0.120	0.094	0.0352	0.0276	0.5890
13/64	0.140	0.110	0.0413	0.0324	0.6381
7/32	0.163	0.128	0.0479	0.0376	0.6872
15/64	0.187	0.147	0.0549	0.0431	0.7363
1/4	0.213	0.167	0.0625	0.0491	0.7854
17/64	0.240	0.188	0.0706	0.0554	0.8345
9/32	0.269	0.211	0.0791	0.0621	0.8836
19/64	0.300	0.235	0.0881	0.0692	0.9327
5/16	0.332	0.261	0.0977	0.0767	0.9817
11/32	0.402	0.316	0.1182	0.0928	1.0799
3/8	0.478	0.376	0.1406	0.1104	1.1781
13/32	0.561	0.441	0.1650	0.1296	1.2763
7/16	0.651	0.511	0.1914	0.1503	1.3744
15/32	0.747	0.587	0.2197	0.1726	1.4726
1/2	0.850	0.668	0.2500	0.1963	1.5708
17/32	0.960	0.754	0.2822	0.2217	1.6690
9/16	1.076	0.845	0.3164	0.2485	1.7671
19/32	1.199	0.941	0.3525	0.2769	1.8653
5/8	1.328	1.043	0.3906	0.3068	1.9635
11/16	1.607	1.262	0.4727	0.3712	2.1598
3/4	1.913	1.502	0.5625	0.4418	2.3562
13/16	2.245	1.763	0.6602	0.5185	2.5525
7/8	2.603	2.044	0.7656	0.6013	2.7489
15/16	2.989	2.347	0.8789	0.6903	2.9452

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* Adapted from the 1912 Edition of the Handbook of the Cambria Steel Company, Johnstown, Pa.

Weights and Areas of Square and Round Steel Bars *

Weights are for steel, at 489.6 lb per cu ft

Thickness, in	□		○		Thickness, in	□		○	
	Area, sq in	Weight per foot, lb	Area, sq in	Weight per foot, lb		Area, sq in	Weight per foot, lb	Area, sq in	Weight per foot, lb
1	1.000	3.400	0.785	2.670	3	9.000	30.60	7.069	24.03
1/16	1.129	3.838	0.887	3.014	1/16	9.379	31.89	7.366	25.04
1/8	1.266	3.303	0.994	3.379	1/8	9.766	33.20	7.670	26.08
3/16	1.410	4.795	1.108	3.766	3/16	10.16	34.55	7.980	27.13
1/4	1.563	5.312	1.227	4.173	1/4	10.56	35.92	8.296	28.20
5/16	1.723	5.857	1.353	4.600	5/16	10.97	37.31	8.618	29.30
3/8	1.891	6.428	1.485	5.049	3/8	11.39	38.73	8.946	30.42
7/16	2.066	7.026	1.623	5.518	7/16	11.82	40.18	9.281	31.56
1/2	2.250	7.650	1.767	6.008	1/2	12.25	41.65	9.621	32.71
9/16	2.441	8.301	1.918	6.520	9/16	12.69	43.14	9.968	33.90
5/8	2.641	8.978	2.074	7.051	5/8	13.14	44.68	10.32	35.09
11/16	2.848	9.682	2.237	7.604	11/16	13.60	46.24	10.68	36.31
3/4	3.063	10.41	2.405	8.178	3/4	14.06	47.82	11.05	37.56
13/16	3.285	11.17	2.580	8.773	13/16	14.54	49.42	11.42	38.81
7/8	3.516	11.95	2.761	9.388	7/8	15.02	51.05	11.79	40.10
15/16	3.754	12.76	2.948	10.02	15/16	15.50	52.71	12.18	41.40
2	4.000	13.60	3.142	10.68	4	16.00	54.40	12.57	42.73
1/16	4.254	14.46	3.341	11.36	1/16	16.50	56.11	12.96	44.07
1/8	4.516	15.35	3.547	12.06	1/8	17.02	57.85	13.36	45.44
3/16	4.785	16.27	3.758	12.78	3/16	17.54	59.62	13.77	46.83
1/4	5.063	17.22	3.976	13.52	1/4	18.06	61.41	14.19	48.24
5/16	5.348	18.19	4.200	14.28	5/16	18.60	63.23	14.61	49.66
3/8	5.641	19.18	4.430	15.07	3/8	19.14	65.08	15.03	51.11
7/16	5.941	20.20	4.666	15.86	7/16	19.69	66.95	15.47	52.58
1/2	6.250	21.25	4.909	16.69	1/2	20.25	68.85	15.90	54.07
9/16	6.566	22.33	5.157	17.53	9/16	20.82	70.78	16.35	55.59
5/8	6.891	23.43	5.412	18.40	5/8	21.39	72.73	16.80	57.12
11/16	7.223	24.56	5.673	19.29	11/16	21.97	74.70	17.26	58.67
3/4	7.563	25.71	5.940	20.20	3/4	22.56	76.71	17.72	60.25
13/16	7.910	26.90	6.213	21.12	13/16	23.16	78.74	18.19	61.84
7/8	8.266	28.10	6.492	22.07	7/8	23.77	80.81	18.67	63.46
15/16	8.629	29.34	6.777	23.04	15/16	24.38	82.89	19.15	65.10

* Adapted from the 1912 Edition of the Handbook of the Cambria Steel Company, Johnstown, Pa.

Weights and Areas of Square and Round Steel Bars * (Continued)

Weights are for steel, at 489.6 lb per cu ft

Thickness, in	□		○		Thickness, in	□		○	
	Area, sq in	Weight per foot, lb	Area, sq in	Weight per foot, lb		Area, sq in	Weight per foot, lb	Area, sq in	Weight per foot, lb
5	25.00	85.00	19.64	66.76	7	49.00	166.6	38.49	130.9
1/16	25.63	87.14	20.13	68.44	1/4	52.56	178.7	41.28	140.4
1/8	26.27	89.30	20.63	70.14	1/2	56.25	191.3	44.18	150.2
3/16	26.91	91.49	21.14	71.86	3/4	60.06	204.2	47.17	160.3
1/4	27.56	93.72	21.65	73.60	8	64.00	217.6	50.27	171.0
5/16	28.22	95.96	22.17	75.37	1/4	68.06	231.4	53.46	181.8
3/8	28.89	98.23	22.69	77.15	1/2	72.25	245.6	56.75	193.0
7/16	29.57	100.5	23.22	78.95	3/4	76.56	260.3	60.13	204.4
1/2	30.25	102.8	23.76	80.77	9	81.00	275.4	63.62	216.3
9/16	30.94	105.2	24.30	82.62	1/4	85.56	290.9	67.20	228.5
5/8	31.64	107.6	24.85	84.49	1/2	90.25	306.8	70.88	241.0
11/16	32.35	110.0	25.41	86.38	3/4	95.06	323.2	74.66	253.9
3/4	33.06	112.4	25.97	88.29	10	100.0	340.0	78.54	267.0
13/16	33.79	114.9	26.54	90.22	1/4	105.1	357.2	82.52	280.6
7/8	34.52	117.4	27.11	92.17	1/2	110.3	374.9	86.59	294.4
15/16	35.25	119.9	27.69	94.14	3/4	115.6	392.9	90.76	308.6
6	36.00	122.4	28.27	96.14	11	121.0	411.4	95.03	323.1
1/8	37.52	127.6	29.47	100.2	1/4	126.6	430.3	99.40	337.9
1/4	39.06	132.8	30.68	104.3	1/2	132.3	449.6	103.9	353.1
3/8	40.64	138.2	31.92	108.5	3/4	138.1	469.4	108.4	368.6
1/2	42.25	143.6	33.18	112.8	12	144.0	489.6	113.1	384.5
5/8	43.89	149.2	34.47	117.2	.....	.....	......	......	......
3/4	45.56	154.9	35.79	121.7	.....	.....	......	......	......
7/8	47.27	160.8	37.12	126.2	.....	.....	......	......	......

* Adapted from the 1912 Edition of the Handbook of the Cambria Steel Company, Johnstown, Pa.

Weights in Pounds of Flat Rolled Steel Bars

PER LINEAR FOOT

One cubic foot of steel weighs 489.6 lb

For thicknesses from 1/16 in to 9/16 in and widths from 1/4 in to 3/4 in

Thickness, inches	Width of bar, inches								
	1/4	5/16	3/8	7/16	1/2	9/16	5/8	11/16	3/4
1/16	0.053	0.066	0.080	0.093	0.106	0.120	0.133	0.146	0.159
5/64	0.066	0.083	0.100	0.116	0.133	0.149	0.166	0.183	0.199
3/32	0.080	0.100	0.120	0.139	0.159	0.179	0.199	0.219	0.239
7/64	0.093	0.116	0.139	0.163	0.186	0.209	0.232	0.256	0.279
1/8	0.106	0.133	0.159	0.186	0.212	0.239	0.266	0.292	0.319
9/64	0.120	0.149	0.179	0.209	0.239	0.269	0.299	0.329	0.359
5/32	0.133	0.166	0.199	0.232	0.266	0.299	0.332	0.365	0.398
11/64	0.146	0.183	0.219	0.256	0.292	0.329	0.365	0.402	0.438
3/16	0.159	0.199	0.239	0.279	0.319	0.359	0.398	0.438	0.478
13/64	0.173	0.216	0.259	0.302	0.345	0.388	0.432	0.475	0.518
7/32	0.186	0.232	0.279	0.325	0.372	0.418	0.465	0.511	0.558
15/64	0.199	0.249	0.299	0.349	0.398	0.448	0.498	0.548	0.598
1/4	0.213	0.266	0.319	0.372	0.425	0.478	0.531	0.584	0.638
17/64	0.226	0.282	0.339	0.395	0.452	0.508	0.564	0.621	0.677
9/32	0.239	0.299	0.359	0.418	0.478	0.538	0.598	0.657	0.717
19/64	0.252	0.315	0.379	0.442	0.505	0.568	0.631	0.694	0.757
5/16	0.266	0.332	0.398	0.465	0.531	0.598	0.664	0.730	0.797
21/64	0.279	0.349	0.418	0.488	0.558	0.628	0.697	0.767	0.827
11/32	0.292	0.365	0.438	0.511	0.584	0.657	0.730	0.804	0.877
23/64	0.305	0.382	0.458	0.535	0.611	0.687	0.764	0.840	0.916
3/8	0.319	0.398	0.478	0.558	0.638	0.717	0.797	0.877	0.956
25/64	0.332	0.415	0.498	0.581	0.664	0.747	0.830	0.913	0.996
13/32	0.345	0.432	0.518	0.604	0.691	0.777	0.863	0.950	1.04
27/64	0.359	0.448	0.538	0.628	0.717	0.807	0.896	0.986	1.08
7/16	0.372	0.465	0.558	0.651	0.744	0.837	0.930	1.02	1.12
29/64	0.385	0.481	0.578	0.674	0.770	0.867	0.963	1.06	1.16
15/32	0.398	0.498	0.598	0.697	0.797	0.896	0.996	1.10	1.20
31/64	0.412	0.515	0.618	0.721	0.823	0.926	1.03	1.13	1.24
1/2	0.425	0.531	0.638	0.744	0.850	0.956	1.06	1.17	1.28
33/64	0.438	0.548	0.657	0.767	0.877	0.986	1.10	1.21	1.31
17/32	0.452	0.564	0.677	0.790	0.903	1.02	1.13	1.24	1.35
35/64	0.465	0.581	0.697	0.813	0.930	1.05	1.16	1.28	1.39
9/16	0.478	0.598	0.717	0.837	0.956	1.08	1.20	1.31	1.43

Weights in Pounds of Flat Rolled Steel Bars (Continued)

PER LINEAR FOOT

For thicknesses from 1/16 to 2 in and widths from 1 to 3 in

Thickness, inches	Width of bar, inches								
	1	1¼	1½	1¾	2	2¼	2½	2¾	3
1/16	0.21	0.26	0.32	0.37	0.43	0.48	0.53	0.58	0.63
⅛	0.42	0.53	0.64	0.75	0.85	0.96	1.06	1.17	1.28
3/16	0.63	0.79	0 96	1.11	1.28	1.44	1.59	1.75	1.91
¼	0.85	1.06	1.28	1.49	1.70	1.91	2.12	2.34	2.55
5/16	1.06	1.33	1.59	1.86	2.12	2.39	2.65	2.92	3.19
⅜	1.28	1.59	1.92	2.23	2.55	2.87	3.19	3.51	3 83
7/16	1.49	1.86	2.23	2.60	2.98	3.35	3.72	4.09	4.46
½	1.70	2.12	2.55	2.98	3.40	3.83	4.25	4.67	5.10
9/16	1.92	2.39	2.87	3.35	3.83	4.30	4.78	5.26	5.74
⅝	2.12	2.65	3.19	3.72	4.25	4.78	5.31	5.84	6.38
11/16	2.34	2.92	3.51	4.09	4.67	5.26	5.84	6.43	7.02
¾	2.55	3.19	3.83	4.47	5.10	5.75	6.38	7.02	7.65
13/16	2.76	3.45	4.14	4.84	5.53	6.21	6.90	7.60	8.29
⅞	2.98	3.72	4.47	5.20	5.95	6.69	7.44	8.18	8.93
15/16	3.19	3.99	4.78	5.58	6.38	7.18	7.97	8.77	9.57
1	3.40	4.25	5.10	5.95	6.80	7.65	8.50	9.35	10.20
1 1/16	3.61	4.52	5.42	6.32	7.22	8.13	9.03	9.93	10 84
1⅛	3.83	4.78	5.74	6.70	7.65	8.61	9.57	10.52	11.48
1 3/16	4.04	5.05	6.06	7.07	8.08	9.09	10.10	11.11	12.12
1¼	4.25	5.31	6.38	7.44	8.50	9.57	10.63	11.69	12.75
1 5/16	4.46	5.58	6.69	7.81	8.93	10.04	11.16	12.27	13.39
1⅜	4.67	5.84	7.02	8.18	9.35	10.52	11.69	12.85	14.03
1 7/16	4.89	6.11	7.34	8.56	9.78	11.00	12.22	13.44	14 66
1½	5.10	6.38	7.65	8.93	10.20	11.48	12.75	14 03	15.30
1 9/16	5.32	6.64	7.97	9.30	10.63	11.95	13.28	14.61	15 94
1⅝	5.52	6.90	8.29	9.67	11.05	12.43	13.81	15.19	16 58
1 11/16	5.74	7.17	8.61	10.04	11.47	12.91	14.34	15.78	17 22
1¾	5.95	7.44	8.93	10.42	11.90	13.40	14.88	16.37	17.85
1 13/16	6.16	7.70	9.24	10.79	12.33	13.86	15.40	16.95	18.49
1⅞	6.38	7.97	9.57	11.15	12.75	14.34	15.94	17.53	19.13
1 15/16	6.59	8.24	9.88	11.53	13.18	14.83	16.47	18.12	19.77
2	6.80	8.50	10.20	11.90	13.60	15.30	17.00	18.70	20.40

Weights in Pounds of Flat Rolled Steel Bars (Continued)

PER LINEAR FOOT

For thicknesses from 1/16 to 2 in and widths from 3½ to 7½ in

Thickness, inches	Width of bar, inches								
	3½	4	4½	5	5½	6	6½	7	7½
1/16	0.75	0.85	0.96	1.06	1.17	1.28	1.39	1.49	1.60
1/8	1.49	1.70	1.92	2.13	2.34	2.55	2.77	2.98	3.19
3/16	2.23	2.55	2.87	3.19	3.51	3.83	4.14	4.46	4.78
1/4	2.98	3.40	3.83	4.25	4.67	5.10	5.53	5.95	6.36
5/16	3.72	4.25	4.78	5.31	5.84	6.38	6.90	7.44	7.97
3/8	4.47	5.10	5.74	6.38	7.02	7.65	8.29	8.93	9.57
7/16	5.20	5.95	6.70	7.44	8.18	8.93	9.67	10.41	11.16
1/2	5.95	6.80	7.65	8.50	9.35	10.20	11.05	11.90	12.75
9/16	6.70	7.65	8.61	9.57	10.52	11.48	12.43	13.39	14.34
5/8	7.44	8.50	9.57	10.63	11.69	12.75	13.81	14.87	15.94
11/16	8.18	9.35	10.52	11.69	12.85	14.03	15.20	16.36	17.53
3/4	8.93	10.20	11.48	12.75	14.03	15.30	16.58	17.85	19.13
13/16	9.67	11.05	12.43	13.81	15.19	16.58	17.95	19.34	20.72
7/8	10.41	11.90	13.39	14.87	16.36	17.85	19.34	20.83	22.32
15/16	11.16	12.75	14.34	15.94	17.53	19.13	20.72	22.32	23.91
1	11.90	13.60	15.30	17.00	18.70	20.40	22.10	23.80	25.50
1 1/16	12.65	14.45	16.26	18.06	19.87	21.68	23.48	25.29	27.10
1 1/8	13.39	15.30	17.22	19.13	21.04	22.95	24.87	26.78	28.68
1 3/16	14.13	16.15	18.17	20.19	22.21	24.23	26.24	28.26	30.28
1 1/4	14.87	17.00	19.13	21.25	23.38	25.50	27.62	29.75	31.88
1 5/16	15.62	17.85	20.08	22.32	24.54	26.78	29.01	31.23	33.48
1 3/8	16.36	18.70	21.04	23.38	25.71	28.05	30.39	32.72	35.06
1 7/16	17.10	19.85	21.99	24.44	26.88	29.33	31.77	34.21	36.66
1 1/2	17.85	20.40	22.95	25.50	28.05	30.60	33.15	35.70	38.26
1 9/16	18.60	21.25	23.91	26.57	29.22	31.88	34.53	37.19	39.84
1 5/8	19.34	22.10	24.87	27.63	30.39	33.15	35.91	38.67	41.44
1 11/16	20.08	22.95	25.82	28.69	31.55	34.43	37.30	40.16	43.03
1 3/4	20.83	23.80	26.78	29.75	32.73	35.70	38.68	41.65	44.63
1 13/16	21.57	24.65	27.73	30.81	33.89	36.98	40.05	43.14	46.22
1 7/8	22.31	25.50	28.69	31.87	35.06	38.25	41.44	44.63	47.82
1 15/16	23.06	26.35	29.64	32.94	36.23	39.53	42.82	46.12	49.41
2	23.80	27.20	30.60	34.00	37.40	40.80	44.20	47.60	51.00

Weights in Pounds of Flat Rolled Steel Bars (Continued)

PER LINEAR FOOT

For thicknesses from 1/16 to 2 in and widths from 8 to 12 in

Thickness, inches	Width of bar, inches								
	8	8½	9	9½	10	10½	11	11½	12
1/16	1.70	1.81	1.91	2.02	2.13	2.23	2.34	2.45	2.55
1/8	3.40	3.61	3.82	4.04	4.25	4.46	4.68	4.89	5.10
3/16	5.10	5.42	5.74	6.06	6.38	6.70	7.02	7.32	7.65
1/4	6.80	7.22	7.65	8.08	8.50	8.92	9.34	9.78	10.20
5/16	8.50	9.03	9.56	10.10	10.62	11.16	11.68	12.22	12.75
3/8	10.20	10.84	11.48	12.12	12.75	13.39	14.03	14.68	15.30
7/16	11.90	12.64	13.40	14.14	14.88	15.62	16.38	17.12	17.85
1/2	13.60	14.44	15.30	16.16	17.00	17.85	18.70	19.55	20.40
9/16	15.30	16.26	17.22	18.18	19.14	20.08	21.02	22.00	22.95
5/8	17.00	18.06	19.13	20.19	21.25	22.32	23.38	24.44	25.50
11/16	18.70	19.86	21.04	22.21	23.38	24.54	25.70	26.88	28.05
3/4	20.40	21.68	22.96	24.23	25.50	26.78	28.05	29.33	30.60
13/16	22.10	23.48	24.86	26.24	27.62	29.00	30.40	31.76	33.15
7/8	23.80	25.30	26.78	28.26	29.75	31.24	32.72	34.21	35.70
15/16	25.50	27.10	28.69	30.28	31.88	33.48	35.06	36.66	38.25
1	27.20	28.90	30.60	32.30	34.00	35.70	37.40	39.10	40.80
1 1/16	28.90	30.70	32.52	34.32	36.12	37.92	39.74	41.54	43.35
1 1/8	30.60	32.52	34.43	36.34	38.25	40.17	42.08	44.00	45.90
1 3/16	32.30	34.32	36.34	38.36	40.38	42.40	44.42	46.44	48.45
1 1/4	34.00	36.12	38.26	40.37	42.50	44.63	46.76	48.88	51.00
1 5/16	35.70	37.93	40.16	42.40	44.64	46.86	49.08	51.32	53.55
1 3/8	37.40	39.74	42.08	44.41	46.75	49.08	51.42	53.76	56.10
1 7/16	39.10	41.54	44.00	46.44	48.88	51.32	53.76	56.21	58.65
1 1/2	40.80	43.35	45.90	48.45	51.00	53.55	56.10	58.65	61.20
1 9/16	42.50	45.16	47.82	50.48	53.14	55.78	58.42	61.10	63.75
1 5/8	44.20	46.96	49.73	52.49	55.25	58.02	60.78	63.54	66.30
1 11/16	45.90	48.76	51.64	54.51	57.38	60.24	63.10	65.98	68.85
1 3/4	47.60	50.58	53.56	56.53	59.50	62.48	65.45	68.43	71.40
1 13/16	49.30	52.38	55.46	58.54	61.62	64.70	67.80	70.86	73.95
1 7/8	51.00	54.20	57.38	60.56	63.75	66.94	70.12	73.31	76.50
1 15/16	52.70	56.00	59.29	62.58	65.88	69.18	72.46	75.76	79.05
2	54.40	57.80	61.20	64.60	68.00	71.40	74.80	78.20	81.60

Rules for Estimating the Weight of any Piece of Wrought Iron, Steel or Cast Iron

Wrought Iron.

One cubic foot of wrought iron weighs	480 lb
One square foot, one inch thick, weighs	40 lb
One square inch, one foot long, weighs	3⅓ lb

To find the weight per square foot of sheet iron, multiply the thickness in inches by 40.

To find the weight per linear foot of bars of any section, multiply the cross-sectional area in square inches by 3⅓.

Steel.

One cubic foot of steel weighs (Or just 2% more than wrought iron.)	489.6 lb
One square foot, one inch thick, weighs	40.8 lb
One square inch, one foot long, weighs	3.4 lb

To find the weight per linear foot, of bars of any section, multiply the cross-sectional area in square inches by 3.4; or, if the weight is known, the exact sectional area may be obtained by dividing by 3.4.

Cast Iron.

One cubic foot of cast iron weighs	450 lb
One square foot, one inch thick, weighs	37½ lb
One square inch, one foot long, weighs	3⅛ lb
One cubic inch weighs	0.26 lb

The weight of irregular castings must be estimated by the cubic inch.

Rules for Weights of Castings

Multiply the weight of the pattern by 18 for cast iron, 13 for brass, 19 for lead, 12.2 for tin, 11.4 for zinc; the product is the weight of the casting.

Reduction for Round Cores and Core-Prints

Rule. Multiply the square of the diameter by the length of the core in inches, and the product multiplied by 0.017 is the weight of the pine core to be deducted from the weight of the pattern.

Shrinkage in Castings

Pattern-makers' Rule	Cast iron	⅛	of an inch longer per linear foot
	Brass	3/16	
	Lead	⅛	
	Tin	1/12	
	Zinc	5/16	

Weights of Square Cast-Iron Columns in Pounds per Linear Foot*

a □ b $2a + 2b$ †	Thickness of metal, inches								
	5/8 in, lb	3/4 in, lb	7/8 in, lb	1 in, lb	1 1/8 in, lb	1 1/4 in, lb	1 1/2 in, lb	1 3/4 in, lb	2 in, lb
12	18.6	21.1	23.3	25.0	26.4	27.3	28.1	.....	.....
14	22.5	25.8	28.7	31.3	33.4	35.1	37.5	.....	.....
16	26.4	30.5	34.2	37.5	40.4	43.0	46.9	49.2	50.0
18	30.3	35.2	39.7	43.8	47.4	50.8	56.3	60.2	62.5
20	34.2	39.8	45.1	50.0	54.5	58.6	65.6	71.1	75.0
22	38.1	44.5	50.6	56.3	61.5	66.4	75.0	82.0	87.5
24	42.0	49.2	56.1	62.5	68.5	74.2	84.4	93.0	100.0
26	45.9	53.9	61.5	68.8	75.6	82.0	93.8	103.9	112.5
28	49.8	58.6	67.0	75.0	82.6	89.8	103.1	114.8	125.0
30	53.7	63.3	72.5	81.3	89.6	97.7	112.5	125.8	137.5
32	57.6	68.0	77.9	87.5	96.7	105.5	121.9	136.7	150.0
34	61.5	72.7	83.4	93.8	103.7	113.3	131.3	147.7	162.5
36	65.4	77.3	88.9	100.0	110.7	121.1	140.6	158.6	175.0
38	69.3	82.0	94.3	106.3	117.8	128.9	150.0	169.5	187.5
40	73.2	86.7	99.8	112.5	124.8	136.7	159.4	180.5	200.0
42	77.1	91.4	105.3	118.8	131.8	144.5	168.8	191.4	212.5
44	81.0	96.1	110.8	125.0	138.8	152.3	178.1	202.3	225.0
46	84.9	100.8	116.2	131.3	145.9	160.2	187.5	213.3	237.5
48	88.8	105.5	121.7	137.5	152.9	168.0	196.9	224.2	250.0
50	92.8	110.2	127.2	143.8	159.9	175.8	206.3	235.2	262.5
52	96.7	114.8	132.6	150.0	167.0	183.6	215.6	246.1	275.0
54	100.6	119.5	138.1	156.3	174.0	191.4	225.0	257.0	287.5
56	104.5	124.2	143.6	162.5	181.0	199.2	234.4	268.0	300.0
58	108.4	128.9	149.0	168.8	188.1	207.0	243.8	278.9	312.5
60	112.3	133.6	154.5	175.0	195.1	214.9	253.2	289.8	325.0
62	116.2	138.3	160.0	181.3	202.1	222.7	262.5	300.8	337.5
64	120.1	143.0	165.4	187.5	209.2	230.5	271.9	311.7	350.0
66	124.0	147.7	170.9	193.8	216.2	238.3	281.3	322.7	362.5
68	127.9	152.3	176.4	200.0	223.2	246.1	290.6	333.6	375.0
70	131.8	157.0	181.8	206.3	230.3	253.9	300.0	344.5	387.5
72	135.7	161.7	187.3	212.5	237.3	261.7	309.4	355.5	400.0
74	139.6	166.4	192.8	218.8	244.3	269.5	318.8	366.4	412.5
76	143.5	171.1	198.3	225.0	251.3	277.3	328.1	377.3	425.0
78	147.4	175.8	203.7	231.3	258.4	285.2	337.5	388.3	437.5
80	151.3	180.5	207.2	237.5	265.4	293.0	346.9	399.2	450.0

* Birkmire.

† a and b = either side, outside measurement. $2a + 2b$ = number. Allowance has been made in this table for corners counted twice.

Example. What is the weight per linear foot of a 12 by 16 by 1 in thick column?

Solution. $2a + 2b = 24 + 32 = 56$. Opposite this number, under 1-in-thick metal, we find 162.5, or weight per linear foot of a column 12 by 16 by 1-in-thick.

Note. For flanges, brackets, etc., calculate the cubical contents of same and multiply by 0.26; cast iron averages 450 lb per cu ft.

Weights per Linear Foot of Circular Cast-Iron Columns *†

Outside diameter, inches	Thickness of metal, inches							
	½ in., lb	⅝ in., lb	¾ in., lb	⅞ in., lb	1 in., lb	1⅛ in., lb	1¼ in., lb	1⅜ in., lb
3	12.3	14.6	16.60	18.30	19.6	......	......	......
4	17.2	21.0	24.00	27.00	29.5	32.1	33.8	35.4
5	22.1	27.0	31.30	35.50	39.3	43.0	46.0	49.0
6	27.0	33.0	39.00	44.00	49.1	54.1	58.3	62.4
7	32.0	39.1	46.00	53.00	59.0	65.1	70.6	76.1
8	36.8	45.3	53.40	61.20	69.1	76.1	83.1	89.5
9	41.7	51.4	61.10	70.00	78.6	87.1	95.1	103.1
10	46.6	57.5	68.13	78.41	88.4	98.0	107.4	116.4
11	51.6	64.0	75.50	87.10	98.2	109.1	120.1	130.1
12	56.5	70.0	82.87	96.10	108.0	120.0	132.1	143.5
13	61.4	76.0	90.23	104.20	118.1	131.2	144.2	157.1
14	66.3	82.1	97.60	113.20	128.1	142.0	156.5	170.4
15	71.2	88.2	104.96	121.40	137.5	153.3	169.4	184.1
16	76.1	94.4	112.33	130.10	147.3	164.3	181.0	197.4
17	81.0	100.5	120.10	139.10	157.1	175.4	193.3	211.0
18	86.0	107.0	127.00	147.00	167.0	186.4	206.0	224.4
19	91.0	113.0	134.40	156.00	177.1	197.5	218.1	238.0
20	96.0	119.0	142.10	164.30	186.6	208.8	230.1	251.5
21	100.6	125.0	149.10	173.10	196.6	219.6	242.4	265.0
22	105.6	131.2	156.50	181.50	206.2	230.6	255.0	278.0
23	110.5	137.3	164.10	190.10	216.1	242.0	267.0	292.0
24	115.4	143.5	171.20	199.00	226.0	253.0	279.2	305.4

Outside diameter, inches	Thickness of metal, inches							
	1½ in., lb	1⅝ in., lb	1¾ in., lb	1⅞ in., lb	2 in., lb	2⅛ in., lb	2¼ in., lb	2⅜ in., lb
3	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
4	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
5	51.54	54.1	55.84	57.5	......	......	......	......
6	66.30	69.9	73.02	76.0	78.6	80.84	82.83	......
7	81.00	85.6	90.20	94.3	98.2	101.70	105.00	107.84
8	95.80	101.8	107.40	112.8	117.8	122.60	127.00	131.20
9	110.50	117.7	124.60	131.2	137.5	143.40	149.10	154.50
10	125.20	133.7	142.00	149.6	157.1	164.30	171.20	177.80
11	140.00	149.6	159.00	168.0	176.8	185.20	193.30	201.10
12	154.70	165.6	176.00	186.4	196.4	206.00	215.40	224.40
13	169.40	181.5	193.30	204.8	216.0	226.90	237.50	247.70
14	184.10	197.4	210.50	223.2	235.7	247.70	259.60	271.10
15	198.90	213.4	227.70	241.6	255.3	268.20	281.70	294.40
16	213.50	229.4	244.90	260.0	274.9	289.50	303.70	317.70
17	228.30	245.3	262.00	278.4	294.5	310.30	325.80	341.00
18	243.00	261.3	279.20	296.8	314.2	331.20	348.00	364.30
19	257.70	277.2	296.40	315.2	338.8	352.10	370.00	387.70
20	272.50	293.2	313.60	333.6	353.4	372.90	392.10	411.00
21	287.20	309.0	330.80	352.1	373.1	393.80	414.20	434.30
22	302.00	325.1	348.00	370.5	393.0	414.60	436.30	457.60
23	316.70	341.0	365.10	388.9	412.3	435.50	458.40	481.00
24	331.40	357.0	382.30	407.3	432.0	456.40	480.50	504.20

* Birkmire.

† The table is arranged for the weight of plain shaft. For brackets, flanges, etc., calculate the cubical contents and multiply by 0.26.

Weight of Cast-Iron Plates

Weights, in Pounds, of Cast-Iron Plates One Inch Thick

Calculated at 450 lb per cu ft

Length, inches	Width, inches									
	6 in, lb	8 in, lb	10 in, lb	12 in, lb	14 in, lb	16 in, lb	18 in, lb	20 in, lb	24 in, lb	30 in, lb
4	6.25	8.3	10.4	12.5	14.6	16.6	18.7	20.8	25	31
6	9.37	12.5	15.6	18.7	21.8	25.0	28.1	31.2	38	47
8	12.50	16.6	20.8	25.0	29.1	33.3	37.4	41.6	50	62
10	15.60	20.8	26.0	31.2	36.4	41.6	46.8	52.0	63	78
12	18.70	25.0	31.2	37.5	43.7	49.9	56.2	62.4	75	94
14	21.80	29.2	36.4	43.7	51.0	58.2	65.5	72.8	88	109
16	24.90	33.3	41.6	50.0	58.2	66.6	74.9	83.2	100	125
18	28.10	37.5	46.8	56.2	65.5	74.9	84.2	93.6	113	140
20	31.20	41.6	52.0	62.3	72.8	83.2	93.6	104.0	125	156
22	34.30	45.8	57.2	68.6	80.1	91.5	103.0	114.4	138	172
24	37.50	50.0	62.4	75.0	87.4	99.8	112.3	124.8	150	187
26	40.60	54.0	67.6	81.2	94.6	108.2	121.7	135.2	163	203
28	43.60	58.2	72.8	87.5	101.9	116.5	131.0	145.6	175	218
30	46.80	62.4	78.0	93.7	109.2	124.8	140.4	156.0	188	234
32	49.80	66.6	83.2	100.0	116.5	133.1	150.3	166.4	200	250
36	56.10	75.0	93.6	112.5	131.0	150.0	168.4	187.2	225	281

For larger plates take size of plate ONE-HALF smaller and multiply by 2. Thus a plate 28 by 32 in will weigh twice as much as one 14 by 32 in. For plates more or less than one inch in thickness multiply weight of plate by thickness in inches.

Approximate Weights of Square-Ribbed Cast-Iron Column-Bases

The following table, giving the weight of cast-iron column-bases, will be useful when estimating the steel and iron in tall buildings.*

Size of square base, in	Weight, lb	Size of square base, in	Weight, lb
22×22	600	32×32	1 340
24×24	750	34×34	1 450
26×26	880	36×36	1 600
28×28	1 020	38×38	1 720
30×30	1 180	40×40	1 850

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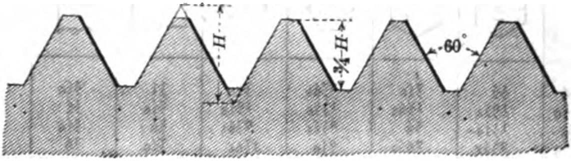
* H. G. Tyrrell, in Architects and Builders Magazine, January, 1903.

Screw-Threads, Nuts, and Bolt-Heads

Standard Screw-Threads

Recommended by Franklin Institute, December 15, 1864, and adopted by Navy Department of the United States; by the R. R. Master Mechanics' and Master Car-Builders' Associations; by Jones & Laughlin Steel Company; and by many other of the prominent engineering and mechanical establishments of the country.



Angle of thread 60°. Flat at top and bottom ⅛ of pitch.

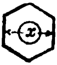
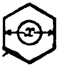
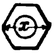
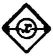
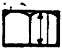
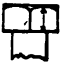
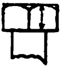
Diam of screw, in	Threads per inch	Diam at root of thread, in	Area at root of thread, sq in	Diam of screw, in	Threads per inch	Diam at root of thread, in	Area at root of thread, sq in
¼	20	0.185	0.027	2	4½	1.712	2.302
5/16	18	0.240	0.045	2¼	4½	1.962	3.023
⅜	16	0.294	0.068	2½	4	2.176	3.719
7/16	14	0.344	0.093	2¾	4	2.426	4.620
½	13	0.400	0.126	3	3½	2.629	5.428
9/16	12	0.454	0.162	3¼	3½	2.879	6.510
⅝	11	0.507	0.202	3½	3¼	3.100	7.548
¾	10	0.620	0.302	3¾	3	3.317	8.641
⅞	9	0.731	0.420	4	3	3.567	9.963
1	8	0.837	0.550	4¼	2⅞	3.798	11.329
1⅛	7	0.940	0.694	4½	2¾	4.028	12.753
1¼	7	1.065	0.893	4¾	2⅝	4.256	14.226
1⅜	6	1.160	1.057	5	2½	4.480	15.763
1½	6	1.284	1.295	5¼	2½	4.730	17.572
1⅝	5½	1.389	1.515	5½	2⅜	4.953	19.267
1¾	5	1.491	1.746	5¾	2⅜	5.203	21.262
1⅞	5	1.616	2.051	6	2¼	5.423	23.098

Nuts and Bolt-Heads are determined by the following rules, which apply to both square and hexagon nuts:

Short diameter of rough nut = 1½ × diam of bolt + ⅛ in.
Short diameter of finished nut = 1½ × diam of bolt + 1/16 in.
Thickness of rough nut = diam of bolt.
Thickness of finished nut = diam of bolt − 1/16 in.
Short diameter of rough head = 1½ × diam of bolt + ⅛ in.
Short diameter of finished head = 1½ × diam of bolt + 1/16 in.
Thickness of rough head = ½ short diam of head.
Thickness of finished head = diam of bolt − 1/16 in.

The long diameter of a hexagon nut may be determined by multiplying the short diameter by 1.155, and the long diameter of a square nut by multiplying the short diameter by 1.414.

Standard Dimensions of Nuts and Bolt-Heads

Diam of bolt	Short diam, rough 	Short diam, finished 	Long diam, rough 	Long diam, rough 	Thick-ness, rough. Nut 	Thick-ness, finished. Both 	Thick-ness, rough. Head 
1/4	1/2	7/16	37/64	7/10	1/4	3/16	1/4
5/16	19/32	17/32	11/16	19/12	5/16	1/4	19/64
3/8	11/16	5/8	51/64	63/64	3/8	5/16	11/32
7/16	25/32	23/32	9/10	1 7/64	7/16	3/8	25/64
1/2	7/8	13/16	1	1 15/64	1/2	7/16	7/16
9/16	31/32	29/32	1 1/8	1 23/64	9/16	1/2	31/64
5/8	1 1/16	1	1 7/32	1 1/2	5/8	9/16	17/32
3/4	1 1/4	1 3/16	1 7/16	1 49/64	3/4	11/16	5/8
7/8	1 7/16	1 3/8	1 21/32	2 1/32	7/8	13/16	23/32
1	1 5/8	1 9/16	1 7/8	2 19/64	1	15/16	13/16
1 1/8	1 13/16	1 3/4	2 3/32	2 9/16	1 1/8	1 1/16	29/32
1 1/4	2	1 15/16	2 5/16	2 53/64	1 1/4	1 3/16	1
1 3/8	2 3/16	2 1/8	2 17/32	3 3/32	1 3/8	1 5/16	1 3/32
1 1/2	2 3/8	2 5/16	2 3/4	3 23/64	1 1/2	1 7/16	1 3/16
1 5/8	2 9/16	2 1/2	2 31/32	3 5/8	1 5/8	1 9/16	1 9/32
1 3/4	2 3/4	2 11/16	3 3/16	3 57/64	1 3/4	1 11/16	1 3/8
1 7/8	2 15/16	2 7/8	3 13/32	4 3/32	1 7/8	1 13/16	1 15/32
2	3 1/8	3 1/16	3 5/8	4 27/64	2	1 15/16	1 9/16
2 1/4	3 1/2	3 7/16	4 1/16	4 61/64	2 1/4	2 3/16	1 3/4
2 1/2	3 7/8	3 13/16	4 1/2	5 31/64	2 1/2	2 7/16	1 15/16
2 3/4	4 1/4	4 3/16	4 29/32	6	2 3/4	2 11/16	2 1/8
3	4 5/8	4 9/16	5 3/8	6 17/32	3	2 13/16	2 5/16
3 1/4	5	4 15/16	5 13/16	7 1/16	3 1/4	3 3/16	2 1/2
3 1/2	5 3/8	5 5/16	6 7/64	7 39/64	3 1/2	3 7/16	2 11/16
3 3/4	5 3/4	5 11/16	6 21/32	8 1/8	3 3/4	3 11/16	2 7/8
4	6 1/8	6 1/16	7 3/32	8 41/64	4	3 13/16	3 1/16
4 1/4	6 1/2	7 7/16	7 9/16	9 3/16	4 1/4	4 3/16	3 1/4
4 1/2	6 7/8	6 13/16	7 31/32	9 3/4	4 1/2	4 7/16	3 7/16
4 3/4	7 1/4	7 3/16	8 13/32	10 1/4	4 3/4	4 11/16	3 5/8
5	7 5/8	7 9/16	8 27/32	10 49/64	5	4 15/16	3 13/16
5 1/4	8	7 15/16	9 9/32	11 23/64	5 1/4	5 3/16	4
5 1/2	8 3/8	8 5/16	9 23/32	11 7/8	5 1/2	5 7/16	4 3/16
5 3/4	8 3/4	8 11/16	10 5/32	12 3/8	5 3/4	5 11/16	4 3/8
6	9 1/8	9 1/16	10 19/32	12 15/16	6	5 15/16	4 9/16

Weights of One Hundred Bolts With Square Heads and Nuts

INCLUDES WEIGHT OF NUT

Hoopes & Townsend's List

Length under head to point in	Diameter of bolts								
	¼ in,	5/16 in,	3/8 in,	7/16 in,	½ in, lb	5/8 in, lb	¾ in, lb	7/8 in, lb	1 in, lb
	lb	lb	lb	lb					
1½	4.00	7.00	10.50	15.20	22.50	39.50	63.00	.....	.....
1¾	4.40	7.50	11.25	16.30	23.82	41.62	66.00	.....	.....
2	4.75	8.00	12.00	17.40	25.15	43.75	69.00	109.00	163
2¼	5.15	8.50	12.75	18.50	26.47	45.88	72.00	113.25	169
2½	5.50	9.00	13.50	19.60	27.80	48.00	75.00	117.50	174
2¾	5.75	9.50	14.25	20.70	29.12	50.12	78.00	121.75	180
3	6.25	10.00	15.00	21.80	30.45	52.25	81.00	126.00	185
3½	7.00	11.00	16.50	24.00	33.10	56.50	87.00	134.25	196
4	7.75	12.00	18.00	26.20	35.75	60.75	93.10	142.50	207
4½	8.50	13.00	19.50	28.40	38.40	65.00	99.05	151.00	218
5	9.25	14.00	21.00	30.60	41.05	69.25	105.20	159.55	229
5½	10.00	15.00	22.50	32.80	43.70	73.50	111.25	168.00	240
6	10.75	16.00	24.00	35.00	46.35	77.75	117.30	176.60	251
6½	.....	.....	25.50	37.20	49.00	82.00	123.35	185.00	262
7	.....	.....	27.00	39.40	51.65	86.25	129.40	193.65	273
7½	.....	.....	28.50	41.60	54.30	90.50	135.00	202.00	284
8	.....	.....	30.00	43.80	59.60	94.75	141.50	210.70	295
9	.....	.....	.....	46.00	64.90	103.25	153.60	227.75	317
10	.....	.....	.....	48.20	70.20	111.75	165.70	224.80	339
11	.....	.....	.....	50.40	75.50	120.25	177.80	261.85	360
12	.....	.....	.....	52.60	80.80	128.75	189.90	278.90	382
13	.....	.....	.....	.....	86.10	137.25	202.00	295.95	404
14	.....	.....	.....	.....	91.40	145.75	214.10	313.00	426
15	.....	.....	.....	.....	96.70	154.25	226.20	330.05	448
16	.....	.....	.....	.....	102.00	162.75	238.30	347.10	470
17	.....	.....	.....	.....	107.30	171.00	250.40	364.15	492
18	.....	.....	.....	.....	112.60	179.50	262.60	381.20	514
19	.....	.....	.....	.....	117.90	188.00	274.70	398.25	536
20	.....	.....	.....	.....	123.20	206.50	286.80	415.30	558
Per inch additional	1.37	2.13	3.07	4.18	5.45	8.52	12.27	16.70	21.82

Weights of Nuts and Bolt-Heads, in Pounds

For calculating the weight of longer bolts

Diameter of bolt, in inches		¼	3/8	½	5/8	¾	7/8
Weight of hexagon nut and head...	....	0.017	0.057	0.128	0.267	0.43	0.73
Weight of square nut and head....	....	0.021	0.069	0.164	0.320	0.55	0.88
Diameter of bolt, in inches	**1**	**1¼**	**1½**	**1¾**	**2**	**2½**	**3**
Weight of hexagon nut and head...	1.10	2.14	3.78	5.6	8.75	17	28.8
Weight of square nut and head....	1.31	2.56	4.42	7.0	10.50	21	36.4

Weights of Rivets and Round-Headed Bolts Without Nuts. Steel

POUNDS PER HUNDRED

Length, in	⅜ in diam	½ in diam	⅝ in diam	¾ in diam	⅞ in diam	1 in diam	1⅛ in diam	1¼ in diam
1¼	5.5	12.8	22.0	29.3	43.9	66.6	93.3	127
1½	6.3	14.2	24.1	32.4	48.2	72.1	100	136
1¾	7.0	15.5	26.3	35.5	52.5	77.7	107	145
2	7.9	16.9	28.5	38.7	56.7	83.3	114	153
2¼	8.7	18.3	30.7	41.8	61.0	88.8	121	162
2½	9.4	19.7	32.8	44.9	65.2	94.4	128	171
2¾	10.2	21.1	35.0	48.0	69.5	100.	136	179
3	11.0	22.5	37.2	51.1	73.7	105.	143	188
3¼	11.7	23.9	39.3	54.3	78.0	111	150	197
3½	12.6	25.3	41.5	57.4	82.3	116	157	205
3¾	13.4	26.7	43.7	60.5	86.5	122	164	214
4	14.1	28.1	45.9	63.6	90.8	128	170	223
4¼	14.9	29.4	48.0	66.7	95.0	134	177	231
4½	15.7	30.8	50.2	69.9	99.3	139	185	240
4¾	16.5	32.2	52.4	73.0	104	145	192	249
5	17.2	33.6	54.5	76.1	108	150	199	258
5¼	18.1	35.0	56.7	79.2	112	156	206	266
5½	18.8	36.4	58.9	82.3	116	161	213	275
5¾	19.6	37.8	61.1	85.5	120	166	220	284
6	20.4	39.2	63.2	88.6	124	172	227	292
6½	21.9	42.0	67.6	95.1	133	184	241	310
7	23.5	44.7	71.9	101	142	195	255	327
7½	25.1	47.5	76.1	108	150	206	269	345
8	26.6	50.3	80.6	114	159	217	284	362
8½	28.2	53.1	85.0	120	167	227	298	379
9	29.8	55.9	89.3	126	176	239	312	397
9½	31.3	58.7	93.7	133	185	250	325	414
10	32.8	61.4	98.0	139	193	261	340	431
10½	34.5	64.2	103	145	202	272	354	449
11	36.0	67.0	107	151	210	284	368	466
11½	37.6	69.8	111	158	218	295	382	484
12	39.2	72.5	115	164	227	306	396	501
Heads......	1.8	5.8	11.1	13.6	22.6	39.0	58.0	83.5

For length of shaft required to form rivet-head, see Table IV, page 420.

NAILS AND SCREWS*

Nails. Based upon the process of manufacture there are three kinds of nails in common use, namely, plate or cut nails, wire nails, and clinch-nails. These are briefly described in the following subdivisions of this article and other data bearing on the subject is included.

(1) **Cut Nails.** Cut nails are made from a strip of rolled iron or steel of the same thickness as the finished nail and a little wider than its length, the fiber of the iron being parallel with the length of the nail. Special machinery cuts the nails out in alternate wedge-shaped slices, the heads are then stamped on them and the finished nails dropped into the casks. Cut nails made from iron are generally preferred for use in exposed positions. Cut nails are made in a variety of shapes to suit special uses. For ordinary use in building, nails of three different shapes are made, and the nails are called COMMON NAILS, FINISH-NAILS and CASING-NAILS. The common nails are used for rough work, finish-nails for finished work, and casing-nails for flooring, matched ceiling and sometimes for pine casings, although the heads are rather too large for finish-work. Cut nails are beginning to return to favor as they have holding power and lasting qualities superior to wire nails.

(2) **Brads.** Brads are thin nails with a small head, used for small finish, panel-moldings, etc. They vary from ¼ to 2 in in length.

(3) **Clout-Nails.** Clout-nails are made with broad, flat heads, and are sold in sizes varying from ⅜ to 2¼ in in length. They are used chiefly for fastening gutters and metal-work. Special nails are also made for lathing, slating, shingling, etc.

(4) **Wire Nails.** These have of late years become as common as the cut nails, and are sold at about the same price. They are said to be stronger for driving than the cut nails, not so liable to bend or break, especially when driven into hard woods, and less liable to split the wood; for these reasons they are generally preferred by carpenters. Wire nails are made from wire, of the same section-diameter as the shank of the nail, by a machine which cuts the wire in even lengths, heads and points them, and, when desired, also barbs them. In general the same classification is used for cut nails. It should be noticed that the gauge of the wire and the shape of the head vary in the different kinds, and that some are barbed, others plain. The various types of wire nails are drawn ROUND, SMOOTH or BARBED, for the domestic trade; for export they are drawn OVAL, SQUARE, or DIAMOND-SHAPED, according to the country to which they are to be shipped and its requirements. It is customary to charge 15 cents more per 100 lb for standard nails, BARBED, than for the same nails, SMOOTH.

(5) **Clinch-Nails.** These are made from open-hearth or Bessemer-steel wire. Any ordinary wire nail will clinch, especially when made with DUCK-BILL or flattened points for clinching purposes, or even otherwise, if annealed. These nails are used only in places where it is desired to turn over the ends of the nails to form a clinch, as in the case of battens or cleats.

(6) **Length and Weight of Nails.** The length of nails is designated by PENNIES (*d's*). This classification originally represented the price in English pence per 100 nails, as 2*d* per 100, etc. In that sense it is of course now obsolete, but it is still retained and is practically uniform with the various manufacturers, both for cut and wire nails. The weights expressed in pennies run from two pennies to sixty pennies, the larger sizes being designated by fractions of an inch.

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* Condensed from article by Thomas Nolan in chapter on Builders' Hardware in revised edition of Building Construction and Superintendence, Part II, Carpenters' Work by F. E. Kidder.

The sizes and lengths of various kinds of nails and tacks are given in tables on pages 1445 to 1448.

(7) **Sizes of Nails for Different Classes of Work.** It is imperative for first-class work that nails of proper size should be used and to insure the best results it is well in certain classes of work to specify the sizes which are to be used. For framing, twentypenny, fortypenny and sixtypenny nails, or spikes, are used, according to the size of the timber. For sheathing and roof-boarding, underfloors and cross-bridging, tenpenny common nails should be used. For overfloors tenpenny floor-nails or casing-nails should be used for jointed boards, and ninepenny or tenpenny for matched flooring, although eightpenny nails are sometimes used. Ceiling when ¾ in thick is generally put up with eightpenny casing-nails, and when thinner stuff is used, with sixpenny nails. For inside finish any size of finish-nails or brads from eightpenny down to twopenny is used, according to the thickness and size of the moldings. For pieces exceeding 1 in in thickness, tenpenny nails should be used. Clapboarding is generally put on with sixpenny finish-nails or casing-nails. Fourpenny nails should be used for shingling and slating, and threepenny for lathing. For slating, galvanized nails should be used, and they are also better for shingling. Whether wire or cut nails should be used may generally be left to the builder; but in places where there is any danger of the nails being drawn out either by the warping of the boards or from the pull of the nail, cut nails should be used, as they have greater holding power than the wire nails under certain conditions. It is generally understood that a wire nail will hold more firmly when barbed than when smooth. (See page 1445.)

(8) **Copper and Brass Nails.** Nails are also made of copper and cast brass, and these are sometimes used in connection with boat-building, refrigerator-work, etc. One wing of the Physical Laboratory Building of Harvard College is put together entirely with brass and copper. As the rooms were intended for use in delicate electrical work, no iron was used in their construction.

(9) **Cement-coated Wire Nails.** The coating consists of various resinous gums mixed by a secret formula, and put on the nails by a baking-process which involves the use of quite complicated machinery. Although the chief market for coated nails is among the users of packages to be shipped, there is a limited market for them among builders, for construction-purposes. The chief merit of the coating is that it gives the nail an adhesive resistance approximately twice that of ordinary wire nails. This quality appeals especially to the manufacturers and users of packages to be shipped, for which strength is particularly wanted. It is desirable for construction-purposes also, but the lack of holding power in plain wire nails is not so apparent in building. About 90% of the output goes to box-factories and large shippers.* Cement-coated nails are quite widely used, also, in laying both ordinary and parquetry-flooring. The use of these nails, with a special head which leaves a small hole, gives a firm floor and prevents springing. Though the makers do not claim that the nails are absolutely rust-proof, they do claim that nails thus treated will resist the effects of moisture from 20 to 50% better than the uncoated wire nails. But it is when in use that the non-rusting quality is most evident. There is more coating on the nails than is actually necessary for holding power. The heat caused by the friction of driving the nail softens the coating and the surplus is forced toward the head, completely closing the opening; this prevents the admission of moisture between the wood and the nail. Under similar conditions, the life of a cement-coated nail will be about twice as long as that of an uncoated one. Less force is needed to drive a coated nail as the softened coating forms a lubricant. These nails are made in

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* Of this amount about 60% is made by the J. C. Pearson Company.

two types, differing only in the heads, and are either COOLERS or SINKERS. The former have large flat heads; the latter, heads slightly reinforced by countersinking. They are made to replace common nails, in sizes from ¼ in to 1 in, and are used for framing, boarding, shingling and staging, and for boxes and crates. Results of tests made with cement-coated nails to determine their adhesive resistance in comparison with the common smooth-wire nails are given below.

The following table shows the result of tests made at the United States Arsenal, Watertown, Mass., in 1902, the wood being pine:

Comparative Adhesive Resistance of Common Smooth-Wire Nails and Cement-Coated Nails

All nails were driven into the same piece and were perpendicular to the grain

Size and name	Diameter, in	Length driven,* in	Adhesive resistance,† lb
Tenpenny, common, smooth........	0.145	2½	167
Tenpenny, coated....................	0.117	2½	418
Ninepenny, common, smooth.......	0.132	2¼	182
Ninepenny, coated..................	0.114	2¼	327
Eightpenny, common, smooth.......	0.132	2	189
Eightpenny, coated..................	0.112	2	316
Sixpenny, common, smooth..........	0.097	1⅝	106
Sixpenny, coated.....................	0.092	1⅝	226

* All of the nails were left with their heads projecting from ¼ to ½ in.

† Average of three trials.

Holding Power of Nails. A committee appointed by the Wheeling nail-manufacturers, a number of years ago, to test the comparative holding power of cut and wire nails, published the following data, although the kind of wood is not named.

Pounds Required to Pull Nails Out

	Cut	Wire		Cut	Wire
Twentypenny........	1 593	703	Sixpenny.............	383	200
Tenpenny............	908	315	Fourpenny...........	286	123
Eightpenny..........	597	227			

The holding power of nails varies with the kind of wood into which they are driven. Austin T. Byrne gives the relative holding power of woods as ABOUT as follows: White pine, 1; yellow pine, 1.5; white oak, 3; chestnut, 1.6; beech, 3.2; sycamore, 2; elm, 2; basswood, 1.2.

Comparative Holding Power of Cut and Wire Nails

Very thorough tests of the comparative holding power of wire nails and cut nails OF EQUAL LENGTHS AND WEIGHTS were made at the U. S. Arsenal in 1892 and 1893. From forty series, comprising forty sizes of nails driven in spruce wood, it was found that the cut nails showed an average superiority of 60.50%, the common nails showing an average superiority of 47.51% and the finishing-nails an average of 72.22%. In eighteen series, comprising six sizes of BOX-NAILS driven into pine wood, in three ways the cut nails showed an average superiority of 99.93%. In no series of tests did the wire nails hold as much as the cut nails.

Quantity of Nails Required for Different Kinds of Work

For 1 000 shingles allow 5 lb fourpenny nails or 3½ lb threepenny
1 000 laths, 7 lb threepenny fine, or for 100 sq yd of lathing, 10 lb threepenny fine
1 000 sq ft of beveled siding, 18 lb sixpenny
1 000 sq ft of sheathing, 20 lb eightpenny or 25 lb tenpenny
1 000 sq ft of flooring, 30 lb eightpenny or 40 lb tenpenny
1 000 sq ft of studding, 15 lb tenpenny and 5 lb twentypenny
1 000 sq ft of 1 by 2½-in furring, 12-in centers, 9 lb eightpenny or 14 lb tenpenny
1 000 sq ft of 1 by 2½-in furring, 16-in centers, 7 lb eightpenny or 10 lb tenpenny

Cut Steel Nails and Spikes

Sizes, lengths, and approximate number per pound
Taken from the Handbook of the Cambria Steel Company

Sizes	Length, inches	Common	Clinch	Finishing	Casing and box	Fencing	Spikes
2d	1	740	400	1 100	....	....	....
3d	1¼	460	260	880	....	....	....
4d	1½	280	180	530	420	....	....
5d	1¾	210	125	350	300	100	....
6d	2	160	100	300	210	80	....
7d	2¼	120	80	210	180	60	....
8d	2½	88	68	168	130	52	....
9d	2¾	73	52	130	107	38	....
10d	3	60	48	104	88	26	....
12d	3¼	46	40	96	70	20	....
16d	3½	33	34	.86	52	18	17
20d	4	23	24	76	38	16	14
25d	4¼	20	....	....	....	....	....
30d	4½	16½	....	....	30	....	11
40d	5	12	....	....	26	....	9
50d	5½	10	....	....	20	....	7½
60d	6	8	....	....	16	....	6
......	6½	....	....	....	....	....	5½
......	7	....	....	....	....	....	5

Sizes	Length, inches	Barrel	Light barrel	Slating	Tobacco	Brads	Shingle
....	⅝	750	....	....			
....	¾	600	....	....			
....	⅞	500	....	....			
2d	1	450	....	340			
....	1⅛	310	400	....			
3d	1¼	280	304	280			
....	1⅜	210	....	....			
4d	1½	190	224	220			
5d	1¾	....	....	180	130	......	......
6d	2	....	....	....	97	120	......
7d	2¼	....	....	....	85	94	......
8d	2½	....	....	....	68	74	90
9d	2¾	....	....	....	58	62	72
10d	3	....	....	....	48	50	60
12d	3¼	....	....	....	....	40	......
16d	3½	....	....	....	....	27	......

Sizes	Length, inches	Flat grip, fine	Edge-grip, fine
......	¾	1 462	......
......	⅞	1 300	......
2d	1	1 100	960
3d	1⅛	800	750
4d	1⅜	650	600

Steel-Wire Nails, Spikes, and Tacks

SIZE, LENGTH, GAUGE AND APPROXIMATE NUMBER TO THE POUND

Compiled from Catalogue of American Steel and Wire Company, 1910
American Steel and Wire Company's gauge. (See page 1426.)

Common nails and brads *				Casing-nails †		Finishing-nails †	
Size	Length, in	Gauge	Number to pound	Gauge	Number to pound	Gauge	Number to pound
2d	1	15	876	15½	1 010	16½	1 351
3d	1¼	14	568	14½	635	15½	807
4d	1½	12½	316	14	473	15	584
5d	1¾	12½	271	14	406	15	500
6d	2	11½	181	12½	236	13	309
7d	2¼	11½	161	12½	210	13	238
8d	2½	10¼	106	11½	145	12½	189
9d	2¾	10¼	96	11½	132	12½	172
10d	3	9	69	10½	94	11½	121
12d	3¼	9	63	10½	87	11½	113
16d	3½	8	49	10	71	11	90
20d	4	6	31	9	52	10	62
30d	4½	5	24	9	46	....	....
40d	5	4	18	8	35	....	....
50d	5½	3	14				
60d	6	2	11				

Spikes ‡

Size	Length, in	Gauge	Number to pound
10d	3	6	41
12d	3¼	6	38
16d	3½	5	30
20d	4	4	23
30d	4½	3	17
40d	5	2	13
50d	5½	1	10
60d	6	1	9
7"	7	5/16"	7
8"	8	⅜"	4
9"	9	⅜"	3½
10"	10	⅜"	3
12"	12	⅜"	2½

Shingle-nails

Size	Length, in	Gauge	Number to pound
3d	1¼	13	429
3½d	1⅜	12½	345
4d	1½	12	274
5d	1¾	12	235
6d	2	12	204
7d	2¼	11	139
8d	2½	11	125
9d	2¾	11	114
10d	3	10	83

Fine nails

Size	Length, in	Gauge	Number to pound
2d	1	16½	1 351
3d	1⅛	15	778
4d	1½	14	473
2d extra fine	1	17	1 560
3d extra fine	1⅛	16	1 015

* Common brads differ from common nails only in the head and point.

† Lengths are the same as common nails for corresponding size.

‡ Spikes are made with chisel-points and diamond points; also with convex heads and flat heads.

Steel-Wire Nails (Continued)

Clinch-nails				Fence-nails *		Slating-nails *	
Size	Length, in	Gauge	Number to pound	Gauge	Number to pound	Gauge	Number to pound
2d	1	14	710	No 5 smallest size		12	411
3d	1¼	13	429			10½	225
4d	1½	12	274			10½	187
5d	1¾	12	235	10	142	10	142
6d	2	11	157	10	124	9	103
7d	2¼	11	139	9	92	Barbed roofing-nails †	
8d	2½	10	99	9	82		
9d	2¾	10	90	8	62	¾"×No 13	714
10d	3	9	69	7	50	⅞"×No 12	469
12d	3¼	9	62	6	40	1"×No 12	411
16d	3½	8	49	5	30	1⅛"×No 12	365
20d	4	7	37	4	23	1¼"×No 11	251

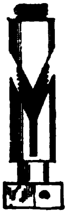
* Length same as clinch-nails of corresponding size.

† Roofing-nails are designated by the length, not by PENNY. These nails are made in lengths up to 2 in.

Wire Tacks

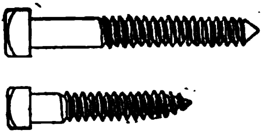
Title, ounce	Length, in	Number per pound	Title, ounce	Length, in	Number per pound	Title, ounce	Length, in	Number per pound
1	⅛	16 000	4	7/16	4 000	14	13/16	1 143
1½	3/16	10 666	6	9/16	2 666	16	⅞	1 000
2	¼	8 000	8	⅝	2 000	18	15/16	888
2½	5/16	6 400	10	11/16	1 600	20	1	800
3	⅜	5 333	12	¾	1 333	22	1 1/16	727
......	......	....	......	......	....	24	1⅛	666

Wire carpet-tacks are made polished, blued, tinned, or coppered; there are also upholsterers' and bill-posters' or railroad tacks.


Expansion-bolt

Expansion-Bolts. These are commonly used for bolting wood or iron to masonry that is already built. A hole is drilled in the masonry of such size that the expansion-nut will fit closely, and when the bolt is screwed up the nut expands and binds firmly in the masonry. The illustration shows the Evans expansion-bolt, which is also furnished with screw-head bolts. There are other forms of expansion-bolts on the market. From experiments on expansion-bolts it was found that the holding capacity was 264 lb per sq in when embedded in 1:2 Portland-cement mortar, 843 per sq in when embedded in sulphur and 485 lb per sq in when embedded in lead. For average working unit-stresses it is safe to use about one-fifth of the values given. When the work is exposed to rain or moisture sulphur should not be used as the acid which results will rust the metal and will also tend to disintegrate the masonwork at the point of entrance of the bolt.

Screws. The substitution of screws for nails in building operations is a marked feature of modern work. Trimming hardware of all descriptions is put on with screws, and a great deal of panel-work, inside finish, etc., is put together with them. Stop-beads, the casings of plumbing-fixtures, etc., should be fastened with screws, as well as all kinds of store and office-fixtures, and cabinet-work in general, except where the joints are glued. Screws are also largely used in making furniture. They present a neater appearance than nails, have greater holding power and are less apt to injure the material if it should be removed and replaced. By making holes for the screws with a bit, all danger of splitting the finish is averted. The ordinary type of screw has a gimlet-point by which it can be turned into the wood without the aid of a bit. The heads are made in various forms to suit different uses. Screws are made ordinarily of steel, but sometimes of brass and bronze. The latter sort are used for screwing in place finished hardware of the same material, and have heads finished to correspond with the trimmings. Steel screws, also, are finished with blue, bronze, lacquered, galvanized, or tinned surface, to match the cheaper class of trimmings. The galvanized finish is used in building operations at the seashore. Screws with blue surface, called BLUED SCREWS, are generally used with japanned hardware and for stop-beads, and wherever a cheap round-headed screw is desired. Silver, nickel, and gold-plated screws are also manufactured for use in connection with similar hardware. Steel screws for wood are made in twenty different lengths, varying from ¼ to 6 in, and each length of screw has from six to eighteen varieties in thickness, there being in all thirty-one different gauges; so that altogether there are in the market about two hundred and fifty different sizes of ordinary screws used for woodwork. The most common shapes are the ordinary flat head, round head and oval head. The oval-head screw is tapered for countersinking but is slightly rounded on top. Patent diamond-point steel screws are made especially for driving with a hammer. These can be driven with a hammer their entire length into any hard wood, and then held by one or two turns as securely as the ordinary screw. In ordering screws both the length and number of the gauge or diameter of the shank, the material and finish, and the use to which they are to be put, should be given.



Lag and Coach-screws

Screws for Metal have the same diameter throughout and the threads are V-shaped.

Sizes of Screws. The sizes of screws are given in length in inches and the number of the gauge, the gauge denoting the diameter. Thus, a 1-in No. 12 screw is 1 in long and 0.2158 in in diameter. The gauge-numbers range from 0 to 30 and the lengths from ¼ to 6 in. The lengths vary by eighths of an inch up to 1 in, by quarters of an inch up to 3 in and by halves of an inch up to 5 in. Screws from ⅝ to 4½ in long are made in about sixteen different gauge-numbers. Table XIII, page 402, gives the diameter to four places in decimals of an inch of the American screw-gauge. It should be noticed that, unlike the ordinary wire-gauges, the 0 of the screw-gauge indicates the diameter of the smallest screw while the diameter of the screw increases with the number of the gauge.

Lag-Screws and Coach-Screws are large, heavy screws used where great strength is required, as in heavy framing, and for fixing ironwork to timber.

Lag-screws with conical point are made with diameters of 5/16, ⅜, 7/16, ½, 9/16, ⅝, ¾, and 1 in, and in lengths from 1½ to 12 in; coach-screws in diameters from 5/16 to ¾ in and in lengths from 1½ to 12 in. For putting in lag-screws a hole should be bored which has a diameter a little greater than the unthreaded shank of the screw and it should be bored to a depth corresponding to the length of the unthreaded shank. A second hole should then be bored at the bottom of the first hole of a diameter somewhat less than that of the threaded shank and to a depth of about half its length.

Holding Power of Lag-Screws

Tests made by A. J. Cox, University of Iowa, 1891, quoted by Kent, page 324

Kind of wood	Size of screw, in	Size of hole bored, in	Length in wood, in	Maximum resistance, lb	Number of tests
Seasoned white oak	⅝	½	4½	8 037	3
Seasoned white oak	9/16	7/16	3	6 480	1
Seasoned white oak	½	⅜	4½	8 780	2
Yellow-pine stick	⅝	½	4	3 800	2
White cedar, unseasoned	⅝	½	4	3 405	2

Hoopes & Townsend give the force required to draw screws out of yellow pine as follows:

Screw	½ in	⅝ in	¾ in	⅞ in	1 in
Wood, depth	3½ in	4 in	4 in	5 in	6 in
Force, pounds	4 960	6 000	7 685	11 500	12 620

Wooden-screws are sold by the gross, lag-screws and coach-screws by the pound.

DATA ON EXCAVATING

Excavating is almost invariably measured by the cubic yard of 27 cu ft. For measuring excavations of irregular depth see page 65. For computing the contents of wells and cesspools, the circular area in square feet may be obtained from the table on page 51, and this circular area multiplied by the depth in feet will give the contents in cubic feet. The cost of excavating and removing earth is ordinarily made up of the following items:

(1) Loosening the earth for the shovelers;
(2) Loading by shovels into carts or barrows;
(3) Hauling or wheeling it away, including emptying and returning;
(4) Spreading it out on the dump;

For every large job, such as railroad-work, it is also necessary to make an allowance for keeping the hauling-road in repair, for sharpening and repair of tools, and for carts, harness, superintendence and water-carriers. Where the dirt excavated can be spread over the ground immediately surrounding the excavation the loosened dirt may be removed by scrapers without shoveling.

Data for Estimating Cost of Loosening Earth. Two men with a plough and team of horses will loosen from 20 to 30 cu yd of strong, heavy soil per hour or from 40 to 60 cu yd of ordinary loam. One man with a pick will loosen 1¼ yd per hour of stiff clay or cemented gravel, 4 yd of common loam, or 6 yd of light sand.

The average quantity of LOOSENED EARTH that a man can shovel into a cart per hour is:

Loam or sand	2.0 cu yd
Clay and heavy soils	1.7 cu yd
Rock	1.0 cu yd

Average earth when loosened swells to from 1⅙ to 1¼ times its original bulk in place.

The capacity of vehicles used for moving excavated materials is about as follows:

Wheelbarrows	3 to 4 cu ft
One-horse dump-carts	18 to 22 cu ft
Two-horse dump-wagons	27 to 45 cu ft*
Drag-scrapers	3 to 7 cu ft
Wheel-scrapers	10 to 17 cu ft
Dump-cars on rails	27 to 80 cu ft

The Economical Length of Haul with drag-scrapers is about 150 ft; with wheeled scrapers, 500 ft; with wheelbarrows, 250 ft; with one-horse dump-carts, 600 ft.† The average speed of horses is given as about 200 ft per minute.

Much valuable data for estimating ‡ the cost of excavating may be found in the Civil Engineer's Handbooks.

Weight of Earth, Sand and Gravel. For general calculations the following average values may be taken:

14 cu ft of chalk weigh 1 ton 18 cu ft of clay weigh 1 ton 21 cu ft of earth weigh 1 ton	19 cu ft of gravel weigh 1 ton 22 cu ft of sand weigh 1 ton

Rock-Excavation. A cubic yard of rock, in place, when broken up by blasting for removal by wheelbarrows or carts, will occupy a space of about 1⅘ cu yd; consequently the cost of hauling or removal is about 50% more than for dirt.

"With labor at $1 per day, the actual cost for loosening hard rock, including tools, drilling, powder, etc., will average about 45 cents per cubic yard, in place, under all ordinary circumstances. In practice it will generally range between 30 and 60 cents, depending on the position of the strata, hardness, toughness, water and other considerations. Soft shales and other allied rocks may frequently be loosened by pick and plough as low as 15 to 20 cents, while on the other hand shallow cuttings of very tough rock with an unfavorable position of strata, especially in the bottoms of excavations, may cost $1 per cu yd, or even considerably more. The quarrying of average hard rock requires about ¼ to ⅓ lb of powder per cu yd, in place, but the nature of the rock, the position of the strata, etc., may increase it to ½ lb or more. Soft rock frequently requires more powder than hard. A good churn-driller will drill 8 to 10 ft in depth of holes about 2½ ft deep and 2 in diameter per day in average hard rock, at from 12 to 18 cents per ft." §

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* The ordinary load for two-horse wagons such as are commonly used for hauling dirt, sand and gravel is from 1¼ to 1½ cu yd.

† Inspectors' Pocket-Book, by A. T. Byrne.

‡ See, also, Handbook of Cost Data, by H. P. Gillette.

§ The Civil Engineer's Pocket-Book, J. C. Trautwine.

DATA ON STONEWORK *

Kinds of Stonework. The commonest kind of stonework, that is, for walls, is called RUBBLEWORK. No work whatever is done on the stones except to break them up with a hammer. If the wall is built in courses it is designated COURSED RUBBLE. When the stones showing on the outside face of the wall are squared, the work is designated ASHLAR. Ashlar is of two kinds: COURSED ASHLAR, in which the stones are laid to form courses around the building, all of the stones in any course being of the same height, and BROKEN ASHLAR, in which stones of different heights are used. HAMMER-DRESSED ASHLAR designates work where the stones are roughly squared with a hammer. This is a very cheap class of work. Good ashlar work should be squared on the bench with chisels, and with beds and end-joints cut square to the face. Stonework which requires a chisel or any other tool except a hammer for dressing is called CUT WORK. Cut work costs considerably more than hammer-dressed work.

Measurement of Stonework. Rough stone from the quarry is usually sold under two classifications: rubble-stone and dimension-stone. Rubble includes the pieces of irregular size most easily obtained from the quarry, and suitable for cutting into ashlar 12 in or less in height and about 2 ft long. Stone ordered to be of a certain size, to SQUARE over 24 in each way and to be of a particular thickness, is called DIMENSION-STONE. The price of the latter varies from two to four times the price of RUBBLE. Rubble is generally sold by the ton or carload. Footings and flagging are usually sold by the square foot; dimension-stone by the cubic foot. In Boston, granite blocks for foundations are usually sold by the ton.

In Estimating on the Cost of Stonework put into a building, the custom varies with different localities, and even among contractors in the same city. Dimension-stone footings, that is, squared stones 2 ft or more in width, are usually measured by the square foot. If built of large rubble or irregular stones the footings are measured in with the wall, allowance being made for the projections of the footings. Rubblework is almost universally measured by the PERCH of 16½ cu ft. The author has been unable to find any locality where the legal perch of 24¾ cu ft is used by stone-masons. In Philadelphia, St. Louis and some sections of Illinois, 22 cu ft are called a perch. Railroad-work is usually measured by the cubic yard. When stonework is let by the perch, the number of cubic feet to the perch should be stated in the contract, and it should be stated, also, whether or not openings are to be deducted. As a rule no deductions are made for openings of less than 70 superficial feet.

Data for Estimating Cost.† The price of common rubble as it comes from the quarry will vary from 55 cts to $1.65 per ton, free on board cars at point of delivery, according to the cost of quarrying, transportation, etc. $1.35 a perch is probably a fair average.

A ton of most of the different kinds of stones will make from 1 perch to 1¼ perches.

The cost of laying one perch of stone may be estimated by the following items:

Labor: mason 2⅜ hrs, helper 1⅞ hrs, based on two helpers to three masons; sand ⅛ load; lime ¾ bu, or if laid in all-cement mortar, one perch will require from ⅓ to ½ bbl of cement.

At average wages, rubble cellar-walls, from 18 in to 2 ft thick, laid in lime mortar, vary in cost from $2.75 to $4.50 per perch, $3.50 a perch being a fair average; in all-cement mortar, from $3.50 to $4.50 per perch.

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* For a description of various kinds of stonework, see Building Construction and Superintendence, Part I, Masons' Work, Chapter VI, by F. E. Kidder.

† For wages different from those named, the average costs may be calculated by proportion.

The cost of ashlar depends very largely upon the kind of stone used and the distance it has to be brought. The price of the rough stock on the cars at the point of delivery may vary from 75 cts to $1.35 per cu ft for granite and from 60 cts to $1.10 for sandstones and limestones, depending largely upon cost of transportation. 1 cu ft of stone should make 2 sq ft of ashlar, at least. Some quarries get out stone especially suitable for ashlar and sell it at about 30 cts per lin ft for courses 12 in high.

The cost of cutting ashlar, with stone-cutters' wages at $4 per day, will average about 15 cts per sq ft for soft stones, from 15 to 20 cts per sq ft for hard sandstones and limestones, and from 25 to 30 cts for granite. The cost of setting ashlar will vary from 10 cts per sq ft to 25 cts for soft stones or 30 cts for granite, 15 cts being an average price for sandstones and limestones.

The cost of cut-stone trimmings depends so largely upon the kind of stone that it is quite impossible to give prices that would be of very much service. The following figures, however, may serve as a general guide in forming a rough estimate, the prices if anything being probably a little above the cost of the local stone in most localities.

Flagstones for Sidewalks, ordinary stock, natural surface, 3 in thick, with joints pitched to line, in lengths, along walk, from 3 to 5 ft, will cost, for a 3-ft walk, about 10 cts per sq ft, or if 2 in thick, 7 cts; for a 4-ft walk, 10 cts; and for a 5-ft walk, 12 cts per sq ft. The cost of laying all sizes will average about 4 cts per sq ft. The above figures do not include the cost of hauling.

Curbing. 4 by 24-in granite will cost at the quarry from 30 to 35 cts per lin ft; digging and setting will cost from 12 to 14 cts additional; and the cost of freight and hauling must also be added.

Cut Bluestone. The following figures show the approximate cost of cut bluestone for various uses:

Flagstone, 5 in, size 8 by 10 ft, edges and top bush-hammered, per square foot face-measure	$0.75
Flagstone, 4 in, size 5 by 5 ft, select stock, edges clean-cut, natural top, per square foot	0.45
Door-sills, 8 by 12 in, clean-cut, per linear foot	1.35
Window-sills, 5 by 12 in, clean-cut, per linear foot	0.80
Window-sills, 4 by 8 in, clean-cut, per linear foot	0.45
Window-sills, 5 by 8 in, clean-cut, per linear foot	0.60
Lintels, 4 by 10 in, clean-cut, per linear foot	0.65
Lintels, 8 by 12 in, clean-cut, per linear foot	1.25
Water-table, 8 by 12 in, clean-cut, per linear foot	1.25
Coping, 4 by 21 in, clean-cut, per linear foot	1.20
Coping, 4 by 21 in, rock-face edges and top, per linear foot	0.50
Coping, 3 by 15 in, rock-face edges and top, per linear foot	0.35
Coping, 3 by 18 in, rock-face edges and top, per linear foot	0.40
Steps, sawed stock, 7 by 14 in, per linear foot	1.10
Platform, 6 in thick, per square foot	0.50

To the prices of cut stone above given must be added the cost of setting, which, for water-tables, steps, etc., will be about 10 cts per linear foot, and for window-sills, etc., about 5 cts per linear foot. For fitting, about 10 cts per cu ft, and for trimming the joints after the pieces are set in place, about 5 cts per cu ft should also be added.

DATA ON BRICKS AND BRICKWORK *

Clay Bricks. The word brick as commonly used refers to a block made from clay, molded into the required shape and burned in a kiln; and, until quite recently, practically all bricks were made from clay. At the present time, however, bricks are also made from sand and lime. Clay bricks may be broadly classified as common bricks, face-bricks, fire-bricks and paving-bricks. As to the process of manufacture, bricks are classified as soft-mud bricks, stiff-mud bricks, dry-pressed bricks and repressed bricks.

Soft-Mud Bricks are made by tempering clay with water until it becomes soft and plastic and then pressing it into molds either by hand or by a machine. Practically all handmade bricks are soft-mud bricks. Soft-mud bricks are often REPRESSED to make face-bricks.

Stiff-Mud Bricks are machine-made. The clay is first ground, and only enough water is added to make a stiff mud. The stiff clay is forced through a die or dies in the machine in a continuous stream, which is cut up automatically into pieces the size either of the end or side of the brick. If the opening is the size of the end of the brick, the bricks are END-CUT BRICKS; if of the size of the side of the brick, they are SIDE-CUT BRICKS. Stiff-mud bricks can readily be distinguished from soft-mud bricks by their appearance. As good if not better bricks can be made by the soft-mud process as by the stiff-mud process, and in the Eastern States the soft-mud bricks are probably the stronger. As far as the author's observation has extended in the Western States, the stiff-mud bricks are as a rule preferable to those made by the soft-mud process. Stiff-mud bricks are usually heavier than soft-mud bricks or hand-made bricks.

Dry-pressed Bricks are made almost entirely for face-work, although in some localities dry-pressed bricks are also used as common bricks. Hydraulic-pressed bricks are dry-pressed.

Molded Bricks are always dry-pressed. Very fine bricks are made by this process.

Burning of Bricks. Bricks made by any of the above processes require to be burned in a kiln. According to their position in the kiln, common bricks are designated ARCH-BRICKS or hard-burned bricks, RED BRICKS or well-burned bricks, and SALMON BRICKS or soft bricks. As a rule, salmon bricks are not fit to use in an exterior or bearing-wall.

Color of Bricks. The color of bricks depends principally upon the presence of iron, lime, or magnesia in the clay. A large proportion of oxide of iron gives a clear bright red. Magnesia produces a brown color, and when in the presence of iron, a light-drab color. Dry-pressed bricks are often colored artificially either by mixing clays of different composition, or by mixing mineral colors with the finely ground clay.

Fire-Bricks are ordinarily made from a mixture of flint clay and plastic clay. They are usually white, or white mixed with brown, in color and are used for the lining of furnaces, fireplaces and tall chimneys.

Paving-Bricks are very hard bricks, usually vitrified or annealed. They are much more expensive than common bricks and are seldom used in buildings.

Size and Weight of Clay Bricks. In this country there is no legal standard for the SIZE OF BRICKS, and the dimensions vary with the maker and also with the locality. Common standard sizes are 8¼ by 4 by 2½ in and 8¼ by 4 by 2¼ in. In the New England States the common brick averages about 7¾ by 3⅜ by 2¼ in. In most of the Western States common bricks measure about 8½ by 4⅛ by 2½ in, and the thicknesses of the walls measure about 9, 13, 18 and 22 in for thicknesses of 1, 1½, 2 and 2½ bricks. The sizes of all common bricks vary considerably in each lot, according to the degree to which they are burned; the hard bricks being from ⅛ to 3/16 in smaller than the salmon bricks. In England the common standard is 8¾ by 4⅜ by 2¾ in. Pressed bricks or face-bricks are more uniform in size, as most of the manufacturers use the same size of mold. The prevailing sizes for pressed bricks are 8⅜ by 4⅛ by 2⅜ and 8⅜ by 4 by 2¼ in. Pressed bricks are also made 1½ in thick and 12 by 4 by 1½ in, those of the latter size being generally termed ROMAN BRICKS or TILES.

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* For a complete description of clay bricks, their process of manufacture, etc., and also of all kinds of brickwork, see Chapter VII, Part I, of Building Construction and Superintendence, by F. E. Kidder.

The WEIGHT OF BRICKS varies considerably with the quality of the clay from which they are made, and also, of course, with their size. Common bricks average about 4½ lb each, and pressed bricks vary from 5 to 5½ lb each. For the STRENGTH OF BRICKS and brickwork, see Chapter V. The FIRE-BRICKS are made in various forms to suit the required work. A straight brick measures 9 by 4½ by 2½ in and weighs about 7 lb. To secure the best results fire-bricks should be laid in the same clay from which they are manufactured, this being mixed with water into a thin paste. The thinner the joint, the better the wall will stand heat. For PAVING-BRICKS the size and weight vary according to the locality and to the requirements of the specifications. The STANDARD bricks are 2½ by 4 by 8 in, requiring 61 bricks to the square yard, on edge, and weigh 7 lb each. REPRESSED bricks are 2½ by 4 by 8½ in, requiring 58 to the square yard and weighing 6½ lb each. METROPOLITAN bricks are 3 by 4 by 9 in, require 45 to the square yard, and weigh 9½ lb each.*

Lime-Mortar Bricks.† **General Description.** The so-called SAND-LIME BRICKS were originally made of lime mortar, molded in brick form and hardened by exposure to the air. Such bricks are said to have been largely used in ancient times, and it is claimed that remains of such materials are now in evidence and in a good state of preservation. It is known that they were formerly used in Europe in localities where other materials were not readily available, and that they have been used in some localities in this country during the past thirty-five years. The writer knows of several houses in Haddonfield, N. J., built of such bricks, generally with the exterior surfaces plastered. One of them, however, said to be about twenty-five years old, has not been plastered, and an inspection (1915) shows the bricks to be in an excellent state of preservation. Lime-mortar bricks harden by the absorption of carbonic-acid gas from the air. This gas enters into combination with the lime, forming carbonate of lime. The hardening process requires several weeks' exposure under cover and the product has not virtues sufficient to commend it where other materials are available.

Sand-Lime Bricks. It was discovered in Germany about 1875 that lime-mortar bricks could be hardened in a few hours under heat and pressure, and it was found later that the chemical reaction under the new process differs essentially from that just described, and that the percentage of lime can be greatly reduced. The fundamental principles of sand-lime-brick manufacture are now common property and only the details of the manufacture are patentable. Sand-lime bricks were first made in Germany about 1880, and the more extended commercial development of the industry dates back in Europe to about 1888, and in this country, to about 1900. There are now (1915) several factories in operation in this country.

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* Building Inspectors' Pocket-book, A. T. Byrne.

† Condensed from article on Sand-Lime Bricks by Professor Thomas Nolan in the revised edition of Building Construction and Superintendence, Part I, Masons' Work, by F. E. Kidder.

Manufacture of Sand-Lime Bricks. Pure silica sand, mixed with from 5 to 10% of high-calcium lime and a certain proportion of water, is molded under very high pressure into the form of bricks. These are piled loosely on cars holding about 1000 bricks each and placed in a steel cylinder large enough to hold from 10 to 20 cars. The cylinder is then closed and steam is turned in and maintained at a pressure of from 120 to 135 lb to the square inch for from 8 to 10 hours, when the cylinder is opened and the bricks removed, ready for use. The tremendous pressure, which is said to be 100 tons on each brick, under which the bricks are formed, causes great density and a bringing of the component elements into close contact. The heat in the cylinder dries the bricks and causes a chemical reaction between the lime and a portion of the silica, forming a hydrosilicate of lime, an insoluble and durable element, which bonds the remaining particles of the sand together and forms a comparatively strong cementing material. The small residue of uncombined lime combines, in the course of time, either with silica or with carbonic-acid gas from the air, until no free lime remains. The bricks thus become harder and stronger with age. In regard to the constitution of sand-lime bricks, Edwin C. Eckel says:* "It may be safely assumed that a sand-lime brick as marketed consists of (1) sand-grains held together by a network of (2) hydrous lime silicate, with probably (if a magnesian lime is used) some allied magnesium silicate, and (3) lime hydrate or a mixture of lime and magnesia hydrates. These three elements will always be present, and the structural value of the brick will depend in large part on the relative percentage in which the sand and the hydrates occur."

Quality of Sand-Lime Bricks. The quality of the product depends mainly upon the selection and treatment of the sand and the lime. Pure silica sands, containing a large percentage of fine grains passing through screens of from 80 to 150 mesh, are preferable. Clay or kaolin are dangerous elements and should not be present in quantities of more than 5%. The lime should be, preferably, high-calcium lime, the magnesium silicates formed by impure limes not being as strong as calcium silicates. Some manufacturers use ready-hydrated lime, others hydrate the lime themselves, before mixing it with the sand, and others grind the quicklime, mix it with the sand and slake it in the sand. The other most important element affecting quality is the press. After pressing and before steaming, the bricks are very fragile and the press should be such that they are subjected to no shaking or friction after the pressure is removed from the mold. Vertical clay-brick presses have been commonly used, but do not appear to be well adapted to the purpose. The rotary table-presses seem to be most successful.

Tests of Sand-Lime Bricks. If the sand is reasonably clean and pure, and the lime finely divided, and if the bricks are sound and have a good metallic ring, they will stand weather-exposure well. If a brick stands in still water for an hour and the moisture rises more than ½ in, it is not a first-class brick; if the moisture rises 2 in, its use for facings is questionable; and if the moisture rises 3 in, it should not be used on outside work of any importance. Authentic tests † have been made for crushing, fire-resistance, frost-resistance, acid-resistance and absorption, from which it may be concluded that under proper conditions of manufacture sand-lime bricks are produced having the following physical characteristics: Crushing strength, average, between 2 500 and 3 000 lb per sq in, although some specimens have shown over 5 000 lb per sq in; modulus of rupture, average, about 450 lb per sq in; fire-resistance, but little inferior to that of fire-brick; frost-resistance, generally good; acid-resistance, superior; absorption, from 7 to 10% in 48 hours; rate of absorption, slower than for clay bricks; average absorption for complete saturation, 14%; reduction of compressive strength by saturation for absorption-test, average 33%.

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* "The Production of Lime and Sand-lime Brick in 1906," in the Government Report, dated 1907 and published in 1908, on The Mineral Resources of the United States for the Calendar Year, 1906.

† See, also, Tests Upon Sand-Lime Bricks, made by Ira H. Woolson, November, 1905, at the Testing Laboratory, Columbia University, New York, for The National Association of Manufacturers of Sand-Lime Products.

Special Properties of Sand-Lime Bricks. The bricks are square, straight, uniform in size and homogeneous in composition and density. They cleave accurately under the stroke of the trowel and present a weather-surface with the good qualities of stone. They can be cut, carved or sand-blasted, are easily washed clean and show no efflorescence. These claims are well established for properly manufactured sand-lime bricks. It should be further stated that common bricks and facings are made in the same press, the only difference being in the selection of the materials and in the handling of the raw bricks. It is therefore claimed that a rational and homogeneous exterior wall-structure is possible, since backings and facings may be built and bonded in even courses, with Flemish or other ornamental bonds. Some factories, however, manufactured, at first, inferior bricks and care should still be taken in selections from their outputs. Frequently the ordinary runs of sand-lime bricks are not as strong as the average clay building bricks and some of them are too low in their resistance to frost.

Colors of Sand-Lime Bricks. The natural color is pearl-gray, varying in warmth with the composition of the sand. Permanent colors are produced by introducing mineral oxides with the raw materials in quantities varying according to the intensity of color desired; but as the oxides are foreign materials in the bricks, they affect the quality of the latter in proportion to the quantity used.

Glazed and Enameled Bricks.* The terms GLAZED BRICK and ENAMELED BRICK, as commonly used, refer practically to the same product, and neither includes what is known as SALT-GLAZED BRICK. The enameled or glazed bricks are generally dipped or sprayed and then burned, whereas the salt-glaze is obtained by the introduction of salt into the fire-boxes of kilns while the bricks are being burned. Glazed or enameled bricks are generally divided into two classes: (1) true enameled bricks, which have a glaze containing the coloring matter applied to it without any intermediate SLIP; (2) bricks which have a transparent glaze placed over a white or colored slip, the slip coming between the glaze and the material to be glazed. The latter is the process most used in this country. Manufacturers differ as to which process produces the best bricks although it would seem as though the true enamel would not chip or peel as readily. These bricks can be made in a variety of colors, from white to dark green or chocolate, and either in a HIGHLY GLAZED FINISH or in a DULL, SATIN-FINISH, the latter finish being quite desirable in many instances on account of its doing away with the glare of the more highly glazed bricks or tiles. An enameled surface may be distinguished from a glazed surface by chipping off a piece of the brick. The glazed brick will show the layer of slip between the glaze and the body of the brick; while the enameled brick will show no line of demarcation between the body of the brick and the enamel. American enameled and glazed bricks are now extensively used for the exterior surfaces of buildings, particularly for street-fronts and light-courts, and for interior side walls and partitions of rooms or buildings used for a great variety of purposes.

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* For a description of the process of manufacture, see pages 320 to 322 in Building Construction and Superintendence, Part I, Masons' Work, by F. E. Kidder.

Sizes of Enameled Bricks. Enameled bricks are made in two regular sizes: (1) English size, 9 by 3-in enameled surface, 4½-in bed, and (2) American size, 8⅝ by 2¼-in enameled surface, 4⅛-in bed. The English-size bricks cost about $10 per 1 000 more than the American, but on account of the saving in the number of bricks, labor of laying and mortar in joints, the former really effect a saving of about 7 cts per sq ft. Enameled bricks are made, also, with a 12 by 4⅛-in enameled surface, 2¼-in bed.

Cost of Enameled Bricks. The selling price of enameled bricks varies from $75 per 1 000 for the American size to $85 for the English size and $100 for the 12 by 4⅛ by 2¼-in size; and at these prices the cost of the bricks per square foot is:

	cts
American size, 7 bricks to the foot	52½
English size, 5⅓ bricks to the foot	45⅓
English flat, 3⅗ bricks to the foot	36
12 by 4⅛ by 2¼-in, 3 bricks to the foot	30

Colors of Enameled Bricks. The standard colors carried in stock are white, cream and buff; other colors are made to order.

Estimating Quantities and Cost of Brickwork

Methods of Calculation. The almost universal method of calculating the cost of brickwork is by estimating the number of thousands of bricks, WALL-MEASURE, and then multiplying by a certain price per thousand, which is usually determined by experience and which is intended to include every item affecting the cost, and very often the profit. All of the common brickwork in any given building is usually figured at the same price per thousand bricks, the adjustment for the more expensive portions of the work being made in the manner of measuring. The principle underlying this system is explained as follows:

"The plain dead wall of brickwork is taken as the standard, and the more difficult, complicated, ornamental, or hazardous kinds of work are measured up to it so as to make the compensation equal. To illustrate, if, in one day, a man can lay 2 000 bricks in a plain dead wall, and can lay only 500 in a pier, arch, or chimney-top in the same time, the cost of labor per thousand in such work is four times as much as in the dead wall, and he is entitled to extra compensation; but instead of varying the price, the custom is to vary the measurement to compensate for the difference in the time, and thus endeavor to secure a uniform price per thousand for all descriptions of ordinary brickwork, instead of a different price for the execution of the various kinds of work." *

Measurements of Brick-Quantities. PLAIN WALLS are quite universally figured at 15 bricks to the square foot of an 8 or 9-in wall, 22½ bricks per square foot of a 12 or 13-in wall, 30 bricks per square foot of a 16 or 17-in wall, and 7½ bricks for each additional 4 or 4½ in in the thickness of the wall. These figures are used without regard to the size of the bricks, the effect of the latter being taken into account in fixing the price per thousand. No deduction is made for OPENINGS of less than 80 sup ft, and when deductions are made for larger openings the width is measured 2 ft less than the actual width. HOLLOW WALLS are also measured as if solid. To the number of bricks thus obtained is added the measurement for piers, chimneys, arches, etc. FOOTINGS are generally measured in with the wall by adding the width of the projection to the height of the wall. Thus if the footings project 6 in on each side of the wall, 1 ft is added to the actual height of the wall. CHIMNEY-BREASTS and PILASTERS are measured by multiplying the girth of each breast or pilaster from the intersections with the wall by the height, and then by the number of bricks corresponding with the thickness of the projection. FLUES in chimneys are always measured solid. Detached CHIMNEYS and CHIMNEY-TOPS are measured as a wall having a length equal to the sum of the side and two ends of the chimney, and a thickness equal to the width of the chimney. Thus a chimney measuring 3 ft by 1 ft 4 in would be measured as a 16 or 17-in wall, 5 ft 8 in long. The rule for INDEPENDENT PIERS is to multiply the height of each pier by the distance around it in feet, and consider the product as the superficial area of a wall whose thickness is equal to the width of the pier. In practice, many masons measure only one side and one end of a pier or chimney. ARCHES of common bricks over openings of less than 80 sup ft are usually disregarded in estimating. If the arch is over an opening larger than 80 sq ft, the height of the wall is measured from the springing-line of the arch. No deduction is made in the wall-measurement for stone sills, caps, or belt-courses, nor for stone ashlar, if the same is set by the brick-mason. If the ashlar is set by the stone-mason, the thickness of the ashlar is deducted from the thickness of the wall. The sum of all of these measurements represents a certain number of THOUSANDS OF BRICKS, and the whole is then multiplied by a common price per thousand, as $6, $8, $12, or $16, according to whatever the cost of plain brickwork may be. If the building is to be faced with PRESSED BRICKS, the actual cost of the pressed bricks, as nearly as it can be computed, is added to the estimated price of the common brickwork, nothing being added for laying the pressed bricks, nor anything deducted from the common-brick measurement, the measurement of the common work displaced by the pressed bricks being assumed to offset the difference in the cost of laying the pressed and common brickwork. In arriving at the COST OF THE PRESSED BRICKS, the external superficial area of the walls faced with such bricks is computed, and all openings, belt-courses, stone caps, etc., are deducted. Five-in stone sills are not usually deducted. If a portion of the wall is covered by a porch, so that common bricks may be used back of it, this space, also, is deducted. The net pressed-brick surface is then multiplied by 6, 6¼, or 7 to obtain the number of bricks required, 6½ giving about the number of pressed bricks of the standard size required to the square foot. The TOPPING OUT of chimneys, if of face-brick, is measured by girting the chimneys, multiplying by the heights, and adding the sums to the wall-area.

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* From Rules of Measurement adopted by the Brick Contractors' Exchange of Denver, Col.

Example. As a simple example of this system of estimating consider a small brick house, 28 by 32 ft in plan, without cross-walls, the basement-walls being 13 in thick, with footings 2 ft 6 in wide; the first-story walls, 13 in thick; the second-story walls, 9 in thick; the height of the basement-walls from the trench to the top of the first-story joists, 8 ft 6 in; the height of the walls from the first-story joists to the top of the second-story joists, 10 ft 6 in; and from the second-story joists to the plate, 9 ft.

WALL-MEASUREMENTS. Basement-walls: 120 ft (girth of building) by 9 ft 10 in (height and projection of footing) by 22½ bricks per square foot; equal to 26 550 bricks.

First-story walls: 120 ft by 10 ft 6 in by 22½ bricks per square foot; equal to 28 360 bricks.

Second-story walls: 120 ft by 9 ft by 15 bricks per square foot; equal to 16 200 bricks.

Topping out two chimneys, each 1 ft 9 in by 1 ft 5 in by 14 ft high above roof:

2 by 14 ft by (1 ft 5 in plus 1 ft 9 in plus 1 ft 5 in) by 30 bricks per square foot; equal to 3 850 bricks.

Total brickwork: 74 960 bricks. At $9 per 1 000, the cost is $674.64.

Pressed Bricks. From the grade to the under side of the plates, the wall measures 22 ft 6 in and it is to be faced with pressed bricks of the standard size, costing $15 per 1 000. The door-openings and window-openings measure 384 sup ft.

The surface of pressed bricks equals 120 by 22½ ft, equal to	2 700 sq ft
The deduction for openings is	384 sq ft
Area, after deduction	2 316 sq ft
Addition for two chimneys, 2 by 14 by 6 ft 4 in, equal to	177 sq ft
Total	2 493 sq ft

2 493 by 6½ equals 16 204 pressed bricks, which, at $15 per 1 000 cost, equals $243.

The total amount of the bid is $674.64 plus $243, or $917.64.

The above figures are supposed to include the necessary lime, sand, water, scaffolding, etc., required to make the mortar and put up the walls, and also a profit for the contractor; but anything in the way of ironwork, such as ties, thimbles, ash-doors, etc., are figured as additions to this amount.

Detailed Estimates of Brickwork. In estimating by the above method, the price per thousand is to some extent a matter of guesswork, and while an experienced contractor may perhaps make as accurate an estimate by this method as is possible by any, yet it is often necessary to estimate the work in detail; and even when the work has been estimated as above, it is necessary for the contractor to know how many bricks and how much sand and lime will be required to do the work. The following data will assist in making such detailed estimates.

With the size of bricks used in the Western States, from 16½ to 17¾ common bricks are required to the cubic foot after deducting openings, and figuring the thickness of walls at 8, 12, 16, 20 in, etc., the actual number of bricks required will run about two-thirds of the WALL-MEASURE when the openings are of about the average number and size.

The number of pressed bricks will be about 6 or 6½ bricks to the foot, after deducting openings.

To lay 1 000 common bricks, kiln-count, requires 2½ bushels or 200 lb of white lime and ⅝ cu yd of sand. For a good lime-and-cement mortar, allow 2 bushels of lime, 1 bbl of cement and ⅝ cu yd of sand. For 1 : 3 cement-and-sand mortar, allow 1½ bbl of cement and ⅝ cu yd of sand, or one-half a load.

To lay 1 000 pressed bricks with buttered joints will require 2 bushels of lime (160 lb) and ¼ cu yd of sand; with spread joints, from 2 to 2½ bushels of lime and from ⅜ to ½ cu yd of sand.

If colored mortar is used, about $1 per 1 000 bricks should be added for the mortar-color.

A brick-mason, working on a city job under a good foreman, will lay, on an average, 60 pressed (face) bricks per hour, and from 150 to 175 common bricks per hour, 160 being a fair average. In country towns the average is nearer 120 per hour.

With wages at 62½ cts per hour for masons, 31¼ cts for hod-carriers, and 34⅜ cts for mortar-mixers and carriers, sand at 60 cts per cu yd, and lime at 40 cts per bushel of 80 lb, brick-masons in Denver state that the average cost of laying common bricks in 12-in walls is about $6 per 1 000, kiln-count, and of laying pressed bricks about $10 per 1 000.

For common brickwork, one helper will be required for every mason, and on 9-in walls, faced with pressed bricks, one helper to every two masons. In building common-brick fireplaces and chimneys one mason and helper will lay about 600 bricks in a day of nine hours.

As a rule, chimneys built of common bricks and with 4-in walls cost about 50 cts per running foot, in height, for single flues, and 90 cts for double flues.

Space Required for Piling Bricks. One thousand bricks closely stacked occupy about 56 cu ft of space. One thousand old bricks, cleaned and loosely stacked, occupy about 72 cu ft.

A brick-layer's hod measures 21 by 7 by 7 in, and will hold 18 bricks.

A mortar-hod measures 24 by 12 by 12, and 12 in across the top.

Mortar-Colors are usually in the form of dry powders, or of pulp or paste. The powders are put up in barrels, the number of pounds to the barrel and price per pound being about as follows:

Red, in 500-lb barrels, dry	from 1¾ to 2 cts per lb
Brown, in 450-lb barrels, dry	from 1¾ to 2½ cts per lb
Buff, in 400-lb barrels, dry	from 1¾ to 2½ cts per lb
Black, in 1 000-lb barrels, dry	from 3 to 3½ cts per lb

For lots of less than full barrels an extra charge is sometimes made for packing and drayage.

In pulp or paste-form:

Red, brown and buff	1¾ cts per lb
Black	3 cts per lb
All other colors	2 cts per lb

Colors in paste-form can be obtained in casks, barrels, half-barrels and kegs, all (except black and buff) weighing, in casks, 900 lb; in barrels, 550 lb; and in half-barrels, 375 lb. The buff weighs, in casks, 700 lb; in barrels, 450 lb; and in half-barrels, 300 lb. Black weighs, in barrels, 450 lb; and in half-barrels, 275 lb. To color the mortar for laying 1 000 bricks with ⅛-in joints requires about 50 lb of red, terra-cotta color, amber, fern-green and salmon; 40 lb for buff, brown, colonial drab or French gray; and 25 lb for black. For wider joints, a larger quantity of stain must be used. For paste-colors an average mixture is, 1 bucket of paste-color to 7 buckets of mortar for brickwork with ⅛-in joints. When the colors are in the form of dry powder they are first mixed with dry sand, the cold slaked lime is then added and again mixed thoroughly. It is very important that the color be uniformly mixed. If it is not added at first, but left until the mortar is made, the labor of mixing is doubled. The more thorough the mixing the less color is required. Mortar colors should never be mixed with hot lime. When the color is in the form of a pulp or paste, it should be thoroughly hoed in, in order to secure a uniform and smooth shade. For very fine pressed bricks, the stained mortar should be strained through a coarse sieve.

Efflorescence on Brickwork. A white EFFLORESCENCE often appears on brickwork, especially in moist climates and damp places. It may spread over large areas of the wall-surface although originating in the mortar joints. Soluble salts, principally of soda, potash and magnesia, in the cement or lime mortar, are dissolved by the water absorbed by the mortar and later precipitated on the surface of the brickwork as a white deposit, when the water evaporates. This deposit seems to be greater with the natural than with the Portland-cement mortars and still heavier with lime mortar. The origin of the efflorensence may be in the bricks themselves as well as in the mortar used. This is the case when the bricks are made from clays containing iron pyrites or burned with sulphurous coal. Moisture in such bricks tends to dissolve the sulphate of magnesia and sulphate of lime, which, in the evaporation of the water, are deposited on the surface as crystals of these salts. Efflorescence may result, also, from water impregnated from the mortar, absorbed by the bricks and then evaporated, leaving the whitish deposits; and it is sometimes caused by adulterations in certain MORTAR-COLORS. As a PREVENTIVE, General Gilmore recommended the addition to every 300 lb of the cement powder, 100 lb of quicklime, and from 8 to 12 lb of any cheap ANIMAL FAT, which is to be thoroughly incorporated with the quicklime before the latter is slaked, preparatory to adding it to the cement. The alkaline salts tend to be SAPONIFIED by the fat. This is not an entirely satisfactory treatment, and as a rule it only partly prevents or removes the objectionable deposits; and this addition to the cement retards its setting and somewhat diminishes its strength. It is claimed by some that boiled LINSEED-OIL, applied to brickwork in two coats, will lessen the absorption of moisture for from one to three years and thus lessen the tendency to efflorescence. It is usually mixed in the proportion of 2 gal of oil to 300 lb of dry cement, either with or without lime; but it is injured by the mortar and, like the fat, retards the setting of the cement mortar and weakens it. In order to diminish the chances of efflorescence on brickwork, the walls should be made as IMPERVIOUS as possible by laying the bricks in a rich well-mixed Portland-cement mortar and filling all joints full and solid. If the building is on damp ground, carefully constructed DAMP-PROOF COURSES of the proper materials should be built into the walls or a course of horizontal joints near the bottom of the walls should be WATERPROOFED. Reasonably hard bricks should be used for facing, projections and exposed top surfaces waterproofed and provided with drips, and the roof, cornice and gutters made water-tight. When efflorescence is due to the penetration of rain-water or moisture into the brickwork and it is required to preserve the texture and color of the work, the surface may be coated with preparations of PARAFFINE or with various patented WATERPROOFING MIXTURES. The preparations containing paraffine are usually applied hot, and the walls, also, are heated by portable heaters previous to the application. They give fairly good results, but are quite expensive, owing to the time and labor required for their application. Brick walls may be rendered impervious to moisture by washes applied by the SYLVESTER PROCESS. These washes consist of an ALUM-SOLUTION made by dissolving 1 lb of alum per gallon of water, and a SOAP-SOLUTION made by dissolving 2½ lb of pure hard soap per gallon of water. The brick walls should be dry and clean and it is recommended that they should not be colder than 50° F. The soap-wash is made boiling hot and then applied to the brickwork. The temperature of the alum-solution is usually from 60° to 70° F. when put on. One wash is applied and allowed to dry for about 24 hours, after which the other wash is put over it. When ALUMINIUM SULPHATE, improperly called ALUM, is substituted for the alum, the cost of the wash is less, only two-thirds as much sulphate as alum is required and the results are better.

LIME *

Nature and Properties of Lime. Chemically, lime is calcium oxide. Used in a broader sense, it is the class-name of a great variety of products manufactured by the calcination of LIMESTONE. Limestone consists of the carbonates of calcium and magnesium which vary widely in their ratio to each other. The limestones used in the manufacture of lime products may be divided into two classes, CALCIUM LIMESTONES and DOLOMITIC LIMESTONES. High-calcium limestones contain only a relatively low percentage of magnesium carbonate, while dolomitic limestones contain a considerable amount of it. Dolomitic limestone usually corresponds roughly to the theoretical formula of dolomite ($CaCO_3$)($MgCO_3$). The CALCINATION of limestone consists of heating to expel the carbon dioxide. The product resulting from calcination of limestone is known as QUICKLIME and possesses great affinity for water. SLAKING is the process of adding water to quicklime. During the process of slaking, heat is energetically evolved and much of the water driven off in the form of steam. During this slaking process, also, high-calcium quicklimes must be agitated and stirred continually or a portion will fail to receive the proper quantity of water and will contain unslaked particles which are likely to slake after being used in the work, causing POPPING, PITTING and disintegration. Dolomitic limes do not slake so energetically, and while they should be stirred while slaking, this is not so necessary as with high-calcium limes. Either class of quicklime, through faulty manufacture, is likely to contain over-burned portions which slake with difficulty and may cause popping, etc., if the lime-paste is not carefully screened before use. The SETTING and HARDENING of common lime mortar is due, first, to the drying out and, secondly, to the absorption of carbon dioxide from the atmosphere and the formation of crystals of calcium carbonate to which the strength of the mortar is ascribed. In the manufacture and use of common lime mortar, therefore, the raw material, limestone, is first calcined, and the carbon dioxide expelled; it is then slaked with water and forms calcium hydroxide, in which the water is gradually replaced by carbon dioxide. The lime thus eventually returns to its original carbonate form. As far as the ultimate result is concerned, there is generally little difference between high-calcium and dolomitic quicklimes. Owing to greater familiarity with one or the other of the classes of lime, architects and builders in certain sections of the country prefer one to the other.

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* Valuable practical data relating to lime and plaster has been furnished by the Charles Warner Company, of Wilmington, Del.

Specifications for Quicklime. The lime industry has in recent years been made the subject of careful study and the following clauses give the essential features of tentative specifications for quicklime suggested by the American Society for Testing Materials as embodying results approved in general by the best practice.

I. Definitions, Classification, etc.

1. DEFINITION. Quicklime is a material the major part of which is calcium oxide or calcium and magnesium oxides, which will slake on the addition of water.

2. GRADES. Quicklime is divided into two grades:

(*a*) Selected. A well-burned lime, picked free from ashes, core, clinker or other foreign material.

(*b*) Run-of-Kiln. A well-burned lime without selection.

3. FORMS. Quicklime is shipped in two forms:

(*a*) Lump Lime. The size in which it comes from the kiln.

(*b*) Pulverized Lime. Lump lime reduced in size to pass a ¼-in screen.

4. BASIS OF PURCHASE. The particular grade, form and class shall be specified in advance of purchase.

II. Chemical Properties and Tests

(A) Sampling

5. LIME IN BULK. When quicklime is shipped in bulk, the sample shall be so taken that it will represent an average of all parts of the shipment from top to bottom, and shall not contain a disproportionate share of the top and bottom

layers, which are most subject to changes. The sample shall comprise at least 10 shovelfuls taken from different parts of the shipment. The total sample taken shall weigh at least 100 lb and shall be crushed to pass a 1-in ring and quartered to provide a 15-lb sample for the laboratory.

6. LIME IN BARRELS. When quicklime is shipped in barrels, at least 3% o the number of barrels shall be sampled. They shall be taken from various parts of the shipment, dumped, mixed and sampled as specified in the preceding section.

7. LABORATORY SAMPLES. All samples to be sent to the laboratory shall be immediately transferred to an air-tight container in which the unused portion shall be stored until the quicklime shall finally be accepted or rejected by the purchaser.

(B) Chemical Properties and Tests *

8. TYPES. Quicklimes are commercially divided according to their chemica composition into four types:

(*a*) High-Calcium. Quicklime containing over 90% of calcium oxide.

(*b*) Calcium. Quicklime containing not under 85% and not over 90% calcium oxide.

(*c*) Magnesium. Quicklime containing between 10 and 25% of magnesiu oxide.

(*d*) Dolomitic. Quicklime containing over 25% of magnesium oxide.

9. CHEMICAL PROPERTIES. (*a*) Selected quicklime shall contain not und 90% of calcium and magnesium oxides and not over 3% of carbon dioxide.

(*b*) Run-of-kiln quicklime shall contain not under 85% of calcium and ma nesium oxides, and not over 5% of carbon dioxide.

III. Physical Properties and Tests

10. PERCENTAGE OF WASTE. An average 5-lb sample shall be put into a b and slaked by an experienced operator with sufficient water to produce maximum quantity of lime putty, care being taken to avoid burning or dro ing the lime. It shall be allowed to stand for 24 hours and then wa through a 20-mesh sieve by a stream of water having a moderate pres No material shall be rubbed through the screens. Not over 3% of the w of the selected quicklime nor over 5% of the weight of the run-of-kiln quick shall be retained on the sieve. The sample of lump lime taken for this shall be broken so that all of it will pass a 1-in screen and be retained on a screen. Pulverized lime shall be tested as received.

IV. Inspection and Rejection

11. INSPECTION. (*a*) All quicklime shall be subject to inspection.

(*b*) The quicklime may be inspected either at the place of manufacture or point of delivery, as arranged at time of purchase.

(*c*) The inspector representing the purchaser shall have free entry, at all ti while work on the contract of the purchaser is being performed, to all par the manufacturer's works which concern the manufacture of the quick ordered. The manufacturer shall afford the inspector all reasonable faci for inspection and sampling, which shall be so conducted as not to interfer necessarily with the operation of the works.

(*d*) The purchaser may make the tests to govern the acceptance or rej of the quicklime in his own laboratory or elsewhere. Such tests, however, be made at the expense of the purchaser.

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* These clauses are being revised (1915) by a committee of the Am. Soc. for Mats., and may be found in the 1915 Year-Book of that society.

12. REJECTION. Unless otherwise specified, any rejection based on failure to pass tests prescribed in accordance with these specifications shall be reported within five days from the taking of samples.

13. REHEARING. Samples which represent rejected quicklime, shall be preserved in air-tight containers for five days from the date of the test-report. In case of dissatisfaction with the results of the tests, the manufacturer may make claim for a rehearing within that time.

Hydrated Lime. The slaking of quicklime is an operation which is almost invariably carried on by laborers who have little or no conception of the importance of their task. As a result, many failures have been charged to lime in the past which actually were due to improper preparation during the slaking operation. The new product known as HYDRATED LIME has been offered widely to the trade in recent years and has met with much success. Hydrated lime is a dry flocculent powder resulting from the slaking of quicklime by mechanical means, with an amount of water which is sufficient to satisfy the calcium oxide, but insufficient to make a paste or putty. Hydrated lime is manufactured in mechanical hydrators in which the batches of quicklime and water used are carefully proportioned by weight. After passing from the hydrator, hydrated lime is subjected to a mechanical system of separation which eliminates the coarse or impure particles which may cause popping, etc. Hydrated lime is sold in bags of definite weight and requires only to be mixed with sand and water to make the mortar. The bags have usually been made of heavy burlap or duck cloth, containing 100 lb, or of paper, containing 40 lb. Several of the more prominent manufacturers of hydrated lime in the United States employ chemists who regularly superintend the manufacture of hydrated lime, just as the chemists in Portland-cement factories superintend the proportioning of the raw mix going to the kilns to be burned for Portland cement. The hydrated lime manufactured under such chemical supervision is a reliable product free from tendencies which might give rise to popping, pitting or disintegration. Hydrated lime of good quality may be used for almost any purpose for which lime mortar is used, and is by some considered a more reliable product than quicklime. Among the newer uses for hydrated lime may be mentioned its employment in cement mortars and concrete. An addition of about 15% of hydrated lime to cement mortar or concrete decreases its premeability to water, reduces the cracking due to shrinkage, etc., and increases the plasticity of the mortar or concrete, thus preventing separation of the sand, stone and cement and causing the mixture to flow and fill the forms more readily.

Specifications for Hydrated Lime. The following clauses give the essential features of tentative specifications for hydrated lime suggested by the American Society for Testing Materials as embodying results approved in general by the best practice.

I. Definition

1. DEFINITION. Hydrated lime is a dry flocculent powder resulting from the hydration of quicklime.

2. BASIS OF PURCHASE. If a particular type of hydrated lime is desired, it shall be specified in advance of purchase.

II. Chemical Properties and Tests *

3. SAMPLING. The sample taken from hydrated lime shall be a fair average of the shipment 3% of the packages shall be sampled. The sample shall be

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* These clauses are being revised (1915) by a committee of the Am. Soc. for Test. Mats., and may be found in the 1915 Year-Book of that society.

taken from the surface to the center of the package. The sample to be sent to the laboratory shall immediately be transferred to an air-tight container, in which the unused portion shall be stored until the hydrated lime has been finally accepted or rejected by the purchaser.

4. CLASSES. Hydrated limes are commercially divided according to their chemical composition into four classes:

(*a*) High-Calcium. Hydrated lime, the non-volatile portion of which contains over 90% of calcium oxide.

(*b*) Calcium. Hydrated lime, the non-volatile portion of which contains not under 85% and not over 90% of calcium oxide.

(*c*) Magnesian. Hydrated lime, the non-volatile portion of which contains between 10 and 25% of magnesium oxide.

(*d*) Dolomitic.* Hydrated lime, the non-volatile portion of which contains not under 25% of magnesium oxide.

5. CHEMICAL PROPERTIES. Hydrated lime shall contain not over 5% of carbon dioxide and sufficient water to fully hydrate the calcium oxide content.

III. Physical Properties and Tests

6. FINENESS. A 100-g. sample of hydrated lime shall leave by weight a residue of not over 5% on a standard 100-mesh sieve and not over 0.5% on a standard 30-mesh sieve.

7. CONSTANCY OF VOLUME. A pat about 3 in in diameter, ½ in thick at the center, tapering to a thin edge, made on a clean glass plate about 4 in square, from a paste composed of equal parts, by weight, of hydrated lime under test and volume-constant Portland cement (gauged with only sufficient water to make the mixture workable), shall, when exposed in any convenient manner (after hardening 24 hours in moist air) to steam above boiling water in a loosely closed vessel for 5 hours, show no signs of popping, checking, cracking, warping, or disintegration.

IV. Packing and Marking

8. PACKING. Hydrated lime may be packed either in cloth or paper bags and the weight is to be plainly marked on each package.

9. MARKING. The name of the manufacturer shall be legibly marked or tagged on each package.

V. Inspection and Rejection

10. INSPECTION. (*a*) All hydrated lime shall be subject to inspection.

(*b*) The hydrated lime may be inspected either at the place of manufacture or the point of delivery, as arranged at the time of purchase.

(*c*) The inspector representing the purchaser shall have free entry, at all times while work on the contract of the purchaser is being performed, to all parts of the manufacturer's works which concern the manufacture of the hydrated lime ordered. The manufacturer shall afford the inspector all reasonable facilities for inspection and sampling, which shall be so conducted as not to interfere unnecessarily with the operation of the works.

(*d*) The purchaser may make the tests to govern the acceptance or rejection of the hydrated lime in his own laboratory or elsewhere. Such tests, however, shall be made at the expense of the purchaser.

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* In the new classification it was recommended (June 1915) that the fourth class be called High-Magnesian instead of Dolomitic. The adoption of any changes in the tentative specifications will be found in the 1915 Year-Book of the Am. Soc. for Test. Mats.

11. Rejection. Unless otherwise specified, any rejection based on failure to pass tests prescribed in these specifications shall be reported within five working days from the taking of samples.

12. Rehearing. Samples which represent rejected hydrated lime shall be preserved in air-tight containers for five days from the date of the test-report. In case of dissatisfaction with the results of the tests, the manufacturer may make claim for a rehearing within that time.

Alca Lime. A recent development in the lime industry is Alca Lime.* This is a material said to combine the plasticity and sand-carrying qualities of lime mortar with the strength, hardness and quicker set of the gypsum plasters. It is composed of approximately 85% of hydrated lime and 15% of a specially prepared material containing alumina and silica in such proportions as to combine, forming bodies which greatly contribute to the strength, hardness and plasticity of the product. It is sold in 100-lb packages and requires only to be mixed with sand and water before use. When used for plastering, it has the characteristics of lime mortar, and while it becomes hard and strong, it is claimed that it is free from the so-called sounding-board effects noticed in some hard-wall plasters. It is not injured by water and is often used for outside stucco-work and also as a brick-laying mortar in place of lime mortar gauged with Portland cement. The manufacturers' directions for the use of Alca Lime should be carefully observed, and this may be said of all prepared plastering or cementing materials.

Useful Data on Quicklime. Quicklime is shipped either in barrels or in bulk. In dry climates it will keep for a long time in bulk, but in damp climates and along the coast it soon slakes unless enclosed in barrels. In most of the Eastern cities it is sold by the barrel, weighing for Rockland Me. lime 220 lb net. When shipped in bulk it is generally sold by the bushel of 80 lb, 2½ bushels or 200 lb of lime being considered as equivalent to a barrel. Other weights are, 230 lb, net, per bbl, 75 lb per bushel and 64 lb per cu ft. The average yield of LIME-PASTE from the best Eastern limes has been found to be 2.62 times the bulk of unslaked lime. A barrel of good quality well-burned lime should make 8 cu ft, or 20 pails, of lime-paste or putty. Careful experiments conducted by United States engineers have demonstrated that the best mortar is obtained by mixing one part of lime paste to two parts of sand.

Cements. For data on cements, see Chapter III.

SAND AND GRAVEL

Sand is obtained from banks or pits, from river-beds and from the seashore. Pit-sand or bank-sand, free from clay or earthy materials, is generally considered the best for mortar, although excellent sand is often obtained from river-beds. Sea-sand contains alkaline salts which attract and retain moisture and which, unless thoroughly washed, cause efflorescence when used in brickwork. Both sea-sand and river-sand have more or less rounded grains, to which lime or cement will not adhere as well as to sharp, angular grains. Both are extensively used, however, for lack of better materials. The use of sand in mortar is to prevent excessive shrinkage and to save the cost of lime or cement. Sand, when used in the proportion of 1 : 2, strengthens lime mortar, but any addition of sand to cement weakens it.

Screening Sand. Sand for mortar must ordinarily be screened. Sand for brown mortar for plastering or common brickwork is ordinarily run through a

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* This is a patented article and is offered for sale by many licenses in the United States under the Spackman patents.

No. 4 screen having 4 by 4 meshes to the inch. For sand finish and mortar for pressed brickwork, either a No. 10 or a No. 12 screen with 10 by 10 or 12 by 12 meshes to the inch is commonly used. For rubble stonework the sand is not ordinarily screened, unless it contains much gravel, in which case it should be screened through a ⅜-in mesh.

Weight of Sand. Dry sand weighs from 80 to 115 lb per cu ft. The average weight of damp (not wet) sand is about 96 lb per cu ft, or about 2 600 lb per cu yd. The voids for ordinary sand range from 0.3 to 0.5 of the volume, the average for screened sand suitable for mortar being 0.35 of the volume. The more uneven the grains in size the smaller the percentage of the voids. A one-horse load of sand contains about 22 cu ft. Two-horse loads vary from 1¼ to 2 yd. The amount hauled per load in the larger cities is generally fixed by the Team Owners' Association. 1¼ yd is a fair load, 1½ yd a good load and 2 yd a large load.

LATHING AND PLASTERING *

Wooden Laths should be well seasoned, free from sap, bark and dead knots. Bark on laths is quite sure to stain the plaster. White pine is generally considered the best wood for laths, although spruce and hemlock laths are much used. Hard pine is not a good material, as it contains too much pitch. The regular size of laths is ¼ in by 1½ in by 4 ft. The width and thickness vary somewhat in different mills. There is a new lath on the market, which is only 32 in long and which costs from $1.75 to $2 less than the 48-in lengths. Laths are sold by the thousand, in bunches containing 100 laths, from $4.50 to $5.50 being about the average prices.

Metal Lathing. (See Chapter XXIII, pages 887 to 893.)

Plastering on laths is generally done in three coats.† The first coat is called the SCRATCH-COAT; the second, the BROWN COAT, and the third, the WHITE COAT, SKIM-COAT, or FINISH. On brickwork or stonework the scratch-coat is generally omitted. For first-class work each coat should be permitted to dry thoroughly before the next coat is applied, and under no circumstances should the finish-coat be applied before the brown coat is thoroughly dry.

Drawn Work is a brown coat applied to a scratch-coat from the same staging, immediately after the scratch-coat is applied. It is a little cheaper than DRY SCRATCH, and much of it is done in the Western States.

The Scratch-Coat should always be made rich in lime, and should contain 1¼ bu of hair, or an equivalent quantity of fiber to each cask of lime, or 1 bu of hair to 2 of lime. A proportion of one part lime-paste to two parts of sand will require 1 cask (2½ bu) of lime to 5½ bbl of screened sand.

The Brown Coat should contain 1 cask (2½ bu) of lime to 7 bbl of screened sand, and 1 bu of hair to 5 of lime. Very little plaster is mixed by measure, however, the usual custom being to mix as much sand with the slaked lime as the mortar-mixer thinks it will stand and give satisfaction, the tendency being always to make the lime go as far as possible.

The Third or Finishing Coat is designated by various terms, such as SKIM COAT, WHITE COAT, PUTTY-COAT, SAND-FINISH, etc. The skim-coat as used in the

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* For a more complete description of materials and processes, see Chapter XII, Building Construction and Superintendence, Part I, Masons' Work, by F. E. Kidder.

† In the Eastern States, dwellings of moderate cost are generally plastered with two-coat work, the first or scratch-coat being brought nearly to the grounds, and carefully straightened to receive the skim-coat.

Eastern States is generally composed of lime-putty and washed beach-sand in equal proportions.

Sand Finish, which has a rough surface resembling coarse sandpaper, is mixed in the same way, only that coarser sand and more of it is used, and it is finished with a wooden or cork-faced float.

White Coating or Hard Finish generally means a composition of lime-putty and plaster of Paris, to which marble-dust is sometimes added. Plaster of Paris and marble-dust when used should not be mixed with the lime-putty until a few moments before using, and no more should be prepared at one time than can be used up at once, as it soon SETS, after which it should not be used. The skim-coat or hard finish should be finished with a steel trowel and wet brush. The more the work is troweled the harder it becomes. A superior hard finish is obtained by mixing 4 parts of Best's Keene's cement to 1 part lime-putty.

Mortar for Plastering. To make sure that the lime is well slaked, it is customary to require that the mortar for plastering shall be mixed at least seven days before it is used.

Hair such as is used by plasterers is obtained from the hides of cattle, and after being washed and dried is put up in paper bags, each bag being supposed to contain 1 bushel of hair when beaten up. Each package is supposed to weigh from 7 to 8 lb but the weight often falls short. ASBESTOS and MANILLA FIBER are both used in place of hair; they are cleaner than hair and are said to be less injured by the lime. It is much better to add the hair to the lime-paste AFTER IT IS COLD and before mixing in the sand, as hot lime, and the steam caused by the slaking, burn or rot the hair so as to greatly weaken it. The common practice is to put the hair in the mortar-box, run off the hot lime as soon as it is slaked, throw in the sand and mix the whole together. It is then thrown out of the box into a pile and a new batch mixed up.

Machine-Made Mortar. In several of the larger cities plants have been equipped for the mixing of mortar by machinery. Machine-mixed mortar should be much better than the ordinary hand-mixed mortar, for the reason that time can be given for the lime to slake, the lime and sand can be accurately measured, and the hair and lime are not mixed with the lime until just before delivery. The mixing may also be more thoroughly and evenly done by machinery than is possible by hand.

Improved Wall-Plasters. Owing to the difficulty of obtaining sufficient space in building operations in central sections of large cities to properly slake sufficient lime mortar to carry on the plastering with the necessary speed, other kinds of plastering materials have come into existence in recent years. These are known as GYPSUM PLASTERS or HARD-WALL PLASTERS. The base of these products is calcium sulphate or gypsum which has been calcined to partially expel the water. The setting and hardening of these products is dependent upon their combining chemically with the gauging water and crystallizing in the same chemical form as the material possessed before calcination. All hard-wall plasters contain material added for the purpose of controlling the SET. The straight calcined gypsum sets in a very few minutes, which time would be entirely too short to permit the workmen to apply the plaster to the wall and straighten it up before it had set. These plasters are characterized, also, by their inability to carry as much sand as lime mortar. Many of them contain other substances, such as clay or hydrated lime, added to improve their PLASTICITY. Hard-wall plasters manufactured in the eastern part of the United States from rock-gypsum invariably contain 15%, more or less, of clay or hydrate, added for this purpose. Plasters made in Kansas, Oklahoma, Texas and other

Western and Southwestern States are made from earth-gypsum. In the case of these materials, clay and hydrated lime are not added, for the reason that the earth-gypsum contains considerable clay matter, which renders further additions unnecessary.

Use of Hard-Wall Plasters. Hard-wall plasters are found to be very convenient in cases where space and time are the most important elements in the building operation. They set more rapidly than lime plasters, thus permitting the white coating and finishing of the job to be completed earlier. While hard-wall plasters become extremely hard, this property is sometimes considered objectionable, as it may give rise to what is called the SOUNDING-BOARD effect.

Keene's Cement Plasters. As distinguished from the ordinary hard-wall plasters, there exists another class of gypsum-products which, however, are somewhat different in the method of preparation and behavior. In the manufacture of these materials, the gypsum is calcined, immersed in a bath of alum or similar chemical and recalcined. The name KEENE'S CEMENT is usually applied to these materials, which are made by several manufacturers in this country. These are slow-setting and ultimately attain great strength and hardness. Keene's cement is generally used with considerable lime-putty or hydrated lime. The use of equal parts of hydrated lime and Keene's cement in making a plastering material is often recommended and found in specifications. (For Alca lime used as a wall-plaster, see page 1467.)

Advantages of Improved Wall-Plasters. Among the advantages gained by the use of these plasters are uniformity in strength and quality, extra hardness and toughness, freedom from pitting, saving in time required in making and drying, minimum danger from frost while being applied and before set, less weight and moisture in the building, and, in some cases, greater resistance to the action of fire.

Measuring Plasterers' Work. Lathing is always figured by the square yard and is generally included with the plastering, although in small country towns the carpenter often puts on the laths. Plastering on plane surfaces, such as walls and ceilings, is always measured by the square yard, whether it is one-coat, two-coat, or three-coat work, or lime or hard plaster. In regard to deductions for openings, custom varies somewhat in different parts of the country and also with different contractors. Some plasterers allow one-half the area of openings for ordinary doors and windows, while others make no allowance for openings of less than 7 sq yd.

Miscellaneous Details. Returns of chimney-breasts, pilasters and all strips less than 12 in in width should be measured as 12 in wide. Closets, soffits of stairs, etc., are generally figured at a higher rate than plain walls or ceilings, as it is not as easy to get at them. For circular or elliptical work, domes or groined ceilings, an additional price is made. If the plastering cannot be done from trestles an additional charge must be made for staging. Whenever plastering is done by measurement the contract should definitely state whether or not openings are to be deducted, and a special price should be made for the stucco-work, based on the full-size details.

Cornices and Moldings. Stucco cornices and molded work are generally measured by the superficial foot, measuring on the profile of the molding. When less than 12 in in girth they are usually rated as 1 ft. For each internal angle 1 lin ft should be added, and for external angles, 2 lin ft. For cornices on circular or elliptical work an additional price should be charged. Enriched moldings are generally figured by the linear foot, the price depending upon the design and size of the mold.

Quantities of Materials for Lathing and Plastering

Miscellaneous Data. To cover 100 sq yd requires from 1 500 to 1 600 laths, or say 1 450 for an average job, and 10 lb of threepenny fine nails.

Three-coat plastering on wooden laths, plaster-of-Paris finish, will require from 10 to 12 bu of lime, 1½ cu yd of sand, 2 bu of hair and 100 lb of plaster of Paris per 100 sq yd.

If the finish-coat is omitted, deduct 2 bu of lime and all of the plaster of Paris.

If sand-finished, omit the plaster of Paris and add ½ cu yd of sand.

To cover 100 sq yd with two coats on brick or stone walls, the brown coat and finishing coats, will require from 8 to 10 bu of lime, 1¼ cu yd of sand, and 100 lb of plaster of Paris, to 100 sq yd.

Using Best's Keene's cement for brown mortar and Keene's finish on expanded-metal lath will require, for brown mortar, 550 lb of cement, 5½ bu of lime, 2 cu yd of sand and 2 bu of hair; for the finish, 300 lb of cement and 1 bu of lime per 100 yd.

Hard plasters on expanded-metal lath, plaster-of-Paris finish, require, for brown mortar, 2 000 lb of plaster and 2 cu yd of sand; for the finish, 1 bu of lime and 100 lb of plaster of Paris per 100 yd.

Cost of Lathing and Plastering. The average price for putting on wooden laths, labor only, is 3¾ cts per yard. For expanded or sheet-metal laths on wooden studding, 5 cts; on steel studding, wired, from 8 to 10 cts.

The cost of putting three coats on laths, plaster-of-Paris finish, labor only, runs about 15 cts per yard for drawn work and 16 cts for dry scratch.

With sand finish the cost is about the same as for white finish.

These figures are based on plasterers' wages at 62½ cts per hour, and 37½ cts per hour for hod-carriers and mortar-mixers.

The following schedule gives the average cost of different kinds of plastering, based on lime at 40 cts per bushel, sand at 75 cts per load of 1¼ cu yd, hair at 40 cts per bushel, plaster of Paris at 50 cts per 100 lb, and wages as given above.

Scratch and brown coat (lime) on wooden laths	25 cts per sq yd.
Three coats (lime) on wooden laths, plaster-of-Paris finish	30 cts per sq yd.
Three coats (lime) on wooden laths, sand finish	30 cts per sq yd.
Brown coat and finish on brick walls	23 cts per sq yd.
For hard-wall plaster instead of lime, add	3 cts per sq yd.
Three coats (lime), plaster-of-Paris finish, metal lath on wooden studding	65 cts per sq yd.
Three coats (lime) plaster-of-Paris finish, metal lath on steel studding	68 cts per sq yd.
For Keene's cement finish, add	10 cts per sq yd.
For blocking in imitation of tile, add	50 cts per sq yd.
Two coats hard-wall plaster, plaster-of-Paris finish, metal lath, wooden studding	70 cts per sq yd.
Two coats hard-wall plaster, plaster-of-Paris finish, metal lath on steel studs	73 cts per sq yd.
For Keene's cement finish, add	10 cts per sq yd.
Portland cement, brown coat, finished with Keene's cement blocked in imitation of tile, 3 by 6 in	$2.80 per sq yd.
For running base, 9 in high, in Best's Keene's cement	10 cts per ft.

For running plain moldings in plaster of Paris, from 3 to 5 cts per inch of girth.

For finishing shafts of columns, from 16 to 24 in in diam., from 12 to 14 ft high, $3 per column (labor only).

These prices are believed to be pretty near an average for the entire country. In some localities prices for materials or labor are less, in others higher.

Staff is a composition of plaster of Paris and hemp-fiber, cast in molds, and nailed or wired in place. All of the buildings of the Columbian Exposition at Chicago (1893) were covered with this material and all of the temporary buildings of the St. Louis Exposition (1904).* It is not sufficiently durable for permanent work unless it is frequently painted. The cost of staff, as used on the buildings at Chicago in 1893, varied from $2 to $2.25 per sq yd.

DATA ON LUMBER AND CARPENTERS' WORK†

Relative Hardness of Woods. Taking shell-bark hickory as the highest standard of our forest-trees, and calling that 100, other trees will compare with it for hardness as follows:

Shell-bark hickory	100	Yellow oak	60
Pignut hickory	96	Hard maple	56
White oak	84	White elm	58
White ash	77	Red cedar	56
Dogwood	75	Wild cherry	55
Scrub-oak	73	Yellow pine	54
White hazel	72	Chestnut	52
Apple-tree	70	Yellow poplar	51
Red oak	69	Butternut	43
White beech	65	White birch	43
Black walnut	65	White pine	30
Black birch	62		

Weight of Rough Lumber per 1 000 Feet

BOARD-MEASURE, APPROXIMATE

For weight of various woods see tables on pages 1415 to 1422

Kind of wood	Green from saw, lb	Shipping-dry, lb	Well-seasoned, lb	Kiln-dried, lb
Ash				
Chestnut	4 600	....	3 500	3 200
Hemlock	4 200	3 000	....	....
Maple, hard	5 400	4 150	3 900	3 400
Maple, soft	5 000	3 650	3 300	3 000
Oak, red	5 500	4 250	4 000	3 400
Oak, white	5 700	4 500	4 100	3 600
Pine, long-leaf	4 500	3 500	....	....
Pine, white	3 500	2 500	2 400	2 200
Poplar	4 000	3 000	2 900	2 400
Spruce	3 150	2 700	2 300	2 200
Sycamore	4 750	3 200	3 000	....
Walnut, black	4 900	4 000	3 800	....

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* A description of the process of manufacture of staff is given in Chapter XII of Building Construction and Superintendence, Part I, Masons' Work, by F. E. Kidder.

† A comprehensive booklet giving the rules for the grading and classification of yellow-pine lumber and dressed stock may be obtained from The Yellow Pine Manufacturers' Association, St. Louis, Mo.

Framing-Lumber may commonly be purchased in any of the following nominal sizes, except that common pine, spruce, and hemlock cannot usually be obtained in larger sizes than 12 by 12 in.

Nominal Sizes of Framing-Lumber

in	in	in	in
2 × 4	3 × 6	4 × 12	8 × 12
2 × 6	3 × 8	4 × 14	8 × 14
2 × 8	3 × 10	6 × 6	10 × 10
2 × 10	3 × 12	6 × 8	10 × 12
2 × 12	3 × 14	6 × 10	10 × 14
2 × 14	3 × 16	6 × 12	10 × 16
2 × 16	4 × 4	6 × 14	12 × 12
2½ × 12	4 × 6	6 × 16	12 × 14
2½ × 14	4 × 8	8 × 8	12 × 16
2½ × 16	4 × 10	8 × 10	14 × 14
....	....	....	14 × 16

In some of the New England mills, the following sizes, also, are sawed: 2 by 3, 2 by 5, 2 by 7, 2 by 9, 3 by 4 and 3 by 5 in. These sizes are not commonly carried in stock, and in most localities would have to be obtained by ripping larger sizes. Most of the long-leaf yellow pine and Douglas fir is SHIPPED SURFACED ONE SIDE AND EDGE, the actual dimensions being from ¼ in to ⅜ in, and sometimes ½ in, scant of the nominal dimensions. When framing-lumber is required to be full to dimensions it should be ordered IN THE ROUGH, and a special contract made on that understanding.

Lengths of Framing-Timbers. All timber is cut and sold in even lengths, as 10, 12, 14 and 16 ft. Odd and fractional lengths are counted as the next higher even length; consequently it is, in certain cases, possible and economical to plan buildings so that timbers of even lengths may be used without waste.

Measurement of Rough Lumber. All rough lumber is sold by the foot, BOARD-MEASURE, one foot being the equivalent of a board 1 ft wide, 1 ft long, and 1 in thick. To compute the board-measure in any board, plank, or timber, divide the nominal sectional area, in inches, by 12, and multiply by the length in feet. Thus the number of FEET in a 2 by 4-in scantling, 8 ft long $= (2 \times 4/12) \times 8 = 5\frac{1}{3}$ ft, board-measure. A 10-in board, 12 ft long, contains $(1 \times 10/12) \times 12 = 10$ ft, board-measure. Extensive tables are published showing the feet, in board-measure, for almost any commercial size of timber. The following table, however, although compact, will enable one to readily estimate the number of FEET in any of the standard sizes of boards, planks, or timbers. To use the table, find the product of the lateral dimensions of the cross-section; then in the column having a heading equal to this product, and in the horizontal line opposite the given length will be found the number of feet in board-measure. Thus, for a 3 by 4, 2 by 6, or 1 by 12-in timber look in the column headed 12; for a 2 by 12, 4 by 6, or 3 by 8-in piece, look in the column headed 24. For lengths not given in the table, take either twice the length and divide by 2, or one-half the length and multiply by 2. Where timbers of the same size abut end to end, it economizes labor in reducing to board-measure to take the full length; for this reason the lengths in the table are carried beyond those for single sticks.

Table of Board-Measure

For explanation, see page 1473

Length in feet	Sectional area in square inches															
	4		6	8		10		12	14		16		18	20	
	ft	in	ft*	ft	in	ft	in	ft*	ft	in	ft	in	ft*	ft	in
6	2	0	3	4	0	5	0	6	7	0	8	0	9	10	0
8	2	8	4	5	4	6	8	8	9	4	10	8	12	13	4
10	3	4	5	6	8	8	4	10	11	8	13	4	15	16	8
12	4	0	6	8	0	10	0	12	14	0	16	0	18	20	0
14	4	8	7	9	4	11	8	14	16	4	18	8	21	23	4
16	5	4	8	10	8	13	4	16	18	8	21	4	24	26	8
18	6	0	9	12	0	15	0	18	21	0	24	0	27	30	0
20	6	8	10	13	4	16	8	20	23	4	26	8	30	33	4
22	7	4	11	14	8	18	4	22	25	8	29	4	33	36	8
24	8	0	12	16	0	20	0	24	28	0	32	0	36	40	0
26	8	8	13	17	4	21	8	26	30	4	34	8	39	43	4
28	9	4	14	18	8	23	4	28	32	8	37	4	42	46	8
30	10	0	15	20	0	25	0	30	35	0	40	0	45	50	0
32	10	8	16	21	4	26	8	32	37	4	42	8	48	53	4
34	11	4	17	22	8	28	4	34	39	8	45	4	51	56	8
36	12	0	18	24	0	30	0	36	42	0	48	0	54	60	0
38	12	8	19	25	4	31	8	38	44	4	50	8	57	63	4
40	13	4	20	26	8	33	4	40	46	8	53	4	60	66	8
42	14	0	21	28	0	35	0	42	49	0	56	0	63	70	0

Length in feet	Sectional area in square inches												
	24	28		30	32		35		36	40		42	48
	ft*	ft	in	ft*	ft	in	ft	in	ft*	ft	in	ft*	ft*
6	12	14	0	15	16	0	17	6	18	20	0	21	24
8	16	18	8	20	21	4	23	4	24	26	8	28	32
10	20	23	4	25	26	8	29	2	30	33	4	35	40
12	24	28	0	30	32	0	35	0	36	40	0	42	48
14	28	32	8	35	37	4	40	10	42	46	8	49	56
16	32	37	4	40	42	8	46	8	48	53	4	56	64
18	36	42	0	45	48	0	52	6	54	60	0	63	72
20	40	46	8	50	53	4	58	4	60	66	8	70	80
22	44	51	4	55	58	8	64	2	66	73	4	77	88
24	48	56	0	60	64	0	70	0	72	80	0	84	96
26	52	60	8	65	69	4	75	10	78	86	8	91	104
28	56	65	4	70	74	8	81	8	84	93	4	98	112
30	60	70	0	75	80	0	87	6	90	100	0	105	120
32	64	74	8	80	85	4	93	4	96	106	8	112	128
34	68	79	4	85	90	8	99	2	102	113	4	119	136
36	72	84	0	90	96	0	105	0	108	120	0	126	144
38	76	88	8	95	101	4	110	10	114	126	8	133	152
40	80	93	4	100	106	8	116	8	120	133	4	140	160
42	84	98	0	105	112	0	122	6	126	140	0	147	168

* The measurements in these columns come out in even feet.

Table of Board-Measure (Continued)

For explanation, see page 1473

Length in feet	Sectional area in square inches													
	56		60	64		72	80		84	96	100		112	
	ft	in	ft *	ft	in	ft *	ft	in	ft *	ft *	ft	in	ft	in
4	18	8	20	21	4	24	26	8	28	32	33	4	37	4
6	28	0	30	32	0	36	40	0	42	48	50	0	56	0
8	37	4	40	42	8	48	53	4	56	64	66	8	74	8
10	46	8	50	53	4	60	66	8	70	80	83	4	93	4
12	56	0	60	64	0	72	80	0	84	96	100	0	112	0
14	65	4	70	74	8	84	93	4	98	112	116	8	130	8
16	74	8	80	85	4	96	106	8	112	128	133	4	149	4
18	84	0	90	96	0	108	120	0	126	144	150	0	168	0
20	93	4	100	106	8	120	133	4	140	160	166	8	186	8
22	102	8	110	117	4	132	146	8	154	176	183	4	205	4
24	112	0	120	128	0	144	160	0	168	192	200	0	224	0
26	121	4	130	138	8	156	173	4	182	208	216	8	242	8
28	130	8	140	149	4	168	186	8	196	224	233	4	261	4
30	140	0	150	160	0	180	200	0	210	240	250	0	280	0
32	149	4	160	170	8	192	213	4	224	256	266	8	298	8
34	158	8	170	181	4	204	226	8	238	272	283	4	317	4
36	168	0	180	192	0	216	240	0	252	288	300	0	336	0
38	177	4	190	202	8	228	253	4	266	304	316	8	354	8
40	186	8	200	213	4	240	266	8	280	320	333	4	373	4
42	196	0	210	224	0	252	280	0	294	336	350	0	392	0
44	205	4	220	234	8	264	293	4	308	352	366	8	410	8
46	214	8	230	245	4	276	306	8	322	368	383	4	429	4
48	224	0	240	256	0	288	320	0	336	384	400	0	448	0
50	233	4	250	266	8	300	333	4	350	400	416	8	466	8
52	242	8	260	277	4	312	346	8	364	416	433	4	485	4
54	252	0	270	288	0	324	360	0	378	432	450	0	504	0
56	261	4	280	298	8	336	373	4	392	448	466	8	522	8
58	270	8	290	309	4	348	386	8	406	464	483	4	541	4
60	280	0	300	320	0	360	400	0	420	480	500	0	560	0
62	289	4	310	330	8	372	413	4	434	496	516	8	578	8
64	298	8	320	341	4	384	426	8	448	512	533	4	597	4
66	308	0	330	352	0	396	440	0	462	528	550	0	616	0
68	317	4	340	362	8	408	453	4	476	544	566	8	634	8
70	326	8	350	373	4	420	466	8	490	560	583	4	653	4
72	336	0	360	384	0	432	480	0	504	576	600	0	672	0
74	345	4	370	394	8	444	493	4	518	592	616	8	690	8
76	354	8	380	405	4	456	506	8	532	608	633	4	709	4
78	364	0	390	416	0	468	520	0	546	624	650	0	728	0
80	373	4	400	426	8	480	533	4	560	640	666	8	746	8
82	382	8	410	437	4	492	546	8	574	656	683	4	765	4
84	392	0	420	448	0	504	560	0	588	672	700	0	784	0

* The measurements in these columns come out in even feet.

Table of Board-Measure (Continued)

For explanation, see page 1473

Length in feet	Size and sectional area in inches											
	120 10×12 ft *	140 10×14 ft	in	144 12×12 ft *	160 10×16 ft	in	168 12×14 ft *	192 12×16 ft *	196 14×14 ft	in	224 14×16 ft	in
4	40	46	8	48	53	4	56	64	65	4	74	8
6	60	70	0	72	80	0	84	96	98	0	112	0
8	80	93	4	96	106	8	112	128	130	8	149	4
10	100	116	8	120	133	4	140	160	163	4	186	8
12	120	140	0	144	160	0	168	192	196	0	224	0
14	140	163	4	168	186	8	196	224	228	8	261	4
16	160	186	8	192	213	4	224	256	261	4	298	8
18	180	210	0	216	240	0	252	288	294	0	336	0
20	200	233	4	240	266	8	280	320	326	8	373	4
22	220	256	8	264	293	4	308	352	359	4	410	8
24	240	280	0	288	320	0	336	384	392	0	448	0
26	260	303	4	312	346	8	364	416	424	8	485	4
28	280	326	8	336	373	4	392	448	457	4	522	8
30	300	350	0	360	400	0	420	480	490	0	560	0
32	320	373	4	384	426	8	448	512	522	8	597	4
34	340	396	8	408	453	4	476	544	555	4	634	8
36	360	420	0	432	480	0	504	576	588	0	672	0
38	380	443	4	456	506	8	532	608	620	8	709	4
40	400	466	8	480	533	4	560	640	653	4	746	8
42	420	490	0	504	560	0	588	672	686	0	784	0
44	440	513	4	528	586	8	616	704	718	8	821	4
46	460	536	8	552	613	4	644	736	751	4	858	8
48	480	560	0	576	640	0	672	768	784	0	896	0
50	500	583	4	600	666	8	700	800	816	8	933	4
52	520	606	8	624	693	4	728	832	849	4	970	8
54	540	630	0	648	720	0	756	864	882	0	1 008	0
56	560	653	4	672	746	8	784	896	914	8	1 045	4
58	580	676	8	696	773	4	812	928	947	4	1 082	8
60	600	700	0	720	800	0	840	960	980	0	1 120	0
62	620	723	4	744	826	8	868	992	1 012	8	1 157	4
64	640	746	8	768	853	4	896	1 024	1 045	4	1 194	8
66	660	770	0	792	880	0	924	1 056	1 078	0	1 232	0
68	680	793	4	816	906	8	952	1 088	1 110	8	1 269	4
70	700	816	8	840	933	4	980	1 120	1 143	4	1 306	8
72	720	840	0	864	960	0	1 008	1 152	1 176	0	1 344	0
74	740	863	4	888	986	8	1 036	1 184	1 208	8	1 381	4
76	760	886	8	912	1 013	4	1 064	1 216	1 241	4	1 418	8
78	780	910	0	936	1 040	0	1 092	1 248	1 274	0	1 456	0
80	800	933	4	960	1 066	8	1 120	1 280	1 306	8	1 493	4
82	820	956	8	984	1 093	4	1 148	1 312	1 339	4	1 530	8
84	840	980	0	1 008	1 120	0	1 176	1 344	1 372	0	1 568	0

* The measurements in these columns come out in even feet.

Measurement of Finishing-Lumber, Flooring, Ceiling, Etc. Most, if not all, lumber for finishing is sawed for use in thicknesses of 1 in, 1¼ in, 1½ in, and 2 in, and some woods, such as white pine and poplar, are sawed into thicknesses of 2½ in and 3 in.

When surfaced both sides, the thickness is reduced to 13/16, 1 1/16, 1 5/16, 1¾, 2¼, and 2 11/16 in.

All dressed stock is measured and sold STRIP-COUNT, that is, full size of rough material necessarily used in its manufacture. Thus 1 1/16-in boards are measured as though 1¼ in thick. The number of feet, board-measure, for 1¼-in stock (1 1/16 finished) is 1¼ times that in a 1-in board, and in the same way for 1½-in and 2½-in stock. 1¾-in planks are always measured 2 in thick, and 2¼-in stock, 2½ in thick. Boards less than 1 in thick are measured the same as 1-in boards, but for ⅜-in and ⅝-in stock a reduced price is generally made.

Matched Ordinary Flooring.* The standard sizes for flooring (other than hardwood, parqueting or parquet-flooring) are 1 by 3, 1 by 4 and 1 by 6; or 1¼ by 3, 1¼ by 4 and 1¼ by 6. The thickness of 1-in flooring should be 13/16 in, and of 1¼-in flooring, 1 3/32 in. 3-in flooring should show 2¼ in on the face, after it is laid; 4-in, 3¼ in; and 6-in, 5¼ in.

Matched Maple Flooring is usually made in 2-in, 2¼-in and 3¼-in face, and in thicknesses of 13/16, 1 1/16 and 1 5/16 in.

Ceiling, matched and beaded boards, is regularly stuck in the same widths as flooring. The standard (nominal) thicknesses of yellow-pine ceiling are ⅜, ½, ⅝ and ¾ in, the actual thickness of each being 1/16 in less. The ⅜-in ceiling is dressed one side only, the other thicknesses both sides.

Yellow Pine Drop-Siding. Dressed and matched yellow pine drop-siding is ¾ by 3½ and ¾ by 5½ in, showing 3¼ and 5¼-in face; and worked shiplap is ¾ by 3½ and ¾ by 5½ in, showing 3 and 5-in face.

Beveled Siding is resawed on a bevel from stock 13/16 by 3½ and 13/16 by 5½ in, after surfacing.

New England Clapboards are 4 ft long, 6 in wide, ½ in thick at the butt, and about ⅛ in thick at the other edge. They are put up in bunches and sold by the thousand.

Rules for Estimating Quantities of Sheathing, Flooring, Etc. For common sheathing laid horizontally on a wall or roof without openings, add one-tenth to the actual superficial area to allow for waste. On the walls of dwellings, figure the walls as though without openings and allow nothing for waste. If sheathing is laid diagonally, add one-sixth to the actual superficial area.

For tight sheathing laid horizontally, add one-fifth for 6-in boards, one-seventh for 8-in boards, and one-ninth for 10-in boards. If laid diagonally add one-fourth for 6-in boards, one-sixth for 8-in boards, and one-eighth for 10-in boards.

For 3-in matched flooring add one-half to the actual superficial area to be covered.

For 4-in flooring add one-third and for 6-in flooring add one-fifth. Ceiling is measured the same as flooring.

For drop-siding, add one-fifth to the superficial area.

For lap-siding, laid 4 in to the weather, add one-half to the actual superficial area; if 4½ in to the weather, add one-third.

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* Everywhere except in New England FLOORING is always understood to be tongued and grooved.

Cost of Labor for Carpenters' Work.[*] There are so many items and conditions which enter into the cost of carpenters' work, and the cost varies so widely with the locality, that it is quite impossible to give figures which are of general practical value, although several books[†] have been published on estimating labor and materials for buildings.

The following figures of the cost, for labor and nails, of framing and putting on sheathing and siding and laying flooring are probably a fair average, with carpenters' wages at $3 a day of eight hours (37½ cts per hour). The cost of framing is almost always figured at a certain price per thousand feet of lumber, board-measure. The cost of laying flooring, sheathing, etc., is almost always figured by the square of 100 sq ft (10 by 10 ft).

Character of work	Cost
For setting up studding and framing walls of wooden dwellings	$10.00 per 1000
For framing and setting floor-joists, 2 by 8 to 2 by 12	$9.00 to $10.00 per 1000
Framing and setting heavy joists and girders, 6 by 12 to 10 by 14	$ 8.50 per 1000
Framing gable roofs and setting in place	10.00 per 1000
Framing hip-roofs and setting in place	$11.00 to $12.00 per 1000
For putting in bridging, after it is cut, per 100 lin ft in the row	$1.25
For covering the sides or roofs of wooden buildings with dressed sheathing, laid horizontally	60 cts per square
The same, if laid diagonally	75 cts per square
The cost of labor and nails for laying 6-in flooring, blind-nailed to every joist, without dressing after laying, is about	$2.00 per square
For 4-in flooring, not dressed, allow	2.25 per square
For 3-in flooring, not dressed, allow	2.50 per square
For 3-in hard-pine flooring, hand-smoothed or traversed	3.75 per square
For 3-in red-oak flooring, hand-smoothed or traversed	6.00 per square
For 3-in white-oak flooring, hand-smoothed or traversed	8.00 per square
For 3-in maple flooring, hand-smoothed or traversed	$10.00 to $12.00 per sq

BUILDING PAPERS, BUILDING FELTS AND QUILTS

Sheathing-Papers,[‡] **Felts, Quilts, Etc.** It is well known that frame buildings when merely sheathed and clapboarded or shingled on the outside and simply lathed and plastered on the inside, are almost sure to be hot in summer and cold in winter; and as the wood almost always shrinks, cracks result through which the wind finds its way. For these reasons some extra provision should be made for keeping out the wind and the heat and cold; and it is generally admitted that there is no material that will do this so well and at so small an expense as good sheathing-papers or sheathing-felts. The papers made for this purpose are commonly known as SHEATHING-PAPERS or BUILDING PAPERS. There is a great variety of sheathing-papers manufactured, many of them of great excellence, and even the best are comparatively inexpensive, costing only about $1.00 per 100 sq ft; so that only the better qualities of any kind of felt or paper should be specified. Where the cost of the sheathing-paper on an ordinary house is only a few dollars, it is poor economy to use a cheap paper, as the labor of applying it is an important item and the poorer the paper the more difficult the work of putting it on. The qualities which good sheathing-paper should possess are permanence, impenetrability to air and water and sufficient strength to permit of applying without tearing. Protection or proof against vermin and insects is another important requirement. It should not be brittle nor have a lasting strong odor and, for the convenience of the builder, should be clean for handling. There are so many papers possessing all or most of these qualities that it is deemed inexpedient to mention particular brands. The architect should decide for himself, from the samples with which he has probably been furnished, what papers are best adapted to the particular conditions; and he should then specify those brands, giving, also, the manufacturers' names, instead of leaving the choice to the builder, who will be quite sure to be guided by price rather than by quality. Many object to tarred or saturated sheathing-papers and felts because of their tendency to become brittle and because they emit a strong odor and are somewhat disagreeable to handle. On the other hand, the advocates of tarred felts emphasize their cheapness, warmth and even their odor, which makes them vermin-proof. The odor gradually disappears after the clapboards, siding or shingles are put on and the inside walls finished. Sheathing-paper is usually applied just previous to putting on the clapboards, siding, or shingles. It is generally placed horizontally and should lap about 2 in over each sheet and over the paper previously placed around the window and door-frames. If sheathing-quilt or similar material is to be placed under the clapboards or siding, laths should be nailed vertically over it, opposite each stud, and the siding or clapboards nailed to the laths; otherwise it will be difficult to put them on evenly, owing to the thickness and elastic quality of the QUILT. Shingles, however, may be applied directly over it. Sheathing-quilt possesses marked fire-resisting properties. The sheathing-paper and the labor of putting it on should be included in the carpenter's specifications.

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[*] The wages of carpenters vary (1914) in the United States from 30 to 56¼ cts per hour, or from $2.40 to $4.50 per day of 8 hours. For rates per day different from those given, the figures showing the costs in the schedule must be changed proportionately.

[†] The best and the most reliable of these that the author and editors have seen, are The New Building Estimator, by William Arthur, Handbook of Cost Data, by H. P. Gillette and the Estimators' Price Book, by I. P. Hicks, to all of which architects and builders are referred for detailed information and valuable data on costs of labor and material.

[‡] The terms BUILDING PAPER and SHEATHING-PAPER are by the public indiscriminately applied to all kinds of papers used in connection with building-construction. In the trade, however, the term BUILDING PAPER is confined to the rosin-sized and cheaper grades of paper, while the heavier and better grades are classed as SHEATHING-PAPERS.

Rosin-Sized Building-Papers. These are the common grades of building paper; they are not water-proof, and should not be used on roofs or on walls in damp climates. In dry places they protect from dust, draughts, and to some extent from heat and cold. They are generally either a dull red or gray in color, have a hard, smooth surface, and are clean to handle. They are always put up in rolls 36 in wide and usually contain 500 sq ft. The weight varies from 18 to 40 lb to the roll of 500 sq ft, and the cost from 50 cts to $1.50 per roll.

Insulating and Deadening-Quilts. Among the insulating and deadening-quilts much in use are those mentioned below. There are also other good materials in this line which are manufactured and used for insulating and deadening purposes.

Sheathing-Quilt.* This consists of a felted matting of eel-grass held in place between two layers of strong Manila paper by quilting. "The long, flat fibers of eel-grass cross each other at every angle and form within each layer of quilt innumerable minute dead-air spaces, that make a soft, elastic cushion. This gives the most perfect conditions for non-conduction." Eel-grass is chosen for the filling because of its long, flat fibers, which especially adapt it for felting; because of its great durability,* and its resistance to fire; and because, owing to the large percentage of iodine which it contains, it is repellent to rats and vermin. This quilt is made in single and double-ply thickness, and is put up in bales of 500 sq ft. It costs, in Boston, $5.25 and $6.25 per bale, respectively. It is also now made with a covering of asbestos, which renders it thoroughly fire-proof. The material is also very efficient for heat-insulation. When used for this purpose there is no objection to nails passing through it.

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* Made by Samuel Cabot (Inc.), Boston, Mass.

Keystone Hair Insulator. Another material used for similar purposes is the Keystone Hair Insulator.† This consists of thoroughly cleansed cattles' hair, between two layers of strong, non-porous building paper, securely stitched together. The hair is chemically treated, so that it is coated with lime, which makes the finished material vermin-proof and odorless.

Mineral-Wool Deadeners, which are fire-proof sound-deadening quilts of rock-fiber wool stitched between two sheets of building paper or of asbestos paper according to the grade desired, are made by the Union Fibre Company of Winona, Minn., and other firms. This company makes, also, what is called Lith and Feltlino, which are sound-deadening materials in board form. They manufacture, also, Linofelt, a building-quilt of flax-fibers (unbleached linen threads), stitched between water-proof paper or asbestos paper according to need. It is ¼ in thick. Linofelt for sheathing in place of ordinary building paper adds from 1 to 1½% to the cost of a house.

Felt-Papers. There are a great many felt-papers for lining floors and a few are made fire-proof by means of chemicals. As a rule these felts are cheaper than Cabot's QUILT, although the saving in an ordinary residence would be but little, and even among the felts themselves there is quite a difference in cost. In choosing a felt-paper for lining, the architect should select one that is soft and elastic enough to form a cushion, and the thicker the felt, provided it has the above qualities, the greater will be its non-conduction. Some felts are made water-proof by an asphalt center, which is an advantage in case of fire or leaks, but some authorities think that it is doubtful if such felts obstruct the passage of sound as well as felts without the asphalt center. The experience of some acoustical experts seems to show that one of the best methods of deadening is by a combination of heavy hair-felt or felt-paper with sheets of galvanized iron. Two layers of felt, each from ½ to 1 in thick, are placed on either side of a single layer of galvanized iron, the latter resting freely between the felt layers. This form of construction is to be preferred where the deadening-material is not attached to the enclosing woodwork. An additional layer of iron and of felt increases the effectiveness of the combination.

Saturated Felts.‡ Common roofing-felts are made by saturating common dry felt with coal-tar pitch. Roofing-felts are commonly made in weights of 12, 15, and 20 lb to the 100 sq ft. Nothing lighter than 12 lb should be used for roofing. They are usually sold by weight and the average price is 1½ cts per pound. Asphalt-felts are commonly made in the same weights.

Dry Saturated Tarred Felts are specially run through a tier of calenders to give a hard, uniform surface and contain a minimum amount of coal-tar.

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* A sample of eel-grass 250 years old and in a perfect state of preservation, may be seen at Mr. Cabot's office.

† Made by H. W. Johns-Manville Company, New York.

‡ The Barrett Manufacturing Company and others make numerous brands of these sheathing and roofing-papers.

They are especially adapted for slaters' use, as they will carry a chalk line and are easy to handle. The rolls are 36 in wide, contain 500 sq ft and weigh about 30 lb.

Asbestos Building Felts are usually made about 6, 10, 14 and 16 lb to the 100 sq ft, although different manufacturers make different weights. They come in rolls 36 in wide and are sold by weight.

Sound-Deadening Felts. These deadening-felts are made by various manufacturers. In one of these felts * the material itself is rather hard and thin, but it is pressed in such a way as to form small indentations or air-cells. This makes it elastic and breaks up the sound-waves. The cost of this material in Boston is about $3.50 per 500 sq ft.

Asbestos Sheathing. Sheathing-papers or building felts, made of asbestos, are used to a considerable extent for floor-linings and for covering the outside walls of wooden buildings, principally on account of their fire-proof and vermin-proof qualities. These papers are well known in the trade and can be procured without difficulty. They are supplied by the manufacturers in 50 or 100-lb rolls, 36 in wide, on a basis of the following scale of weights:

4 lb to the 100 sq ft
6 lb to the 100 sq ft
8 lb to the 100 sq ft
10 lb to the 100 sq ft
12 lb to the 100 sq ft
14 lb to the 100 sq ft
16 lb to the 100 sq ft
18 lb to the 100 sq ft
20 lb to the 100 sq ft
24 lb to the 100 sq ft
32 lb to the 100 sq ft
1/16 in thick
3/32 in thick
1/8 in thick

The sheathing in the 1/16, 3/32 and 1/8-in thicknesses is used only for special purposes where an unusually thick lining is desired for possible fire-protection around exposed flues, for chimney-breasts, etc. When the weight of paper exceeds 32 lb to the square foot it is known as ROLL-BOARD and is no longer classed by weight per 100 sq ft, but by thickness. For floor-linings, 16-lb paper is generally employed, this weight being sufficiently thick and strong to resist ordinary damage in application and in handling. Asbestos felts and building papers appear to have approximately the same effect in retarding the passage of sound-waves as other felt-papers of a relatively similar thickness and quality, while their fire-proof and vermin-proof qualities are a distinct advantage. The cost of asbestos paper and building-felt, while somewhat greater than that of the ordinary papers used for similar purposes, is not excessive. The market price varies from 2 to 2½ cts per lb, depending on the fluctuations of the market. For example, the cost of 100 sq ft of 16-lb asbestos paper varies from 32 to 40 cts, according to the market.

Water-Proof Papers. Neponset † Black Sheathing is water-proof and air-proof, odorless and clean to handle, and is an excellent paper under siding, shingles, slate, or tin. The rolls are 36 in wide, containing 250 and 500 sq ft; and the cost is about $2.25 per roll of 500 sq ft.

Neponset Red Rope Sheathing and Roofing. This is made of rope-stock, has great strength and flexibility, and is absolutely water-proof and air-tight. It is one of the best sheathing-papers and makes a good cheap roofing for sheds, poultry-houses, etc. The rolls are 36 in wide, containing 100, 250 and 500 sq ft and the cost is about $5.00 per 500 sq ft.

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[*] Neponset Florian Sound-Deadening Felt, made by F. W. Bird & Son, East Walpole, Mass.

[†] All prices are approximate and vary with locality and condition of the market.

Parchment Water-Proof Sheathing. There are various parchment-sheathings on the market which are semitransparent, have smooth surfaces, and are odorless, water-proof, air-proof and vermin-proof. They are adapted for general sheathing purposes. In general 1-ply weighs 25 lb to 900 sq ft; 2-ply, 25 lb to 500 sq ft; 3-ply, 25 lb to 275 sq ft. They are 36 in wide.

Cost of Building and Sheathing-Papers in Place.* The following, although necessarily restricted to a few lines, will give a general idea of the cost of different kinds and grades of sheathing-papers, the prices given being fair averages for the materials APPLIED to an outside wall or roof:

	Price per 100 square feet
Common tarred felts (15 lb per square)	30 cts
Red rosin-sized sheathing, best grades	25 cts
Monahan's parchment-sheathing, single-ply	26 cts
Monahan's parchment-sheathing, double-ply	40 cts
Monahan's ship-rigging tar-sheathing, 2-ply	75 cts
"Neponset" black (water-proof) paper	45 cts
"Neponset" red-rope roofing	$1.20
Sheathing-papers with asphalt center	40 to 50 cts
Asbestos building or sheathing-felt, 10 lb per square	22½ cts
Asbestos building or sheathing-felt, 14 lb per square	31½ cts
Cabot's sheathing-quilt, single-ply	$1.05
Cabot's sheathing-quilt, double-ply	$1.25
Barrett's specification-felt	35 cts
Barrett's DEFENDER, felt-sheathing	80 cts
Sackett's water-proof sheathing	30 cts
Empire parchment-sheathing, 1-ply	25 cts
Empire parchment-sheathing, 2-ply	36 cts
Empire parchment-sheathing, 3-ply	50 cts
Barrett's red rope	$1.00
Barrett's black, water-proof sheathing	40 cts

PAINT AND VARNISH †

Pigments and Vehicles. The solid ingredient of a paint is called the PIGMENT, and is a fine powder, nearly all of which will pass through a brass-wire sieve of 100 meshes to the linear inch; in fact, most pigments are much finer than that, and those formed as precipitates by chemical processes are so fine that there is no way to measure them. The liquid part is called the VEHICLE. This is usually linseed-oil, sometimes with the addition of a little turpentine or other volatile solvent. In the enamel paints it is varnish and in kalsomine and other cold-water paints it is a solution of glue, casein, albumen, or some similar cementing material. The cementing material is sometimes called the BINDER.

Ingredients of Oil-Paint. White lead and white zinc are the common white pigments. There are white pigments of variable composition called leaded zinc and zinc lead, furnace-products, composed of zinc oxide and lead sulphate. There is also a basic lead sulphate, commercially called sublimed white lead, which is a similar furnace-product consisting chiefly of sulphate of lead. These composite white pigments are largely used in mixed paints. LITHOPONE is a mixture of sulphide of zinc and sulphate of barium. It is very white, fine and opaque and largely used as the basis of flat wall-finishes for interior work, but is not durable for exterior work. It is discolored (grey) by strong light, but this is not a very serious practical objection. White lead is used everywhere, but tends to yellow somewhat in the dark. White zinc is chiefly used on interior work, being the whitest paint known. Both are often mixed and both are used in mixed paints. Yellow paint is commonly chromate of lead, or chrome yellow; green is chrome green, which is a mixture of chrome yellow and Prussian blue; blue is ultramarine, or sometimes Prussian blue. The brilliant reds are coal-tar colors as a rule; the dull reds and browns are oxides of iron. Ochres are dull yellow. Carbon forms the base of all black paints, either as lampblack, dropblack (boneblack), or graphite. Linseed-oil is either raw or boiled. Raw oil is the oil in its natural state as it is extracted from the seed; it should be settled and filtered perfectly clear; it is yellow or greenish yellow in color. Boiled oil is raw oil which has been heated to 400° or 500° F. with compounds (usually oxides) of lead and manganese; it is darker in color than raw oil, and dries quicker. Raw oil exposed in a thin film to the air is converted in about five days into a tough leathery substance; boiled oil undergoes this change in from 10 to 24 hours.

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* All prices are approximate and vary with locality and condition of the market.

† The editor is indebted to Professor Alvah H. Sabin for valuable assistance in the revision of the data relating to this subject.

Driers. These are compounds of lead and manganese, dissolved in oil, and this solution thinned with turpentine or benzine. They act as carriers of oxygen between the air and the oil, and their addition to a paint makes it dry more rapidly. Some driers are also called JAPANS. Not more than 10% by volume of any of these liquid driers should be added to oil. Excess of drier causes the paint to lack durability. Cheap driers often contain rosin. It is well to specify that driers and japans should be free from ROSIN (not resin, as varnish-resins are present in some of the best driers).

Priming Coat. This is the first coat applied to the clean surface. A priming coat for wood is chiefly oil, and is usually equivalent to a gallon of ordinary paint thinned with a gallon of raw linseed-oil. Paint, however, is not thinned to make a priming coat for structural metal. In all wood-work, nail-holes and other defects are filled with putty after the priming coat has been applied; but if the wood is resinous, knots and resinous places must be covered with shellac varnish before the priming coat is put on. Pitchy woods, such as southern yellow pine and cypress, do not readily absorb oil, and turpentine should be substituted for part of the oil. Red lead is successfully used as a primer (2 parts to 1 of white lead) on such woods; this is the standard practice in England, and is better than the use of all white lead.

Outside Painting. The priming coat having largely been absorbed by the wood, a second and third coat of paint are to be applied. The most common paint used on houses is white lead. This is commonly sold as paste white lead, containing 8% of oil; 100 lb of this is equal to 2.8 gal in volume, and is commonly mixed with 3½ gal of raw linseed-oil, 1 qt of turpentine and 1 pt of drier to make 6¾ gal of paint for the second coat; or with 4 gal of oil, 1 pt of turpentine and 1 pt of drier for the finishing coat. If white zinc is used, 9½ lb of dry zinc oxide and 5.7 gal of oil make 1 gal of paint; to this, turpentine and drier should also be added. White lead, after about a year, begins to CHALK, that is, its surface becomes dry and chalky; this does not indicate failure, however, and it makes a good surface for repainting. Finely reticulated checking, not extending through the film, occurs later, and when sufficiently marked indicates need of repainting. In any paint, when cracks begin to extend through to the wood, repainting is called for; these cracks occur sooner on pitchy woods. White zinc, if used alone on outside (not inside) work, is very hard and tends to peel off. MIXED PAINTS (prepared proprietary paints) generally contain zinc mixed with either white lead or some of the pigments based on basic lead sulphate, and some auxiliary pigments, such as barytes, China clay, etc., ground in oil and turpentine and containing the necessary drier. The best of these are excellent, but some are very poor; the safest way to use them is to specify them by name, and use them according to the maker's directions. COLORED PAINTS are commonly made by adding colored pigments to lead or zinc; but some dark paints contain only iron oxides, ochers, etc., as pigments; these weigh from 12 to 14 lb per gal. Painting should always be done in dry weather and no painting should be done until the inside plastering is dry. Paint should not be applied to lumber that is not dry. A week or more should be allowed between successive coats. In painting the outside of a house, the trim should be painted first; then the body-color can be laid neatly against it. The final brushing should be in the direction of the grain of the wood. It is good practice to have the successive coats (except for white paint) vary a little in color, to facilitate inspection. White, light blue and light green are less durable colors than yellow, gray, or dark colors in general, owing to the fact that the chemical rays of light penetrate the former more easily. A gallon of paint will cover from 400 to 600 sq ft of surface, depending upon the character of the surface. ROOF-PAINTS should contain a larger proportion of oil, and a smaller amount of drier or none at all. Three coats are desirable. Tin roofs and galvanized-iron work should be thoroughly scrubbed and then dried before painting. The shingles on the walls and roofs of a house are sometimes stained with creosote stain, which consists of a pigment suspended in creosote or some similar liquid. The creosote has some preservative effect.

Inside Painting. Door-frames and window-frames should receive a priming coat of paint in the shop; if they are to be finished in varnish this paint will be applied to the back only. As has already been said, before any painting is done any resinous knots should be varnished with shellac. All interior surfaces which are to be painted should be puttied after the priming coat and the putty should be applied with a wooden spatula, not a steel one, to avoid marring the surface. The paint for the second coat should contain as much turpentine as oil, that is, its vehicle should be half oil and half turpentine. The effect of this is to make the paint dry with a dull instead of a glossy surface, FLAT SURFACE being the painter's term. To this the next coat will adhere well. If the next is the final coat, it may be an ordinary oil-paint. When thoroughly dry the gloss may be removed by lightly rubbing it with pumice and water. ENAMEL PAINT consists of pigment with varnish as a vehicle. It is harder and makes a finer finish than oil-paint. It is also more expensive. It is usual to apply it over oil-paint, in which case the last coat of oil-paint should be lightly sandpapered when quite hard and dry. A coat of enamel paint is then put on, and when it is dry it should be sandpapered or rubbed with curled hair. The final coat of enamel is then laid on and it may be rubbed in a like manner if a flat surface is desired, or it may be left with the gloss. It is also common practice for painters to make a final enamel finish by adding varnish to white lead or white zinc, very little oil being used in this case. The best varnish for this purpose is a spar-varnish from a thoroughly reliable maker. The quicker-drying varnishes will crack and ALLIGATOR.

Varnish. There are two principal kinds of varnish, (1) spirit varnishes, of which shellac varnish is the most important, and which consists essentially of a resin dissolved in a volatile solvent, and (2) oleoresinous varnishes, in which the resinous ingredient is combined with linseed-oil, and this compound is dissolved in turpentine or benzine. The oleoresinous varnishes are commercially the more important, and are largely used in interior finishing. A gallon of varnish covers 500 sq ft, one coat. Surfaces to be varnished are treated in the following manner. If the wood is open-grained, as oak, chestnut, or ash, it first receives a coat of paste-filler. Liquid fillers are not desirable, as they form a poor base for subsequent work. A paste-filler is really a sort of paint, the pigment being silex, or ground quartz, and the vehicle is a quick-drying varnish made thin with turpentine or benzine. This is rubbed strongly in on the grain of the wood with a short stiff brush, and as soon as it has set, usually within half an hour, it is rubbed off with a harsh cloth or a handful of excelsior, the rubbing being hard across the grain of the wood. If it is desired to stain the wood, the oil-stain may be mixed with the filler; but if a close-grained wood is used, which needs no filler, the oil-stain may be thinned to the desired color with turpentine or benzine and applied as a wash. In cleaning the filler out of moldings, corners, etc., a suitably shaped stick, but not a steel implement, may be used. If any puttying is necessary it is done next. After two days the first coat of varnish is applied; after five days it should be rubbed with curled hair or fine sandpaper to remove the gloss, so that the next coat will adhere well; then one, two or three more coats of varnish are added, five days or more apart, each coat being rubbed. The last coat may be rubbed or left with the natural gloss. Outside doors, window-sills, jambs, inside blinds, and all surfaces exposed to the direct rays of the sun, should be varnished with spar-varnish and left glossy. If shellac varnish is used as the interior finish it is applied in the same way, but at least six coats should be applied. Floors which are to be varnished should be treated as has been described; but if they are to be waxed they should receive one or two coats of shellac varnish, then five or six coats of wax, at intervals of a week, each coat being well polished with a weighted floor-brush made for the purpose. Floor-wax is not beeswax, but is a compound wax made for the purpose. Shellac is a good floor-varnish; it discolors the wood less than any other varnish, and dries rapidly.

Painting Plastered Walls. Plastered walls which must be painted are usually washed with a solution of soap and then with a solution of alum. When this is dry it is sponged off, then allowed to dry, then oiled, then painted. If the paint is applied to the fresh plaster the lime in the plaster will attack the paint.

Repainting. The exterior woodwork of a house needs repainting once in five to ten years, according to climate and other conditions, although if not done with proper material or sufficient care it will not last as long as this; the interior should, with good care, stand from fifteen to twenty years, and then may not require complete renewal. Exterior paint sometimes loses its luster, while the body of the paint is still good, and in cases of this kind it is sufficient to wash the surface and then give it a coat of oil. This replaces the oil which has superficially perished, imparts a gloss and brings out the color. If the paint is worn off so as to show the wood in places, or is peeling, it must be very carefully examined. In extreme cases it is necessary to BURN OFF the old paint; this is done with a painter's torch, a lamp which burns alcohol, naphtha, or kerosene, and which furnishes a flaring blast of flame, which is directed against the painted surface just long enough to soften the paint which is at once removed with a scraper while still hot. The paint is not actually burned, but only softened by the flame; it may, however, be removed as well as softened by this method. Houses covered with pitchy wood, like southern pine, sometimes require this treatment, and the next painting is found to be more lasting. In many cases it is sufficient to thoroughly scrub the surface with a stiff steel-wire brush. Interior surfaces may be cleaned (if the removal of the old paint and varnish is necessary) with varnish-remover; this is a mixture of solvent liquids, which penetrate the old paint or varnish and soften it, when it may be removed with scrapers or brushes. There is less danger of fire with this method than with the burning-off method, but it is slower and costs more. It must not be forgotten that varnish-remover is volatile and highly inflammable and must not be used in a room where there is a fire. It is especially suitable for cleaning out moldings and all irregular surfaces from which the varnish may then be removed with stiff brushes, if it is not convenient to use scrapers. It is especially desirable to have floors occasionally cleaned in this way; but if a house has been varnished originally with a first-class varnish it may be necessary only to wash it thoroughly and then apply another coat of varnish. Smoke and dirt may often be thoroughly removed from ceilings with the crumbs of fresh bread, where washing would not be desirable. A 10% solution of carbonate of soda (sal soda) in hot water may be used to remove old floor-wax.

The Painting of Structural Steel. Steel being usually more perishable than wood, as well as more expensive, and used for service where its strength is essential to the stability of the structure, its protection from corrosion by painting is of much importance. It must first of all be recognized that the precaution always taken in painting wood, to secure a clean surface for the paint, must not be omitted with steel. Mud and dirt must first be removed from the steel; then it must be examined for rust, and any rust-spots must be thoroughly cleaned. Loose scale may be removed with wire brushes, but thick and closely adherent rust must be removed with steel scrapers, or with hammer and chisel if necessary. No doubt the best way to clean steel is to use the sand-blast, but it is not available for much architectural work. In any case much care must be taken to obtain a clean surface. On wood the priming coat sinks into the wood and forms a perfect bond between it and the succeeding coats; but on metal no such thing is possible and it is a case of simple adhesion, which demands a clean surface for efficient results. The paint for structural metal should be tough and elastic, and to as great a degree as possible it should be water-proof. Less than two coats should never be applied, and three are better. Paint is always thin on edges and angles, and also on bolt and rivet-heads; it is therefore good practice, after the first full coat, to apply a partial or striping coat, covering the angles and edges and the surface for at least 1 in back from the edges, and covering all bolt-heads and rivet-heads. After this striping coat has become dry, the second full coat is applied, and it may then be assumed that the whole surface has received two full coats. At least a week should elapse between coats. In designing the steelwork, all cavities which may be filled with rain during erection should be properly drained; and during erection all small cavities should be filled with cement, and all contact-surfaces thickly painted.

Kinds of Paint for Structural Steel. RED LEAD is more generally used than anything else as a paint for structural steel. It is an oxide of lead (Pb_3O_4), usually made from litharge (PbO), and frequently containing from 10 to 20% of the latter. If it contains much litharge, it rapidly thickens when mixed with oil and finally hardens; this makes it a paint difficult to apply. If, however, the material from which it is made is reduced to a sufficiently fine powder before it is oxidized, an almost completely oxidized red lead is produced, which is as easily worked as white lead, and better in every respect. The requirements of the government of the United States have for years called for red lead of not less than 94% of oxide of lead (Pb_3O_4), and the Navy Department, as well as several large railway companies, is now using large amounts of red lead which has not less than 98% of oxide of lead. It may now be obtained in paste-form, similar to white lead and containing about 6½% of raw linseed-oil. 33 lb of red lead (dry pigment) to 1 gal of oil is the maximum and this is especially suitable for hydraulic work; 28 lb to 1 gal of oil (containing 20 lb of pigment in a gallon of paint) is more common; while 25 lb to a gallon of oil is a common requirement for railroad-specifications. Finely ground GRAPHITE in linseed-oil is a favorite paint for metal; it flows well, is easily applied, less expensive than red lead, and if well made gives excellent results. Graphite is sometimes mixed with lampblack, probably with advantage. Boneblack is also an important ingredient of CARBON PAINTS. Formerly oxide of iron in linseed-oil was used more than all other paints for this purpose; but while many engineers still like it, its use has very greatly diminished. ASPHALTUM has been used and is still used, as a varnish either alone or in combination, and some of these asphaltic preparations are fairly satisfactory. The fact is, that a really competent paint-manufacturer can make a reasonably good paint out of any of these, and if the paint is carefully applied the results will be satisfactory. There are great differences in painters. In regard to the surface of structural steel covered by a gallon of paint, there is a great difference of opinion among experts. Some say from 300 to 400 sq ft, others 1000 or 1200 sq ft. The truth is that any paint may be brushed out into an exceedingly thin film by a skilled workman, while ordinary usage results in a film at least twice as thick. The general opinion is that it is not wise to estimate more than 400 sq ft to the gallon for one coat. Varnish-paints cover less than oil-paints, but if well made they are very durable.

Painting on Cement and Concrete. Cement and concrete-work are difficult to paint, because they are strongly alkaline and even caustic when new. Work in these materials should be allowed to stand a year or two if possible before it is painted; then it may be painted with any ordinary paint. A practice which has been highly recommended is to wash the surface, repeatedly if possible, with a strong solution of zinc sulphate, the sulphuric acid uniting with the free lime and the zinc being left in the pores as an oxide or hydrate. Some preparations for this purpose are on the market; and while some are probably good, others are to be distrusted. The best way is to allow the surface to age, if this is at all possible.

WINDOW-GLASS AND GLAZING *

Glazing. The glazing of windows originally belonged to the painter's trade, and when glass is broken, it is still customary to go to a painter to have it replaced; but custom has so changed in some parts of the country, that when new windows are to be glazed, the work is sometimes done at the mill or factory where the sashes are made, sometimes by the local glass-jobber in the town where the building is being erected, and again, in other localities, the glazing of new buildings is still done by the painter. COMMON WINDOW-GLASS is usually set with putty and secured with triangular pieces of zinc called GLAZIERS' POINTS, driven into the wood over the glass and covered with putty. In the best work, a thin layer of putty is first put in the rebate of the sash and the glass is then placed on it and pushed down to a solid bearing. This is called BACK-PUTTYING. The points are then driven about 8 or 10 in apart and the putty applied over the glass and points so as to fill the rebate. Outside windows should always be glazed on the outside of the sash. Common window-glass has a slight bend in it, the result of its original cylindrical shape; it should be glazed, therefore, with the convex side out, as this reduces to a minimum the effects of the waviness when looking through it either from the outside or inside. Plate glass, in window-sashes and door-lights, should be back-puttied and secured by wooden beads.

Leaded Glass. It was formerly a common practice for architects to name in the specifications a certain sum of money to be allowed by the carpenter for the leaded glass and to be expended under the direction of the architect. Where clear glass was used, the pattern was sometimes shown on the drawings and the glass was specified in the same manner as any other work. When colored glass was to be used, it was customary to make a definite allowance and then to entrust the work to a good art-glass manufacturer. But leaded glass should be designed, furnished and put in place by those who are entirely familiar with its manufacture and its limitations; the purchase of the same should be left entirely in the hands of the owner; and no specification as to its price or make should be used by the architect. The colored-glass windows should show as much individual artistic taste as any other picture or decoration used in the building. The cheap and inartistic leaded glass is fast becoming a thing of the past and owners are confining themselves to purely works of art placed in some appropriate location in the building.

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* Condensed from article on Window-Glass and Glazing by Professor Thomas Nolan in Building Construction and Superintendence, Part II, Carpenters' Work, by F. E. Kidder.

Sheet Glass. General Description. Common window-glass is technically known as SHEET GLASS or CYLINDER GLASS. "It is made by the workmen dipping a tube with an enlarged end in the molten glass or METAL until from 7 to 10 lb are gathered up. Then it is blown out slightly by the workman, taken on a blowing-tube and still further blown and manipulated, until a cylinder about 15 in in diameter and 60 in long is formed. This cylinder has the two ends trimmed off and is then cut longitudinally and gradually warmed. It is then placed on a large flat stone supported by a carriage, where it is heated until it softens sufficiently to open out flat; the carriage is then pushed into the annealing-chamber and the sheet taken off." About the year 1910, sheet glass blown by machinery, utilizing compressed air, was perfected, and the result has been a gradual decrease in its cost. The cylinder blown by compressed air is split open and flattened out in just the same manner and by the same process as in the mouth-blown cylinder.

Grades and Qualities of Sheet Glass. Sheet glass is graded as DOUBLE-THICK, or SINGLE-THICK, and each thickness is further divided into three qualities, FIRST, SECOND, or THIRD, according to its relative freedom from defects. The price varies according to the strength and quality. It should be remembered that sheet glass is always wavy, the result of the flattening of the cylinder. Many suppose that by designating sheet glass, CRYSTAL-SHEET GLASS, SELECTED-SHEET GLASS, or SHEET GLASS FREE FROM WAVES AND IMPERFECTIONS, a sheet glass free from waves and blemishes can be obtained. The terms and names do not change the nature of this glass, which still remains sheet glass, characterized by the defects inherent in the method by which it is manufactured. To obtain a thin glass, free from waviness, plate glass, 1/8 in thick, sometimes known as CRYSTAL PLATE, or plate glass 3/16 in thick, must be specified. Since the improvement in the manufacture of window-glass in this country, scarcely any sheet glass is now imported for glazing purposes. A small amount of Belgian sheet glass is brought to this country and used along the Atlantic seaboard for picture-framing. The low prices of the American sheet glass, and its excellent quality, have practically forced imported sheet glass out of the market. All common sheet glass, without regard to quality, is graded according to thickness, as SINGLE-THICK or DOUBLE-THICK. The thickness of the double-thick glass is a scant 1/8 in while that of the single-thick averages about 1/12 in. It is customary to use the double thickness for sheet glass over 24 in in width. The best quality of sheet glass is specified as AA, the second as A and the third as B.

Sizes of Sheet Glass. The regular stock-sizes vary by inches from 6 to 16 in in width. Above that they vary by even inches up to 60 in in width and 70 in in length for double thickness, and up to 30 by 50 in for single thickness.

Cost of Sheet Glass. The prices for sheet glass, as for all other clear glass, vary with the size, strength and quality. Prices are determined by a schedule or price-list,* giving the price for each size, in both thicknesses, and all qualities; and from these prices a very large discount is allowed. Fluctuations in prices are regulated by the discount, the list usually remaining unchanged for a number of years. The present price-list (1913) has been in use since October 1, 1903. The only way to ascertain the price of a light of glass of a given size is to find it from the price-list, from which the discount, quoted by the glass-dealer, must be deducted. For the benefit of the Pacific Coast trade there is a Western Glass List † which differs somewhat from the Eastern list. The list is for sheet glass, the plate glass lists being the same in the East and West. The price per square foot increases rapidly as the size of the pane increases, so that it is much cheaper to divide a large window into eight or twelve lights than into two lights. Compared with the cost of the building, however, the glass is a small item and in the better classes of buildings each sash is usually glazed with a single light of glass. In factories, workshops, etc., where there is usually a large amount of glass-surface, the size of the lights is not of so much importance, while the saving by using small lights is quite an item; hence twelve-light and even sixteen-light windows are generally used in such buildings. The following table shows quite clearly the relative cost (1913) per square foot of different-sized panes of American glass, the prices given being about an average for the whole country.

Comparative Cost (1913) of American Sheet Glass per Square Foot, Based Upon a Discount of 90 and 20 Per Cent on the List of October 1, 1903 ‡

Grades	Sizes of lights in inches						
	10×12	15×20	24×34	30×36	36×40	40×60	60×70
	Prices in cents per square foot						
Double strength:							
First quality......	7.0	8.3	9.4	10.0	10.8	14.0	29.2
Second quality....	6.0	7.3	8.3	9.0	10.0	14.4	27.0
Single strength:							
First quality......	5.0	4.8	6.4	6.8	......	......	......
Second quality....	4.3	4.5	5.6	6.0	......	......	......

Crystal-Sheet Glass, 26-Ounce. This glass is made by the cylinder-process, but is a little thicker than the ordinary double-strength glass. It is probably the best glass made, next to plate glass, but owing to the method of its manufacture is necessarily characterized by a wavy appearance. If good glass is required for first-class residences, hotels, office-buildings, etc., polished plate glass should be used. The latter invariably gives satisfaction, while sheet glass, no matter of what thickness, is usually disappointing in its appearance.

Defects of Sheet Glass. All sheet glass, when looked upon from the outside, has a wavy, watery appearance, like the surface of a lake slightly agitated by the wind; and when the sunshine falls upon it the irregularity of the surface is greatly emphasized. This characteristic of sheet glass is due to its being made in the shape of a cylinder and then stretched or flattened out into a sheet, and it cannot be wholly avoided. Besides this universal defect, the cheaper grades are often STRINGY, BLISTERY, SULPHURED, SMOKED, or STAINED; so that, in looking through the glass, objects seen at a distance are deformed and distorted.

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* The price-lists of glass have been omitted as they can readily be obtained from the glass-dealers in any city. Such lists are not of much service unless they are complete; and the full lists are too long to be inserted in a condensed handbook.

† This list, with discounts from the prices given, may be obtained from the W. P. Fuller Company, San Francisco, Cal.

‡ Much valuable information in regard to Window-Glass and Glazing was furnished by Mr. S. C. Gilmore of the Hires-Turner Glass Company, Philadelphia, Pa.

Plate Glass. General Description. Plate glass is commonly known as POLISHED PLATE GLASS because its surface is finely polished and thus made clear and transparent. It is more largely used every year for windows of fine residences, hotels and office-buildings, where transparency is desired from the inside and an elegant appearance required on the outside. The process of manufacture of plate glass is entirely different from that of sheet glass. In making plate glass the metal, which is prepared with great care, is melted in large pots and then cast on a perfectly flat cast-iron table. "The width and thickness of the plate is determined by means of metal strips called GUNS, which are fastened on, and on which a heavy, metal roller travels. The ends of the guns are tapered so that when the roller is at one extremity, it and the guns form three sides of a shallow, rectangular dish. The molten metal is poured on and the roller passed along slowly, forcing the metal in front of it and rolling out the sheet." The sheet is then annealed and forms what is known as ROUGH PLATE, which is used for vault-lights, skylights, floor-lights and the like. "For polished plate the rough plate is carefully examined for flaws, which are cut out, leaving the largest-sized sheet practicable. The plate is then fastened to a revolving table by means of plaster of Paris, and two heavy shoes, shod with cast iron, are mounted over it. The table is then revolved and sand and water fed onto the surface; the shoes revolve also, going over all parts of the plate and grinding it down to a true plane. Emery-powder is then fed on, in successive degrees of fineness until the plate is made absolutely smooth and all grit removed. After this, new rubbers, shod with very fine felt, are put on and liquid rouge is added for the polishing. When one side is completed the other side is similarly treated, the plate losing about 40% in weight by the operation."

Qualities of Polished Plate Glass. For glazing purposes there is but one quality of plate glass on the market. The best of this is selected for manufacturing mirrors. At one time, plate glass was extensively imported, but the gradually improving methods of the American manufacturers, as well as the great cheapening of the process, have practically eliminated imported plate glass from the market. The American plate glass is equal in every respect to that which was imported. The usual thickness of polished plate glass is from ¼ to 5/16 in, but it can be made thinner than this; and when required for residence-windows or car-windows, may be obtained in 3/16 or ⅛-in thicknesses. It is manufactured from the same thickness of rough plate used for the ordinary thicknesses, but is ground down thinner and, owing to the additional cost of grinding, as well as to the risk, is more expensive than glass of the ordinary thickness.

Cost of Polished Plate Glass. The cost of plate glass of ordinary thickness varies with the size of the lights. The net price of polished plate glass (1913), glazing quality, is about 45 cts ($0.45) per sq ft, for sizes of not more than 10 sq ft per plate, 50 cts ($0.50) per sq ft for sizes containing from 10 to 50 sq ft per plate, and 65 cts ($0.65) per sq ft for sizes containing not more than 120 sq ft per plate. For larger sizes the price increases rapidly up to $2.00 per sq ft. The price, however, can be accurately determined only by means of a price-list and discount. The price-list in use (1913) was introduced in March, 1910, and the discount is about 90%. Plate glass 5/16 in thick costs 15% more than glass of the regular thickness on account of the extra expense of grinding it down. Plate glass ¼ in thick costs from 25 to 40% more than glass of the regular thickness.

Sizes of Polished Plate Glass. Plate glass is cut into stock sizes, varying by even numbers from 6 by 6 in up to 144 by 240 in, or 138 by 260 in.

Comparative Cost of Different Kinds of Window-Glass. The following table gives as accurate an idea of the comparative cost of the different kinds and qualities of glass used in this country for glazing as it is possible to give, the prices for the sizes being the present (1914) net, average prices. The first column of the table gives the kinds of glass, and includes both the American plate and the American sheet glass. The other columns of the table give the sizes of the different lights in inches.

Comparative Cost of Different Kinds of Window-Glass

Kinds of glass	Sizes of lights in inches			
	24×32	30×36	36×40	48×60
American Plate Glass				
Glazing-quality	$2.35	$3.38	$4.60	$9.80
Crystal-sheet glass, 26-oz	1.00	1.54	2.34	6.66
American Sheet Glass				
Double-strength, first quality	0.54	0.83	1.25	3.55
Double-strength, second quality	0.47	0.73	1.13	3.30
Single-strength, first quality	0.37	0.56	......	......
Single-strength, second quality	0.32	0.50	......	......

It will be seen from this table that the relative difference in the cost of plate and sheet glass decreases rapidly as the sizes of the lights increase. The prices in this table are based on the list of October 1, 1903, on a discount of 90% for plate glass, 90 and 20% for American sheet glass and 85% on AA double-thick for 26-oz crystal-sheet glass.

Wire-Glass. This is described in Chapter XXIII, page 821.

Figured Rolled Glass. This is a translucent or OBSCURED glass with a pattern stamped on one surface. As the molten metal is rolled out on the table, the design, cut into the table, imprints itself into the soft glass. This kind of glass has almost entirely supplanted the ordinary ground glass because of its greater cleanliness. There are several popular designs on the market, made by various manufacturers. Some of the designs in common use are known as MOSS, MAZE, COLONIAL, FLORENTINE, COBWEB, etc. This glass is usually made ¼ in thick and in large sheets from 24 to 42 in wide and from 8 to 10 ft long. MAZE, FLORENTINE and COBWEB designs can be had either with or without the wire mesh in them. One important property of figured rolled glass is that of diffusing the light which passes through it. (See, also, pages 1367 and 1368.)

Pressed Prism-Plate Glass.* This is manufactured in different patterns and for different purposes and includes (1) Imperial Prism-Plate Ornamental Glass in five different patterns, (2) Imperial Prism-Plate Glass and (3) Imperial Skylight Prism Glass. The general description is as follows:

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* Manufactured by the Pressed Prism Plate Glass Company, Chicago, Ill. See, also, pages 1367 to 1370.

(1) Imperial Prism-Plate Ornamental Glass is plate glass ground and polished on one side. It is manufactured in plates, 54 by 72 or 72 by 54 in, can be cut into smaller sizes, and is made in five different stock patterns. It is used in modern mercantile, office and public buildings for partitions, transoms, door-lights, vestibule doors, ornamental ceiling-lights, bank-windows and other street-windows, and in all places where semiobscurity and ornamental effect are desired. On account of its prismatic qualities it gives a strong diffusion of light for office-use where privacy is desired.

(2) Imperial Prism-Plate Glass. This is manufactured in large sheets, 54 by 72 or 72 by 54 in, and can be cut into smaller sizes. It is made in several different angles in order to obtain the proper diffusion of light for varying conditions. It is a plate glass, ground and polished on one side. There are no wires or bars to collect dirt and retard the light and it is very easily cleaned. It is used in the upper sashes of windows and in transoms, store-fronts, etc.

(3) Imperial Skylight Prism Glass. This is made in unit plates, 18 by 60 in, with a ½-in back, and conforms to the requirements of the Board of Fire Insurance Underwriters. It is used for skylights, roofs over areaways and in light-wells, etc. The possibility of leakage is lessened on account of the large-sized plates in which it may be obtained. These plates, however, can be cut into smaller sizes if required. It is particularly adapted for lighting the rear parts of stores and for railway-stations, sheds, etc.

Prism Glass, for glazing windows, skylights and sidewalk-lights, is now manufactured in a large number of forms in both prisms and sheets, and by several companies. The diffusing properties of several types are described on pages 1367 to 1370 under the subject of Illumination. This glass is made with sharp prisms which are glazed horizontally in the windows and by refracting the light throw it back horizontally into the rooms, adding very materially to the interior lighting. It is manufactured by several companies and can be procured from glass-jobbers in practically all the cities of the United States. (See, also, page 821.) Glass prisms for lighting are made of pieces of glass of standard dimensions, about 4 in square, with a smooth outer surface and an inner surface divided into a series of prisms. They are, in many cases, formed into plates by the process of electroglazing, the edges of the prism-lenses being welded together, so to speak, by a narrow line of copper which gives the desired stiffness and strength for use in large frames, and also an attractive appearance considered by some to be superior to ordinary leaded work. These prism-plates can be made in any desired size, but for very large surfaces two or more plates, divided by means of metal sash-bars, are generally used. (See, also, page 821.)

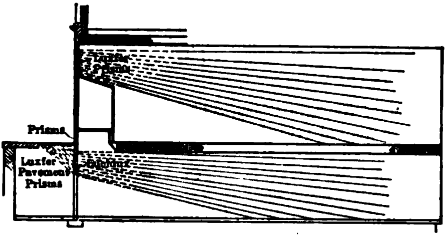
The commercial value of these prisms depends on that property of glass which causes what is known as REFRACTION. Prism-plates receive the light from the sky, not necessarily from the sun, and refract or turn it back into the room which is to be lighted. With an ordinary window the light from the sky, passing through the glass, strikes the floor at a point not very far distant from the window. As the color of the floor is usually dark, reflecting perhaps only one-tenth part of the light falling on it, the rear parts of the room receive only a small portion of the light which enters the window. For this reason it has been necessary to make very high stories for deep rooms, in order to light, even moderately, those parts which are at a distance from the window. When prisms are substituted for the common window-glass or plate glass, the rays of light as they enter the glass are refracted, and by employing prisms of the proper angle, the rays may be given almost any direction. Moreover, by utilizing different prisms in the same plate, some of the rays may be directed to the rear of the room while others are thrown so as to strike near the front. The prism-plates do not increase the quantity of light entering the window, but simply redistribute it, directing it into those portions of the room in which it is most needed. By thus changing the direction of light-rays a room with a low ceiling can be better lighted than when sheet or plate glass is used. To insure success in the lighting of interiors by means of prisms requires, however, a superior quality of glass, and careful scientific calculations and experiments, besides practical and attractive means of glazing and methods of installation. These requirements have been met by the several companies making these prisms and their products may be considered among the relatively new building materials. They have been very successfully applied to the lighting of dark rooms by daylight. The application of prisms to any particular building depends upon the surrounding conditions and requirements, each case requiring some special treatment; but in a general way the various appliances used in the installations may be divided into four classes as follows:

(1) Vertical Plates, which are set directly in the sashes in place of the ordinary window-glass. They are commonly used for the transom-lights of store-windows and the upper sashes of double-hung windows. They may also fill the entire window.

(2) Foriluxes, which are vertical prism-plates set in independent frames and placed in window-openings substantially flush with the face of the wall.

(3) Canopies, which are external prism-plates in independent frames, placed over window-openings and set at an angle with the vertical, a position similar to that of an ordinary awning.

(4) Pavement-Prisms, which are set in iron frames in the pavements or sidewalks, in place of the ordinary bull's-eye lights. In connection with the pavement-prisms, when a well-lighted basement is desired, vertical plates of prisms, hung below and opposite the pavement-lights, are often used. These hanging, vertical plates receive the light from the pavement-prisms, and again changing its direction, project it horizontally into the basement. This feature is illustrated in the figure here given, reproduced through the courtesy of the Luxfer Prism Company.



Refraction and Transmission of Light by Prisms

The canopies may be made either stationary or adjustable and may be employed in a variety of ways, combining the useful with the ornamental. The hanging, vertical plates lend themselves to a highly decorative treatment. In both the fixed and hanging vertical plates the prisms may be arranged to produce ornamental effects, and designs may be inwrought on the face of the prism-plates to correspond with the designs worked into the surfaces of the building and with the style of the entire façade. The prism-plates weigh no more, and often less, than plate glass of the same size, while they are much stronger in resisting wind-pressure, the action of hail and the impact of flying fragments. Although transmitting a very large amount of light, these prism-plates are not transparent in the ordinary sense, and may thus be used as screens to hide unattractive views or to prevent persons looking either in or out of a window. At the same time a maximum quantity of light is admitted. The prism-plates, owing to the stiff, durable manner in which they are united by the electro-glazing process, serve, also, as a fire-retardant or as a partial substitute for the ordinary iron fire-shutters. The copper glazing forms, as it were, a continuous rivet, which holds the individual prism-lights together, even after they have become badly cracked by the action of fire and water. The details of the various makes of prisms are too complicated to be set forth in a few pages, but they are well described in the various handbooks and catalogues published by the different manufacturers. From a commercial point of view the special advantages of these systems of interior lighting are manifold. They transform rooms, particularly basements, otherwise too dark for occupancy, into income-producing spaces; in many buildings they do away with the use of light-shafts, thus saving a large amount of valuable floor-space; and in all large or deep rooms they effect a great saving in artificial lighting. Once installed, there is no cost for maintenance. The extent to which these prisms have been used by architects, in both new and old buildings, shows that they have had a decided influence upon commercial architecture.

Glass for Skylights. General Description. The glass ordinarily used now for skylights is either rough or ribbed skylight-glass, and since the great cheapening in the process of manufacturing glass with wire mesh in it, wire-glass, also, is being largely used for this purpose. The sizes used depend largely upon the pitch of the skylight, small sizes being more desirable when the pitch is slight. The weight of rough or ribbed glass, with or without wire mesh, is approximately as follows:

Weight of Rough or Ribbed Glass

Thickness in inches	1/8	3/16	1/4	3/8	1/2	5/8	3/4	1
Weight in pounds	2	2½	3½	5	7	8½	10	12½

Cost of Skylight-Glass. The different kinds of skylight-glass in small quantities are quoted (1914) about as follows:

Cost of Skylight-Glass

Kinds of glass	Cost
Rough or ribbed skylight-glass, 1/8-in	6 cts per sq ft
Rough or ribbed skylight-glass, 3/16-in	8 cts per sq ft
Rough or ribbed skylight-glass, 1/4-in	12 cts per sq ft
Rough or ribbed wire-glass, 1/4-in	16 cts per sq ft
Maze, Cobweb, or Florentine wire-glass	20 cts per sq ft
Sheet prism glass	20 cts per sq ft

Glass for Mirrors. Mirrors are made by silvering one side of a sheet of polished plate glass. This is the only kind of glass suitable for making mirrors, because, unless the surface of glass is polished, the reflection is distorted. A generation ago, mirrors were made by the old-style process of pressing the glass by means of heavy weights onto mercury, backed by tinfoil, the affinity of mercury for tin forming an amalgam which protected the back of the mirrors and gave the reflection. This was a very slow and expensive process. During the twenty-five years prior to 1913, practically all of the mirrors made were manufactured by what is known as the PATENT-BACK process, in which nitrate of silver is precipitated in a film over the surface of the glass, thus giving it the property of reflecting. This film is afterward covered and protected by shellac, varnish and paint. This modern method of manufacture has made it possible to supply mirrors in considerably less time, and at a very much lower cost, than when manufactured by the old-fashioned MERCURY-BACK process. There are many who claim that in spite of modern processes of manufacture, the old method produced the best results as far as durability is concerned. This is evidenced by the following statement inserted by Mr. Kidder in the preceding editions of the Pocket-Book: "There are two kinds of mirrors on the market, one the old time reliable mercury-back mirror, the other the nitrate of silver, or what is better known to the trade as the patent-back mirror. The latter is now and has, in recent years, been most extensively sold as a substitute for the former. In the manufacture of mercury-back mirrors no chemicals are used, only two metals, mercury and tin-foil. The affinity of mercury for tin forms an amalgam impervious to and not affected by the atmosphere. A mercury-back mirror is universally considered to be the only durable and permanent mirror. A nitrate-of-silver or patent-back mirror is produced by the precipitation of a chemical solution of nitrate of silver and other media on the surface of the glass, to which is added one coat of shellac varnish overlaid with one or more coats of paint. This mirror, irrespective of the quality of the glass from which it is made, will steadily deteriorate from the date of its manufacture to that of its final collapse, which may occur at any time from a few months, but certainly within a few years."

MEMORANDA ON ROOFING

Shingles.* The best shingles are those made from cypress, cedar, redwood, white and yellow pine and spruce, in the order mentioned. Redwood, while perhaps not quite as durable as cypress, is less inflammable; sawed pine shingles are inferior to cedar, and spruce shingles are not suitable for good work.

Number and Weight of Cedar and Pine Shingles Per Square of One Hundred Square Feet

Length, in	Assumed width, in	Weather or gauge, in	Number of shingles per square †	Weight per square		Number of nails per square	Weight of nails per square, lb
				Cedar, lb	Pine, lb		
14	4	4	900	210	233	1 800	4.50
15	4	4½	800	200	222	1 600	4.00
16	4	5	720	192	213	1 440	3.60
18	4	5½	655	197	218	1 310	3.28
20	4	6	600	200	222	1 200	3.00
22	4	6½	554	203	226	1 108	2.77
24	4	7	515	206	229	1 030	2.58

Sizes of Shingles. Cedar and redwood shingles as commonly sawed are 20 in in length, and cypress shingles usually from 20 to 24 in long, the longer ones allowing a greater exposure to the weather. Redwood shingles and the cedar shingles from the States of Washington and Oregon, which States furnish most of the shingles used west of the Mississippi, are 8/16 and 9/16 in thick at the butt; cypress shingles are usually sawed thicker. Those used in Boston are 9/16 in thick. Ordinary roofing-shingles are of random widths, varying from 2½ to 14 and sometimes 16 in. They are put up in bundles, usually four bundles to the thousand. A THOUSAND common shingles means the equivalent of 1 000 shingles 4 in wide.

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* For more complete information see Kidder's Building Construction and Superintendence, Part II, Carpenters' Work, pages 321 to 325.

† To allow for waste, add from 6 to 10%, the greater allowance being for the shorter shingles.

Dimension-Shingles are sawed to uniform width, either 4, 5, or 6 in. Dimension-shingles with the butt sawed to various patterns are also carried in stock.

On hip-roofs, or for four valleys, add 5% for cutting. On irregular roofs with dormer-windows, add 10%. It is claimed that redwood shingles will go farther than cedar shingles. With a rise to the roof of from 8 to 10 in to the foot, cedar shingles, or any shingles 16 or 18 in in length, should be laid from 4 to 4¼ in to the weather; with a rise from 10 to 12 in, from 4¼ to 4⅜ in to the weather, and on steeper roofs they may be laid from 4½ to 5 in. Redwood shingles may be laid ½ in more to the weather. Some authorities allow slightly greater exposures for these lengths. Where the longer shingles are used the exposure to the weather may be increased up to 7 in for the 24-in lengths. On walls cedar shingles are commonly laid 5 in to the weather, and redwood shingles 6 in.

Labor. An average shingler should lay 1 500 shingles in 9 hours on plain work; on irregular roofs with dormers, 1 000 per 9 hours.

Nails. It requires about 5 lb of threepenny or 7½ lb of fourpenny nails to 1 000 shingles.

Slate Roofs

Characteristics of Good Slate. A good slate should be both hard and tough. If the slate is too soft, however, the nail-holes will become enlarged and the slate will become loose. If it is too brittle the slate will fly to pieces in the process of squaring and holing and will be easily broken on the roof. "A good slate should give out a sharp metallic ring when struck with the knuckles; should not splinter under the slater's axe; should be easily HOLED without danger of fracture, and should not be tender or friable at the edges." The surface when freshly split should have a bright metallic luster and be free from all loose flakes or dull surfaces. Very few of the Vermont slates, however, have the metallic luster or ribbons. Most slates contain ribbons or seams which traverse the slate in approximately parallel directions. Slates containing soft ribbons are inferior and should not be used in good work.

Color. The color of slates varies from dark blue, bluish black, and purple to gray and green. There are also a few quarries of red slate. The color of the slate does not appear to indicate the quality. All slate quarried in Maine is black as is also that quarried in Virginia, while that quarried in Pennsylvania and Maryland is also black but borders on dark blue and is advertised by some firms as dark blue. Slate quarried in New York State is red, of various tints, while that quarried in Vermont is of various colors, such as green, purple, variegated, etc. The red and dark colors were formerly considered the most effective but at the present time the greens are going on some of the largest and finest of the new residences. Some slates are marked with bands or patches of a different color, and the dark-purple slates often have large spots of light green on them. These spots do not as a rule affect the durability of the slate, but they greatly detract from its appearance.

Grading of Slates. The Monson, Me., slates and Brownville, Me., slates are graded as follows: No. 1. Every sheet to be full 3/16 in thick, both sides smooth and all corners full and square. No pieces to be winding or warped.

No. 2. Thickness may vary from 1/8 to 1/4 in, all corners square, one side generally smooth, one side generally rough, no badly warped slates.

The Bangor, Pa., slates are graded:

No. 1 Clear. A pure slate without any faults or blemishes.

No. 1 Ribbon. As well made as No. 1 Clear, except that it contains one or more RIBBONS (a black band or streak across the slate), which, however, are high enough on the slate to be covered when laid, thus presenting a No. 1 roof.

No. 2 Ribbon. This contains several RIBBONS, some of which cannot be covered when laid.

No. 2 Clear. A slate without RIBBONS, made from rough beds.

Hard Beds. A clear Bangor slate, not quite as smooth as No. 1 Clear, but much better than No. 2 Clear.

Ordinary Bent Slate. A smooth slate similar to No. 1 Clear, but bent at a radius of about 12 ft.

Punching. Formerly nail-holes in slates were punched on the job; now, however, slates are bored and countersunk at the quarry, when so ordered. Architects should always specify that the slates are to be bored and countersunk, as punching badly damages the slates.

Sizes. The sizes of slates range from 9 by 7 in to 24 by 14 in, there being some thirty-seven different sizes; the more common sizes, however, are the following: The sizes of slates best adapted for plain roofs are the large wide slates, such as 12 by 16 in, 18 by 12 in, 20 by 12 in, or 24 by 14 in. Slates from 8 by 16 to 10 by 20 in are popular sizes, 9 by 18-in slates being probably used oftener than those of any other size. The 11 by 22 and 12 by 24-in slates are used principally on very large high buildings. The lower grades of slate are used largely on warehouses and barns. The larger sizes make fewer joints in the roof, require fewer nails, and diminish the number of small pieces at hips and valleys. For roofs cut up into small sections the smaller sizes, such as 14 by 7 in or 16 by 8 in, look the best.

Thickness. Slates vary in thickness from 1/8 to 3/8 in; 3/16 in is the usual thickness for ordinary sizes (see Grading of Slates in the preceding paragraphs). It is of utmost importance for architects to specify the thickness of slates, either fully 3/16 in thick, or fully 1/4 in thick, to secure a strong and durable roof.

Laying. Slates are laid either on a board sheathing (rough, or tongued and grooved) covered with tarred or water-proof paper or felt, or on roofing-laths from 2 to 3 in wide and from 1 to 1 1/4 in thick, nailed to the rafters at distances apart to suit the gauge of the slates. Each slate should lap the slate in the second course below, 3 in. The slates are fastened with two threepenny or fourpenny nails, one near each upper corner. For slates 20 by 10 in or larger, fourpenny nails should be used. Copper, composition, tinned, or galvanized nails should be used. Plain-iron nails are speedily weakened by rust, and they break and allow the slates to be blown off. On iron roofs slates are often placed directly on small iron purlins spaced at suitable distances apart to receive them, and fastened with wire or special forms of fasteners. THE GAUGE of a slate is the portion exposed to the weather, which should be one-half the remainder obtained by subtracting 3 in from the length of the slate. Roofs to be covered with slate should have a rise of not less than 6 in to the foot for 20-in or 24-in slates, or 8 in for smaller sizes.

Elastic Cement. In first-class work, the top course of slate on the ridge, and slate for from 2 to 4 ft from all gutters and 1 ft each way from all valleys and hips, should be bedded in elastic cement.

Flashings. By FLASHINGS are meant pieces of tin, zinc, or copper laid over slate and up against walls, chimneys, copings, etc.

Counterflashings are of lead or zinc, and are laid between the courses in brick, and turned down over the flashings. In flashing against stonework, grooves or reglets often have to be cut to receive the counterflashings.

Close and Open Valleys. A close valley is one in which the slates are mitered and flashed in each course and laid in cement. In such valleys no metal can be seen. Close valleys should only be used for pitches above 45°. An open valley is one formed of sheets of copper or zinc 15 or 16 in wide, over which the slates are laid.

Old English Method of Laying Slates.* This method of laying slate involves the use of different shades of colored slates in graduated courses and in random widths beginning at the eaves, for example, with slates 28 in long and 1¼ in thick, and using the different thicknesses from 1¼ to ⅜ in, in shorter lengths, in working upward on the roof. The use of this kind of work for roofs has increased in recent years and the method possesses vast possibilities for carrying out architects' ideas for varied artistic effects. "The slates are made with rough-cut edges in all thicknesses from 3/16 to 1½ in, in a combination of various shades carefully selected in such proportion as to produce the best possible harmony, when laid. As all of these colors and shades are unfading, the WEATHERED effect is obtained at once and is permanent. These slates are made not only in usual sizes, but in the OLD ENGLISH STYLE, to be laid in graduated courses of different lengths and in random widths. The Old English color-combination roofing-slates should be specified to secure the light-and-shadow effect, and it is of the utmost importance to specify the thickness desired, as the price is the same for all sizes, while the cost varies according to thickness. When graduated courses are desired, specifications should call for the number of courses to be laid in each length and thickness beginning at the eaves-courses, where the thickest slates are used in the largest sizes, sometimes 30 or even 36 in in length, and working upward on the roof with the shorter lengths and thinner slates to the ridges where the smallest sizes and thinnest slates are used. To secure a rough effect at minimum cost, specifications should call for Old English color-combination, all slates to be fully ¼ in thick with rough cut edges and graduated courses in sizes ranging from 24 by 16 to 12 by 6 in, with nail-holes drilled and countersunk. To secure the best rough effect, specifications should call for eaves-courses not less than ¾ in thick, stating the thickness desired for the eaves, and the number of courses desired in each length and thickness. Among the good specimens of the Old English style of roofing may be mentioned the buildings of Princeton University for the Graduate College, where different shades of unfading-green slates are used in thicknesses running from 1¼ in at the eaves to ⅜ in at the ridge.†

Measurement. Slates are sold by the SQUARE, by which is meant a sufficient number of slates of any size to cover 100 sq ft of surface on a roof, with 3 in of lap, over the head of those in the second course below. The square is also the basis on which the cost of laying is measured. "Eaves, hips, valleys, and cuttings against walls or dormers are measured extra; 1 ft wide by their whole length, the extra charge being made for waste material and the increased labor required in cutting and fitting. Openings less than 3 sq ft are not deducted, and all cuttings around them are measured extra. Extra charges are also made for borders, figures, and any change of color of the work and for steeples, towers, and perpendicular surfaces." *

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* Full information in regard to the details of the slates for this purpose and the methods employed in laying them can be obtained from the various companies among which may be mentioned the Old English Slate Company, Boston, Mass., and the Mathews Slate Company, Poultney, Vt.

† Condensed from description of methods used, given by the Old English Slate Company, Boston, Mass.

Cost. The cost of slates varies with the size, color and quality. The prices given in the following table are about the average (1915) for blue-black slate, of No. 1 grade, loaded on the cars at the Pennsylvania quarry. The freight in car-load lots of 60 squares or over to Philadelphia from Bethlehem, Pa., is 60 cts per square, from Pennsylvania to Omaha, Neb., $2.60 and from Vermont, about the same. It will be seen that slates of the MEDIUM sizes cost the most, and those of the larger and smaller sizes the least. Special prices are quoted for special sizes. The larger sizes make the cheapest roofs. Red slates cost from 60 to 150% more than black slates. The green slates are more expensive than the black with the exception of the Maine and Peach Bottom varieties.

Number and Cost of Slates, and Pounds of Nails to 100 Square Feet of Roof

3-inch Lap

Sizes of slates, in	Exposed when laid, in	Number to a square	Weights of galvanized nails,			Cost per square at quarry
				lb	oz	
14×24	10½	98	4d	1	6	$4.50
12×24	10½	115		1	10	4.50
12×22	9½	126		1	12	4.75
11×22	9½	138		1	15	4.75
11×20	8½	155		2	0	5.25
10×20	8½	170		2	6	5.25
12×18	7½	160	3d	1	13	....
10×18	7½	192		2	3	5.25
9×18	7½	214		2	7	5.25
12×16	6½	185		2	2	....
10×16	6½	222		2	8	....
9×16	6½	247		3	0	5.25
8×16	6½	277		3	2	5.25
10×14	5½	262		3	0	....
8×14	5½	328		3	12	4.75
7×14	5½	375		4	4	4.75
8×12	4½	400		4	9	....
7×12	4½	457		5	3	4.25
6×12	4½	534		6	1	4.25

The cost of blue-black-slate roofs, complete, varies from $9 to $16 per square, depending on the class of work and remoteness from the quarries. The additional cost of laying slate in elastic cement varies from $1.75 to $2.50 per square. An experienced roofer will lay, on an average, 2½ squares of slate in 8 hours.

Weight. Slate roofing 3/16 in thick will weigh on the roof about 6½ lb per sq ft, and if ¼ in thick, 8¾ lb, the smaller sizes weighing the most on account of the lap. The actual weight of a square foot of slate ¼ in thick is 3.63 lb. A cubic foot of Vermont slate weighs approximately 175 lb. The average shipping weight for No. 1, 3/16-in slates, is approximately 725 lb; for 1/4-in slates, 1 000 lb; for 1/2-in slates, 2 000 lb, etc.

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* The Building Trades Pocket-book.

Roofing-Tiles

General Notes on Roofing-Tiles. The term ROOFING-TILE is commonly understood to refer to exterior roof-covering made from clay in units of various shapes and laid with overlapping edges. Clay or terra-cotta roof-tiles have long been very largely used in Europe, where their cost is much less than in America. Since the year 1893 the advance here in the character and extent of roofing-tile has been marked and rapid. This material can now be had at much lower prices than formerly prevailed, and the result has been that thousands of squares of terra-cotta tiles have been placed on shops and factories which would under former conditions have been covered with slate or metal. Whether or not a tile roof is as durable and satisfactory as one of No. 1 slate is a much-disputed question. Mr. Kidder was of the opinion that, considering the quantities used, slates have given better satisfaction than tiles. A tile roof, however, is certainly more attractive than a slate roof, and it is generally held that there are many roofing-tiles on the market which if properly laid prove as tight and durable as slates. There are so many patterns of roofing-tiles that it is impossible here to enter into a description of them. Of the various patterns, those which interlock are considered from a practical standpoint, to make the most satisfactory roof.

Laying Roofing-Tiles. Roofing-tiles have been laid directly on a porous book tile or concrete base or on a sheathed surface over such base, or they have been fastened to stripping over the sheathing or wooden or steel purlins by means of copper wires. When thus fastened by wires, the joints were usually pointed on the under side after they were laid, to prevent the entrance of dust or dry snow. Tiles of the older patterns were nailed to the sheathing, but later on this method was superseded by the practice of fastening with copper wires from pierced lugs near the lower ends of the tiles. The best modern method, however, seems to be the one involving a solid continuous base for the roofing-tiles, whether or not purlins are used. "Such purlins should be filled in between either with book tiles or a concrete base and felt should be laid thereon. The book tiles, if used, should be of a porous quality. Instead of regarding the nailing of tiles as a defective method, we have returned to it as the only proper method of fastening tiles and have eliminated the stripping of sheathed roofs and the use of copper wires. Such methods would do in some portions of central Europe where the winds and other climatic conditions are not severe, but through a twenty-five-years' experience in the varied climatic conditions of the United States, we have found that the nailing of tiles with copper nails is the only satisfactory method of application. We have also found that a roof should be sheathed and covered with a good asphaltum-felt to prevent wind-suction." * Roofing-tiles weigh from 750 to 1 200 lb per square of 100 sq ft.

Specifications for Tile Roofing

The following specification † contains valuable suggestions for the proper laying of tile roofs:

All pitched roofs shall be covered with (——) tiles with fittings suitable for each pattern unless otherwise selected by the architect. The tiles as specified above are to be hard-burned, of red color, and in accordance with samples deposited in the office of the architect.

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* Quoted by permission from data on roof-tiling, by the Ludowici-Celadon Company, Chicago, Ill.

† Prepared from data furnished by the Ludowici-Celedon Company, Chicago, Ill.

(1) Preparation of Roof. Before the roofer is sent for, the owner or general contractor is to construct the roofs in strict accordance with the plans, sheath the roofs TIGHT, have all chimneys and walls above the roof-line completed, have all vent-pipes put through the roofs, furnish all strips of required width used under hip-rolls, furnish all 1 by ⅞-in cant-strips used under the tiles at the eaves and have all the scaffolding ready for the roofers' use. The metal-contractor is to have all gutters in place on the roof (gutters, whether box, hanging or secret gutters, are to extend over the roof-sheathing and cant-strips, and run under the felt and tiles at least 8 in) and is to have in place, also, all valley-metal, the width of which is to be not less than 24 in, with both edges turned up ¼ in through the entire length of the valley. The valley-metal is to be fastened with clips and never nailed or punctured in any manner. The valley-metal is to be laid over one layer of felt running lengthwise the entire distance of the valley. The metal-contractor is to have in readiness all flashing-metal used alongside and in front of dormers, gables, skylights, towers and perpendicular walls, and around vent-pipes and chimneys, and is to place the same after the arrival of the tile-roofer and under his direction.

(2) Laying the Felt. After the roofs have thus been prepared to receive the felt and tiles, the tile-roofer is to cover the sheathing of the roofs with one thickness of asphalt roofing-felt weighing not less than 30 lb to the square, laying the same with a 2½-in lap and securing it in place by capped nails. The felt is to be laid parallel with the eaves, lapped over all valley-metal about 4 in and laid under all flashing-metal about 6 in.

(3) Laying the Tiles. The roof having thus been prepared, the tile-layer is to fasten the tiles with copper nails. The roofer is to see that the tiles are well locked together and that they lie smoothly, and no attempt is to be made to stretch the courses. The tiles are to be laid so that the vertical lines are parallel with each other and at right-angles to the eaves. The tiles that verge along the hips are to be cut close against the hip-boards, and a water-tight joint made by cementing cut hip-tiles to the hip-boards with elastic cement. Each piece of hip-roll is then to be nailed to the hip-board, and the hip-rolls are to be cemented where they lap each other. The interior spaces of hip-rolls and ridge-rolls are not to be filled with the pointing-material.

Cost of Roofing-Tiles. The prices of tiles vary from $7 to $30 per square, according to the character of the surface-finish and to the pattern. The cost of laying, including asphalt-felt, varies from $5 to $10 per square, according to the pattern of tiles used, the number of layers of felt and the character and extent of the roof. If roofing-tiles are laid on book tiles or on cement, 20% must be added to the cost for laying on wooden sheathing. Fluctuating values of copper make the item of copper nails, when these are used, one of importance.

Sheet-Metal Tiles. Roofing-tiles stamped from sheet steel, plain or galvanized, and also from sheet copper, in imitation of clay tiles, are made by several manufacturers and have been extensively used for factories and buildings of secondary importance. The first cost of these tiles, except those made of copper, is much less than that of clay tiles and they do not require as heavy roof-framing. Tin or galvanized-iron tiles, however, must be painted every few years, so that for a long period of years they probably cost as much as clay tiles and more than slate.

Tin Roofs

The Sheets. Roofing-plates are made of soft steel of various special analyses, or wrought iron (more commonly of the former), covered with a mixture of lead and tin, and are designated TERNE-PLATES, in distinction from plates coated only with tin and therefore called BRIGHT TIN. Roofing-plates are coated by two methods. (1) The original method of coating the plates consisted in dipping the black plates by hand into the mixture of tin and lead, and allowing the sheets to absorb all the coating that was possible; and at least one brand of roofing-tin is still made by this process. (2) The other process, by which the majority of roofing-plates are now made, is known as the PATENT-ROLLER-PROCESS, by which the plates are put into a bath of tin and lead, and are passed through rolls. The pressure of these rolls leaves on the iron or steel a thickness of coating which, to a great extent, determines the value of the plates. These rolls can be adjusted to leave a relatively large amount of coating on the plate, an ordinary coating, or a very scant coating. The heavier the coating the more valuable the plate. Some makers employ a variation of this patent process, by which the plates are given an extra dip, by hand, in an open pot, to give a HAND-DIPPED FINISH. It is claimed that hand-dipped plates will last much longer than those made by the new process, although the latter process is much more extensively used and many good roofing-sheets are made by it.

Brands. The best roofing-plates always have the BRAND stamped on them, and as the manufacturers have a pecuniary interest in keeping up the reputation of these brands, the only way of being sure of a good tin roof is to specify a brand of tin that has a reputation for quality and durability. Some of the best-known brands are Taylor's Target-and-Arrow (formerly Old Style); Merchant's Old Method, MF; Follansbee's Banfield Process; and Margaret. Machine-made plates are usually stamped with the weight of coating per box of 112 sheets, 28 by 20-in size.

Sizes of Sheets. The common sizes of tin plates are 10 by 14 in and multiples of that measure. The sizes generally used are 14 by 20 in and 28 by 20 in. The larger size is the more economical to lay, and hence roofers prefer to use it; but for flat roofs the 14 by 20-in size makes the better roof.

Thicknesses of Sheets. Terne-plates are made in two thicknesses, IC, in which the iron body weighs about 50 lb per 100 sq ft, and IX, in which it weighs 62½ lb per 100 sq ft. For roofing, the IC, or lighter weight, is to be preferred, because the seams do not contract and expand as much as they do when the thicker plates are used. For spouts, valleys and gutters, however, IX plates should always be specified, and should preferably be used for flashings, as they are stiffer and less liable to be dented or punched. The thickness of the iron does not add to the durability of the plates, as this depends entirely upon the tin coating.

Weights of Sheets. The standard weight of 14 by 20-in IC terne-plates is 107 lb for 112 sheets, the number usually packed in one box, and of 14 by 20-in IX sheets, 135 lb. The 28 by 20-in sheets should weigh just twice as much. The black sheets, before coating, should weigh, per 112 sheets, from 95 to 100 lb for IC, 14 by 20-in sheets, and from 125 to 130 lb for IX, 14 by 20-in sheets. The difference between the weights of the black sheets and finished sheets is the weight of the tin. A heavily coated tin should weigh from 115 to 120 lb per 112 sheets for IC, 14 by 20-in sheets, and from 145 to 150 lb for IX, 14 by 20-in sheets. The 28 by 20-in sheets should, of course, weigh twice as much.

The Roof. Roofs of less than one-third pitch are made with FLAT SEAMS and should preferably be covered with 14 by 20-in sheets rather than with 28 by 20-in sheets, because the larger number of seams stiffens the surface and helps to prevent buckles and rattling in stormy weather. For a flat-seam roof, the edges of the sheets are turned ½ in, locked together and well soaked with solder. The sheets are fastened to the sheathing-boards by cleats spaced 8 in apart and locked in the seams. Two 1-in barbed and tinned-wire nails are used in each cleat. No nails should be driven through the sheets. The seams must be made with great care and sufficient time taken to properly SWEAT the solder into the seams. Steep tin roofs should be made with STANDING SEAMS and with 28 by 20-in sheets. The sheets are first single-seamed or double-seamed and usually soldered together, preferably end to end, into long strips that reach from eaves to ridge. The sloping seams are composed of two UPSTANDS, interlocked at the upper edge, and held to the sheathing-boards by cleats. The standing seams are usually not soldered but simply locked together with the cleats folded in about 1 ft apart. Nails should be driven into the cleats only. The use of acid in soldering the seams of a tin roof should be carefully avoided as acid coming in contact with the bare iron on the cut edges and corners, where the sheets are folded and seamed together, causes rusting. No other soldering-flux but good rosin should ever be used.

Durability of Tin Roofs. A tin roof of good material, properly put on, and kept properly painted, will last from forty to fifty years, or longer. All traces of rosin left on the roof should be removed as soon as the tin is laid and soldered, and one coat of paint should be applied promptly; a second coat should follow two weeks after the first. One or more layers of felt or water-proof paper should be placed under the tin, to serve as a cushion, and also to deaden the noise produced by rain striking the tin. The durability of tin roofing, and especially of tin gutters, valleys and flashings, is generally increased by painting the tin on the back before laying. An excellent paint for tin roofs is composed of 10 lb of Venetian red, 1 lb of red lead and 1 gal of pure linseed-oil.

Maintenance of Tin Roofs. The tin roof should be given one coat of paint after it is laid and an additional coat of paint at four-year or five-year intervals should be amply sufficient to keep its upper surface in first-class condition as long as the building stands. With each painting the roof is fully restored to its original condition. Graphite and tar paints should be avoided on tin roofs. Metallic brown, Venetian red, red oxide or red lead, only, should be used as pigments, with pure linseed-oil. Tinned gutters should be swept clear of accumulations of leaves, dirt, etc., and if water has a tendency to lie in the gutters they should be painted yearly.

Number of Sheets Required to a Square. For FLAT-SEAM ROOFING a sheet of tin 14 by 20 in, with ½-in edges, measures, when edged or folded, 13 by 19 in, or 247 sq in; but its covering capacity when joined to other sheets on the roof is only 12½ by 18½ in, or 231.25 sq in. The number of sheets to a square, therefore, equals 14 400 divided by 231.25, or 63, and an area of 1 000 sq ft requires 625 sheets. A box of 112 14 by 20-in sheets will cover, approximately, 180 sq ft. Sheets 28 by 20 in, when edged or folded, have a covering capacity of 490.25 sq in, each. To cover 1 000 sq ft (10 squares) requires 294 sheets. For STANDING-SEAM ROOFING the locks require 2¾ in off the width and 1½ in off the length of the sheet. A 28 by 20-in sheet, with the seams on the long edges, will cover 463 sq in. To cover 1 000 sq ft requires 312 sheets.

The Cost of Tin Roofing varies from $8 to $12 per square, according to the grade of the tin, the locality and nature of the work and the scale of wages. Standing-seam roofs cost about 50 cts a square less than flat-seam roofs. The cost, when 14 by 20-in sheets are used, is about 25% more than for 28 by 20-in

sheets, owing to the greater number of seams; hence, more tin, solder, cleats and work are required.

How a Tin Roof Should be Laid *

The Slope of the Roof. If the tin is laid with a flat seam or flat lock, the roof should have an incline of ½ in or more to 1 ft. If laid with a standing seam, there should be an incline of not less than 2 in to 1 ft. Although tin is used on roofs of less pitch than this and on some which are almost flat, a good pitch is desirable to prevent the accumulation of water and dirt in shallow puddles. Gutters, valleys, etc., should have sufficient incline to prevent water from standing in them or backing up far enough to reach standing seams. Tongued and grooved sheathing-boards of well-seasoned dry lumber are recommended. Narrow widths are preferable, and the boards should be free from holes, and of even thickness. A new tin roof should never be laid over old tin, rotten shingles, or tar roofs. Sheathing-paper is not necessary where the boards are laid as specified above. If steam, fumes, or gases are likely to reach the under side of the tin, some good water-proof sheathing-paper, such as black Neponset paper, should be used. Tarred paper should never be used. No nails should be driven through the sheets.

Flat-Seam Tin Roofing. When the sheets are laid singly, they should be fastened to the sheathing-boards by cleats, using three to each sheet, two on the long side and one on the short side. Two 1-in barbed-wire nails should be used to each cleat. If the tin is put on in rolls the sheets should be made up into long lengths in the shop, and the cross-seams locked together and well soaked with solder. They should be edged ½ in, and fastened to the roof with cleats spaced 8 in apart, and the cleats locked into the seam and fastened to the roof with two 1-in barbed-wire nails to each cleat.

Standing-Seam Tin Roofing. The sheets should be put together in long lengths in the shop, and the cross-seams locked together and well soaked with solder. They should be applied to the roof the narrow way, and fastened with cleats spaced 1 ft apart. One edge of the course is turned up 1¼ in at a right angle, and the cleats are installed. The adjoining edge of the next course is turned up 1½ in, and these edges are locked, turned over and the seam flattened to a rounded edge.

Valleys and Gutters. These should be lined with IX tin, and formed with flat seams, the sheets being applied the narrow way. It is important to see that good solder, bearing the manufacturer's name, is used, that it is guaranteed one-half tin and one-half lead, new metals, and that nothing but rosin is used as a flux. The solder should be well sweated into all seams and joints.

Painting. All painting should be done by the roofer. The tin should be painted one coat on the under side before it is applied to the roof. The upper surface of the tin roof should be carefully cleaned of all rosin-spots, dirt, etc., and immediately painted. The approved paints are metallic brown, Venetian red, red oxide, and red lead, mixed with pure linseed-oil. No patent drier or turpentine should be used. All coats of paint should be applied with a hand-brush, and well rubbed on. A second coat should be applied two weeks after the first and a third coat one year later.

Caution. No unnecessary walking over the tin roof, or use of it for storage of materials, should be allowed at any time. Workmen should wear rubber-soled shoes or overshoes when on the roof. Wherever the slope is steep enough the tin should be laid with standing seams, which allow for expansion and contraction.

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* These suggestions are in accordance with the standard working specifications adopted by the National Association of Sheet Metal Contractors.

Sizes, Weights, Etc., of Roofing-Tin *

Roofing-tin is usually furnished in two sizes, sheets 14 by 20 in and 28 by 20 in, packed 112 sheets to the box. Target-and-Arrow tin is furnished in three thicknesses: IC thickness, approximately No. 30 gauge, U. S. Standard; IX thickness, approximately No. 28 gauge, U. S. Standard; 2X thickness, approximately No. 27 gauge, U. S. Standard, etc. Weight per 100 sq ft laid on the roof, about 65 lb for IC thickness.

Covering Capacity of Roofing-Tin

Flat-Seam Tin Roofing. The following table shows the quantity of 14 by 20-in tin required to cover a given number of square feet with flat-seam tin roofing. A sheet 14 by 20 in with ½ in edges measures, when edged or folded, 13 by 19, or 247 sq in, but its covering capacity when joined to other sheets on the roof is only 12½ by 18½ in, or 231.25 sq in. In the following table each fractional part of a sheet is counted a full sheet.

No. of square feet.	100	110	120	130	140	150	160	170	180	190	200
Sheets required...	63	69	75	81	88	94	100	106	112	119	125
No. of square feet.	210	220	230	240	250	260	270	280	290	300	310
Sheets required...	131	137	144	150	156	162	169	175	181	187	193
No. of square feet.	320	330	340	350	360	370	380	390	400	410	420
Sheets required...	200	206	212	218	224	231	237	243	249	256	262
No. of square feet.	430	440	450	460	470	480	490	500	510	520	530
Sheets required...	268	274	281	287	293	299	305	312	318	324	330
No. of square feet.	540	550	560	570	580	590	600	610	620	630	640
Sheets required...	337	343	349	355	362	368	374	380	386	393	399
No. of square feet.	650	660	670	680	690	700	710	720	730	740	750
Sheets required...	405	411	418	424	430	436	442	448	455	461	467
No. of square feet.	760	770	780	790	800	810	820	830	840	850	860
Sheets required...	474	480	486	492	499	505	511	517	523	530	536
No. of square feet.	870	880	890	900	910	920	930	940	950	960	970
Sheets required...	542	548	554	561	567	573	579	586	592	598	604
No. of square feet.	980	990	1000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sheets required...	610	617	625	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

A box of 112 sheets 14 by 20 in laid in this way will cover 180 sq ft.

Flat-Seam Tin Roofing. The following table shows the number of 28 by 20-in sheets required to cover a given number of square feet with flat-seam tin roofing. The flat seams edged ½ in take 1½ in off the length and width of the sheet. The covering capacity of each sheet is, therefore, 26½ by 18½ in, or 490.25 sq in. In the following table each fractional part of a sheet is counted a full sheet.

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* The following tables of sizes, weights, covering capacities and costs are adapted from useful data compiled for the use of sheet-metal workers by the N. & G. Taylor Company, Philadelphia, Pa.

No. of square feet.	100	110	120	130	140	150	160	170	180	190	200
Sheets required...	30	33	36	39	42	45	47	50	53	56	59
No. of square feet.	210	220	230	240	250	260	270	280	290	300	310
Sheets required...	62	65	68	71	74	77	80	83	86	89	92
No. of square feet.	320	330	340	350	360	370	380	390	400	410	420
Sheets required...	94	97	100	103	106	109	112	115	118	121	124
No. of square feet.	430	440	450	460	470	480	490	500	510	520	530
Sheets required...	127	130	133	136	139	141	144	147	150	153	156
No. of square feet.	540	550	560	570	580	590	600	610	620	630	640
Sheets required...	159	162	165	168	171	174	177	180	183	186	188
No. of square feet.	650	660	670	680	690	700	710	720	730	740	750
Sheets required...	191	194	197	200	203	206	209	212	215	218	221
No. of square feet.	760	770	780	790	800	810	820	830	840	850	860
Sheets required...	224	227	230	233	235	238	241	244	247	250	253
No. of square feet.	870	880	890	900	910	920	930	940	950	960	970
Sheets required...	256	259	262	265	268	271	274	277	280	282	285
No. of square feet.	980	990	1000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sheets required...	288	291	294	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

A box of 112 sheets 28 by 20 in laid in this way will cover 381 sq ft.

Standing-Seam Tin Roofing. The following table shows the number of 14 by 20-in sheets required to cover a given number of square feet with standing-seam roofing. The standing seams, edged 1¼ and 1½ in, take 2¾ in off the width; and the flat cross-seams, edged ⅜ in, take 1⅛ in off the length of the sheet. The covering capacity of each sheet is, therefore, 11¼ by 18⅞ in, or 212.34 sq in. In the following table each fractional part of a sheet is counted a full sheet.

No. of square feet	100	110	120	130	140	150	160	170	180	190	200
Sheets required...	68	75	82	89	95	102	109	116	123	129	136
No. of square feet.	210	220	230	240	250	260	270	280	290	300	310
Sheets required...	143	150	156	163	170	177	184	190	197	204	211
No. of square feet.	320	330	340	350	360	370	380	390	400	410	420
Sheets required...	218	224	231	238	245	251	258	265	271	279	285
No. of square feet.	430	440	450	460	470	480	490	500	510	520	530
Sheets required...	292	299	306	312	319	326	333	340	346	353	360
No. of square feet.	540	550	560	570	580	590	600	610	620	630	640
Sheets required...	367	374	379	387	393	401	407	414	421	428	435
No. of square feet.	650	660	670	680	690	700	710	720	730	740	750
Sheets required...	441	447	455	462	468	475	482	489	495	501	509
No. of square feet.	760	770	780	790	800	810	820	830	840	850	860
Sheets required...	515	523	529	536	543	550	557	563	570	577	584
No. of square feet.	870	880	890	900	910	920	930	940	950	960	970
Sheets required...	590	597	604	611	618	623	630	637	644	651	658
No. of square feet.	980	990	1000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sheets required...	665	672	679	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

A box of 112 sheets 14 by 20 in laid in this way will cover 165 sq ft.

Standing-Seam Tin Roofing. The following table shows the number of 28 by 20-in sheets required to cover a given number of square feet with standing-seam roofing. The standing seams take 2¾ in off the width, and the flat cross-seams, edged ⅜ in, take 1⅛ in off the length of the sheet. The covering capacity of each sheet is, therefore, 26⅞ by 17¼ in, or 463.59 sq in. In the following table each fractional part of a sheet is counted a full sheet.

No. of square feet.	100	110	120	130	140	150	160	170	180	190	200
Sheets required...	32	35	38	41	44	47	50	53	56	59	62
No. of square feet.	210	220	230	240	250	260	270	280	290	300	310
Sheets required...	65	68	71	74	77	80	84	87	90	94	97
No. of square feet.	320	330	340	350	360	370	380	390	400	410	420
Sheets required...	100	103	106	109	112	115	118	121	125	128	131
No. of square feet.	430	440	450	460	470	480	490	500	510	520	530
Sheets required...	134	137	141	144	147	150	153	156	159	162	165
No. of square feet.	540	550	560	570	580	590	600	610	620	630	640
Sheets required...	168	171	174	177	180	184	187	190	193	196	199
No. of square feet.	650	660	670	680	690	700	710	720	730	740	750
Sheets required...	202	205	208	211	214	218	221	224	227	230	233
No. of square feet.	760	770	780	790	800	810	820	830	840	850	860
Sheets required...	236	239	242	245	249	252	255	258	261	265	268
No. of square feet.	870	880	890	900	910	920	930	940	950	960	970
Sheets required...	271	274	277	280	283	286	289	292	296	299	302
No. of square feet.	980	990	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sheets required...	305	308	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

A box of 112 sheets 28 by 20 in laid in this way will cover 360 sq ft.

Laying the Long or Short Way. Sheets 14 by 20 in can be laid either the long or short way. The best roof is made by laying the sheets the 14-in way; similarly, in using the 28 by 20-in sheets, they should always be laid the 20-in way, that is, with the short dimension crosswise.

Cost of Roofing-Tin

Cost of Tin for Standing-Seam Roofing

Sheets 28 by 20 in. Price per box and per square foot

When tin costs per box......	$11.00	$11.50	$12.00	$12.50	$13.00	$13.50	$14.00	$14.50	$15.00	$15.50
Standing-seam roofing costs per sq ft.....	0.0297	0.0310	0.0324	0.0337	0.0351	0.0364	0.0378	0.0391	0.0404	0.0418
When tin costs per box......	16.00	16.50	17.00	17.50	18.00	18.50	19.00	19.50	20.00	20.50
Standing-seam roofing costs per sq ft.....	0.0432	0.0446	0.0459	0.0473	0.0486	0.0500	0.0513	0.0526	0.0540	0.0553
When tin costs per box......	21.00	21.50	22.00	22.50	23.00	23.50	24.00	24.50	25.00	....
Standing-seam roofing costs per sq ft.....	0.0567	0.0580	0.0594	0.0607	0.0621	0.0634	0.0648	0.0661	0.0675	....

The above estimates do not include cost of laying. The cost, using 14 by 20-in sheets, will amount to about 25% more than the cost, using 28 by 20-in sheets, owing to the greater number of seams. More tin, solder, cleats and work are therefore necessary.

Tin in Rolls, or Gutter-Strips

Number of sheets required per linear foot for 20 and 28-in widths

Feet	Widths		Feet	Widths		Feet	Widths		Hundred feet	Widths	
	20	28		20	28		20	28		20	28
1	1	1	35	16	23	69	31	44	2	89	128
2	1	2	36	16	23	70	32	45	3	134	192
3	2	2	37	17	24	71	32	45	4	178	256
4	2	3	38	17	24	72	32	46	5	223	320
5	3	4	39	18	25	73	33	47	6	267	384
6	3	4	40	18	26	74	33	47	7	312	444
7	4	5	41	19	27	75	34	48	8	356	512
8	4	5	42	19	27	76	34	48	9	401	576
9	4	6	43	20	28	77	35	49	10	445	640
10	5	7	44	20	28	78	35	50	11	495	704
11	5	7	45	20	29	79	36	50	12	540	768
12	6	8	46	21	29	80	36	51	13	585	832
13	6	9	47	21	30	81	36	52	14	630	896
14	7	9	48	22	31	82	37	52	15	675	960
15	7	10	49	22	31	83	37	53	16	720	1 024
16	8	11	50	23	32	84	38	54	17	765	1 088
17	8	11	51	23	33	85	38	54	18	810	1 152
18	8	12	52	24	33	86	39	55	19	855	1 216
19	9	12	53	24	34	87	39	55	20	900	1 280
20	9	13	54	24	34	88	40	56	21	945	1 344
21	10	14	55	25	35	89	40	57	22	990	1 408
22	10	14	56	25	36	90	40	57	23	1 035	1 472
23	11	15	57	26	36	91	41	58	24	1 080	1 536
24	11	16	58	26	37	92	41	59	25	1 135	1 600
25	12	16	59	27	38	93	42	59	26	1 170	1 664
26	12	17	60	27	38	94	42	60	27	1 215	1 738
27	12	18	61	28	39	95	43	61	28	1 260	1 792
28	13	18	62	28	40	96	43	62	29	1 305	1 856
29	13	19	63	28	40	97	44	62	30	1 350	1 920
30	14	19	64	29	41	98	44	63	31	1 395	1 984
31	14	20	65	29	41	99	44	64	32	1 440	2 048
32	15	21	66	30	42	100	45	64	33	1 485	2 112
33	15	21	67	30	43	....	....	....	34	1 530	2 176
34	16	22	68	31	43	....	....	....	35	1 575	2 240

Cost of Tin in Rolls or Gutter-Strips

Labor, solder, paint, rosin and other materials not included

A box of 112 sheets in 28-in roll will cover 175 lin ft
A box of 112 sheets in 20-in roll will cover 248 lin ft
A box of 112 sheets in 14-in roll will cover 350 lin ft
A box of 112 sheets in 10-in roll will cover 496 lin ft

Cost per box (28 by 20 in).........	$10.00	$11.00	$12.00	$13.00	$14.00	$15.00
Cost per linear foot, 28 in wide.....	0.05714	0.06285	0.06856	0.07426	0.07998	0.08569
Cost per linear foot, 20 in wide.....	0.04032	0.04435	0.04838	0.05241	0.05644	0.06047
Cost per box (28 by 20 in)	$16.00	$17.00	$18.00	$19.00	$20.00	.....
Cost per linear foot, 28 in wide.....	0.09149	0.09711	0.10282	0.10853	0.11424	.....
Cost per linear foot, 20 in wide.....	0.06450	0.06853	0.07256	0.07659	0.08062	.....

Tin in Rolls. For the convenience of roofers and for rush-orders, Target-and-Arrow tin is put up in rolls 14, 20 and 28 in wide. Each roll contains 108 sq ft (about 63 lin ft, 28 by 20-in sheets laid 20 in wide). The tin is painted on one or both sides, as wanted, with good metallic brown paint. Seams are carefully soldered by hand, good 100 to 100 solder and rosin being used as a flux.

Slag or Gravel Roofing

The Ordinary Gravel Roofing* over boards is formed by first covering the surface of the roof with dry felt (paper) and over this laying three, four, or five layers of tarred or asphaltic felt lapping each other like shingles, so that only from 6 to 10 in of each layer are exposed. In laying roofs over concrete the dry felt is omitted, a mopping of pitch is placed directly on the concrete and the first layer of the felt embedded in it.

Flashing against walls, chimneys, curbs of skylights, etc., is done by turning the felt up 6 in against the walls. Over this is laid an 8-in strip with half its width on the roof. The upper edge of the strip and of the several layers of felt is then fastened to the walls by nailing wooden strips or laths over the felt and into the walls. Metal flashings to protect the felt are better than the wooden strips and should be used when possible. At the eaves and on all exposed edges, metal gravel-stops should be used.

A Better Method of Slag or Gravel Roofing is to lay two plies of tarred felt, lapping each other 17 in, and then spreading a coat of pitch over the entire roof. On this again three more layers of felt are laid and then coated with pitch, into which the crushed slag or screened gravel is embedded.

Specifications for Pitch-Slag or Gravel Roofing. The following specification-notes † describe the latter method more in detail and also the materials that should be used to secure a first-class job. These roofs are most efficient and durable on comparatively flat inclines. The usual built-up roof consists of successive layers of saturated felt cemented together and surfaced with coal-tar pitch or asphalt, into which is embedded the gravel or slag. Tile is also used as a surfacing material. The saturants used in the felt are generally coal-tar or asphalt-compounds.

(1) Specification for Pitch-Slag or Pitch-Gravel Roofing Over Wooden Sheathing

This specification should not be used when the roof-incline exceeds 3 in to 1 ft.

Lay one thickness of sheathing-paper or unsaturated felt weighing not less than 5 lb per 100 sq ft, lapping the sheets at least 1 in.

Over the entire surface lay two plies ‡ of tarred felt, lapping each sheet 17 in over the preceding one, and nail as often as is necessary to hold them in place until the remaining felt is laid.

Coat the entire surface uniformly with pitch.

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* For specifications for ordinary gravel roofing, including flashing, see page 767 in Building Construction and Superintendence, Part II, Carpenters' Work, by F. E. Kidder.

† Condensed and adapted from specifications published by the Barrett Manufacturing Company and known, in their full form, as "The Barrett Specifications." They can be obtained from the manufacturers.

‡ In the Western States the number of "plies" is construed to mean the total number of layers, including dry as well as saturated felt, and the terms 3-ply, 5-ply, etc., are hereinafter used on that basis. In the Eastern States, 3-ply, 5-ply, etc., usually refers to the number of layers of saturated felt. The total number of layers should always be specified if there is any doubt as to the exact meaning of the term as used in the specifications.

Over the entire surface lay three plies of tarred felt, lapping each sheet 22 in over the preceding one and mopping with pitch the full 22 in on each sheet, so that in no place felt touches felt. Do such nailing as is necessary so that all nails are covered by not less than two plies of felt.

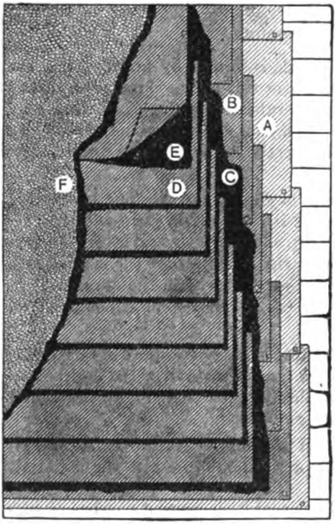

Diagram of Gravel or Slag Roofing on Wooden Sheathing

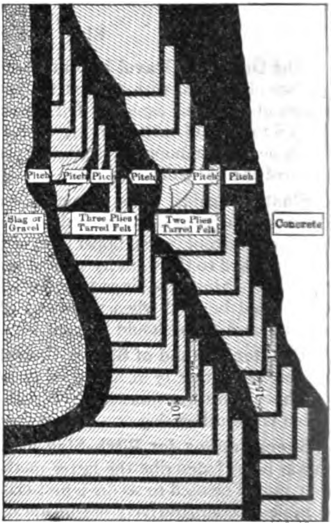

Diagram of Gravel or Slag Roofing on Concrete Base

Spread over the entire surface a uniform coating of pitch, into which, while hot, embed not less than 400 lb of gravel or 300 lb of slag to each 100 sq ft. The grains of the gravel or slag are to be from ¼ to ⅝ in in size, and dry and free from dirt.

The roof may be inspected before the gravel or slag is applied, by cutting a slit not less than 3 ft long at right-angles to the direction in which the felt is laid. All felt and pitch is to bear the manufacturer's label.

(2) Specification for Pitch-Slag or Pitch-Gravel for Roofing over Concrete

This specification should not be used when the roof-incline exceeds 3 in to the foot. When the incline exceeds 1 in to 1 ft the concrete must permit of nailing or nailing-strips must be provided.

Coat the concrete uniformly with hot pitch.

Over the entire surface lay two plies of tarred felt, lapping each sheet 17 in over the preceding one, mopping with pitch the full 17 in on each sheet, so that in no place felt touches felt.

Coat the entire surface uniformly with pitch.

Over the entire surface lay three plies of tarred felt, lapping each sheet 22 in over the preceding one and mopping with pitch the full 22 in on each sheet, so that in no place felt touches felt.

Spread over the entire surface a uniform coating of pitch, into which, while hot, embed not less than 400 lb of gravel or 300 lb of slag to each 100 sq ft. The grains of the gravel or slag are to be from ¼ to ⅝ in in size, and dry and free from dirt.

The roof may be inspected before the gravel or slag is applied, by cutting a slit not less than 3 ft long at right-angles to the direction in which the felt is laid. All felt and pitch is to bear the manufacturer's label.

Notes on Slag and Gravel Roofing. The difference between slag and gravel roofing is that for the former crushed slag is used instead of gravel. The greater the number of plies of tarred felt, the greater the amount of pitch that it is practical to use, and it is the pitch that gives life to the roof. As there are several different weights and qualities of tarred felt, a specification should state either the minimum weight per 100 sq ft, single thickness (the most practical weight is from 14 to 16 lb), or some known quality, such as Barrett's "Specification Tarred Felt." Felt weighing less than 12 lb per 100 sq ft is not economical even on the cheaper work. To comply with the Barrett specification the materials necessary for each 100 sq ft of completed roof are approximately as follows:

Over boards	Material	Over concrete
108 sq ft	Sheathing-paper	None
80 to 85 lb	Specification tarred felt	80 to 85 lb
120 to 160 lb	Specification-pitch	180 to 225 lb
400 lb	Gravel	400 lb
300 lb	Slag	300 lb

In estimating felt, the average weight is practically 15 lb per 100 sq ft, single thickness, and about 10% additional is required for laps. In estimating pitch the weather-conditions and expertness of the workmen will affect the amount necessary for the moppings and for a proper embedding of the gravel or slag. As there are several qualities of pitch, a specification should either specify it by name, such as "Specification-Pitch" or "Straight-Run Coal-Tar Pitch," or in specifying asphalt-pitch, the brand or origin should be plainly defined. The use of an under-layer of sheathing-paper next to board-sheathing is mainly for the purpose of preventing any pitch which might penetrate the felt from cementing the roofing to the sheathing. It is also of value in preventing the drying out of the roof from below through open joints. Where a less expensive roof is desired, four plies or three plies of saturated felt may be used. With the four plies there should be used from 90 to 100 lb of pitch per 100 sq ft of completed roof; and with the three plies from 70 to 80 lb of pitch.

Durability of Slag or Gravel Roofs. These roofs, mentioned in the preceding paragraph, will last from five to ten years, or even longer, depending upon the quality of the materials used and the care with which they have been applied. Roofing put on strictly as provided for in the standard specifications will last twenty years or more, and if a tile surface is used, instead of gravel or slag, the roofing will last as long as the structure itself.

Resistance to Fire, Acid-Fumes, Etc. The fire-resisting properties of the slag or gravel roof are due principally to the incombustible material on the surface. It is claimed that the gravel or slag tends to prevent the successive layers of felt and pitch from burning and the whole mass has a blanketing influence on fires originating within the building. Some carefully conducted tests seem to indicate that gravel roofing protects a wooden roof better than tin. The general effect of a fire upon gravel roofing is to soften the pitch or asphalt in the roofing, to burn out the inflammable oil in them and to cause the residue to swell and form a porous, incombustible coke. This type of roofing is not attacked by corrosive gases or acid-fumes, and is used extensively on railroad-roundhouses and other structures where the conditions are particularly severe. Coal-tar or tar-oil should not be added to the pitch to soften it.

Guarantee. Roofers generally give a five-year guarantee with gravel roofs.

Cost of Pitch-Slag or Gravel Roofing. The cost of this type of roofing varies greatly, depending on the location, size and quality of the work, the extremes being approximately $2.50 and $3.50 per square for three-ply, $3.50 and $4.50 per square for four-ply, and $4.50 and $7.00 per square for five-ply roofing.

Asphalt-Gravel Roofing

Asphalt-Gravel or Asphalt-Slag Roofing differs from coal-tar roofing principally in the substitution of asphalt or asphaltic cement for the coal-tar pitch, for saturating the felt as well as for mopping and surface-coating. It is claimed that the oils of asphalt do not evaporate as quickly as do those of coal-tar pitch under ordinary temperatures and that therefore the flexibility and life of asphaltic felts and coatings are not as quickly destroyed. As a matter of fact, asphalt roofs do not always last longer than some coal-tar roofs, but the chances are that they will last fully as long and possibly longer, depending upon the quality of the materials and the workmanship. The asphalt used for roofing is obtained principally from the island of Trinidad.

Specifications for Asphalt Roofing.* The following specifications were prepared by the above-named company and are for Warren's heavy standard Anchor-brand roofing. The manner of laying the felting differs from that ordinarily employed for coal-tar roofing.

(1) Specification for Asphalt-Gravel Roofing Over Wooden Sheathing

Cover the roof with two thicknesses of Warren's Composite roofing-felt, manila-paper side down, lapping each sheet 17 in over the preceding one, and securing with nails through tin discs about 2½ ft apart.

Over the entire surface of the Composite felt thus laid, mop an even coating of Warren's Anchor Brand roofing-cement, into which, while hot, lay one thickness of Anchor Brand felt, lapping each sheet at least 2 in over the preceding one, sticking these laps thoroughly with hot roofing-cement and securing with nails through tin discs.

Over this first sheet of felt, mop again an even coating of cement, and over this lay a second sheet of felt having the laps come in the middle of the first sheet of felt underneath, sticking the 2-in laps as before and securing with nails through tin discs about 1½ in from the upper edge of the sheet.

Over the entire surface of the felt thus prepared, spread an even coating of the cement, covering it immediately with a sufficient body of well-screened, dry gravel or crushed slag.

If the roofing is applied in cold weather the gravel or slag must be heated.

(2) Specification for Asphalt-Gravel Roofing Over Concrete

The concrete foundation is to be smooth and perfectly graded to carry the water to the outlets or gutters.

Over the entire surface of the concrete first mop an even coating of Warren's

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* The asphalt-roofing materials manufactured by the Warren Chemical & Manufacturing Company of New York have been used for many years and have given good satisfaction.

Eclipse Asphalt cement, into which, while hot, lay two thicknesses of Warren's Anchor Brand roofing-felt, lapping each sheet 17 in over the sheet preceding.

Mop back for the full width between the laps of the felt thus laid, with Warren's Anchor Brand roofing-cement.

Over the entire exposed surface of the felt mop an even coating of said cement, into which, while hot, lay a third thickness of the felt, lapping each sheet at least 2 in over the sheet preceding, and sticking these laps thoroughly with hot roofing-cement.

Over this third sheet of felt, mop an even coating of cement and over this lay a fourth sheet of fel , having the laps come in the middle of the sheet underneath, and sticking the 2-in laps as before.

Over the entire surface of the felt thus prepared, spread an even coating of the cement, covering it immediately with a sufficient body of well-screened, dry gravel or crushed slag.

If the roofing is applied in cold weather, the gravel or slag must be heated.

Cost of Asphalt-Gravel or Slag Roofing. Asphalt-gravel roofing costs a little more than pitch-gravel roofing of the same grade. (See Cost of Pitch-Slag or Gravel Roofing, page 1512.)

Roof-Incline.* Asphalt-gravel or asphalt-slag roofing should not be applied to roofs which are steep enough to make the material run in hot weather. The manufacturers of various roofings will guarantee the permanency of their roofings for certain maximum slopes.

Prepared Roofing. There is a large number of so-called PREPARED ROOFINGS or READY ROOFINGS, which are made by cementing together two, three, or more layers of saturated felt or felt and burlap and then coating the combination either with a hard solution of the same cementing material, or with hot pitch or asphalt into which is embedded sand or fine gravel. These roofings are commonly put up in rolls 36 in wide and are applied by lapping the strips 2 in with a coat of cementing material between, and nailing every 2 or 3 in with tin-capped roofing-nails. A sufficient quantity of cement, nails and tin caps is packed in the middle of the rolls. The particular advantage of these roofings is that no previous experience is required for laying them and no kettles are required; for this reason they are extensively used in the country, and on railroad-shops, factories, and mill-buildings. In cities there is no particular advantage in using them except for roofs that are too steep for coal-tar pitch, as they cost on the roof about the same as good gravel roofing. Many of these prepared roofings are as durable under ordinary conditions as the light-weight gravel roofs. In Colorado, however, it has been found that they are badly damaged by severe hail-storms, probably owing to the lack of the protecting gravel. For roofs having a rise of 1 in or more to the foot, these roofings make economical and durable roofs, and for some buildings are to be preferred to other materials.

Corrugated Iron and Steel Sheets

Corrugated Sheets of iron and steel are very extensively used for the roofing and siding of mills, sheds, grain-elevators and warehouses. The best grades of corrugated sheets are now made of double-refined box-annealed iron or steel.†

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* The Editor has been notified by the Warren Chemical & Manufacturing Company, New York, that when put on according to their directions, their Anchor Brand roofing has been successfully used on relatively steep surfaces where the slope was as high as 9 in to the foot.

† It is claimed that "the life of a genuine PUDDLED-IRON sheet when exposed only to the pure air and natural elements is from five to eight times longer, and when exposed to

The corrugations are usually made lengthwise of the sheet, either by passing them through rolls or by pressing the plain sheets in a press made to give the desired corrugations. It is claimed that the latter method gives the more perfect and uniform corrugations. The weight and thickness of the metal is represented by the gauge-number of the black sheets from which the corrugated sheets are made. The standard gauge* for sheet iron and steel in this country is that established by act of Congress, March 3, 1893.

Gauges. The following table gives the weights and thicknesses of the different gauges, from No. 7 to No. 30, for flat BLACK SHEETS. The gauge extends from No. 7-0, ½ in thick, up to No. 40, 0.005469 in thick, but sheet steel is not commonly made thinner than No. 30, and above 3/16 in, the thickness is generally designated by fractions of an inch. Section 3 of the act of Congress provides that in the practical use and application of this gauge, a variation of 2½% either way may be allowed.

United States Standard Gauge for Sheet Iron and Steel

Number of gauge	Thicknesses		Weights	
	Approximate thickness in fractions of an inch	Approximate thickness in decimal parts of an inch	Weight per square foot in ounces, avoirdupois	Weight per square foot in pounds avoirdupois
7	3/16	0.1875	120	7.5
8	11/64	0.171875	110	6.875
9	5/32	0.15625	100	6.25
10	9/64	0.140625	90	5.625
11	1/8	0.125	80	5.0
12	7/64	0.109375	70	4.375
13	3/32	0.09375	60	3.75
14	5/64	0.078125	50	3.125
15	9/128	0.0703125	45	2.8125
16	1/16	0.0625	40	2.5
17	9/160	0.05625	36	2.25
18	1/20	0.05	32	2.0
19	7/160	0.04375	28	1.75
20	3/80	0.0375	24	1.50
21	11/320	0.034375	22	1.375
22	1/32	0.03125	20	1.25
23	9/320	0.028125	18	1.125
24	1/40	0.025	16	1.0
25	7/320	0.021875	14	0.875
26	3/160	0.01875	12	0.75
27	11/640	0.0171875	11	0.6875
28	1/64	0.015625	10	0.625
29	9/640	0.0140625	9	0.5625
30	1/80	0.0125	8	0.5

Galvanizing the Sheets adds approximately 2½ oz per sq ft to the above weights. The regular sizes of the corrugations are 2½, 1¼, ⅝ and 3/16 in, measured from center to center. Besides these sizes, 5-in, 3-in and 2-in corru-

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sulphurous and other gases from ten to twenty times longer, than a sheet of steel or semi-steel of the same gauge, or a light-gauge sheet made from pure puddled pig-iron; and that it will wear longer than steel sheets of the heaviest gauges, or galvanized sheets of the same gauge."

* For other gauges, see pages 402, 403, 1387, 1424 and 1426.

gations are made by one or two corrugating companies. Corrugated sheets are carried in stock in 4-ft, 5-ft, 6-ft, 7-ft, 8-ft, 9-ft and 10-ft lengths. Sheets can be obtained as long as 12 ft at a cost of 5% extra. The 8-ft length, however, is most commonly used. The width of the sheets, as a rule, is 24 in between centers of the outer corrugations, so that the covering width is 24 in when one corrugation is used for the side lap. This applies to all sizes of corrugations, all though one or two mills make wider sheets. The 2-in, 2½-in and 3-in corrugated sheets are made in all gauges from No. 16 to No. 28, the 1¼-in corrugated sheets from No. 22 to No. 28, the ⅝-in corrugated sheets from No. 24 to No. 28 and the 3/16-in corrugated sheets in Nos. 26, 27 and 28 only. No. 28 gauge is the one commonly used for all purposes. The sheets are generally painted with a red mineral paint before shipping and galvanized sheets, also, can be obtained if desired. All corrugated sheets are sold by the square (100 sq ft), measuring the actual widths and lengths of the corrugated sheets.

Corrugated-Steel Roofing *

Useful Data. For covering roofs, either 3-in, 2½-in, or 2-in corrugations should be used, the 2½-in being the most common size. The thickness or gauge depends upon the distance between the supports on which the sheets are laid.

Nos. 26 to 28 gauges should be laid on close sheathing, or strips not more than from 1 to 2 ft on centers. The maximum distances between supports for other gauges should be as follows: †

For No. 24 gauge, from 2 to 2½ ft, center to center.

For Nos. 22 and 20 gauge, from 2 to 3 ft, center to center.

For No. 18 gauge, from 4 to 5 ft, center to center.

For No. 16 gauge, 5 to 6 ft, center to center.

The least pitch which should be given to roofs that are to be covered with corrugated sheets is 3 in to the foot, and for trussed roofs it is not desirable to have less than a one-fourth pitch (6 in to the foot). When laid on a roof, corrugated sheets should have a lap at the lower end of from 3 to 6 in, according to the pitch of the roof. For a ⅓ pitch, a 3-in lap is used; for a ¼ pitch, a 4-in lap; and for a ⅙ pitch, a 5-in lap. For the side lap it is recommended that each alternate sheet be laid upside down and lapped as shown in Fig. 1. By this method, when water is blown through the first lap, it will stop and not pass the half lap, but run down and out at the end of the sheet. A great deal of roofing, however, is laid as in Fig. 2. In applying to sheathing or wooden strips, the sheets are secured by nailing through the tops of the corrugations, the nails being driven through every alternate corrugation at the ends, and about 8 in

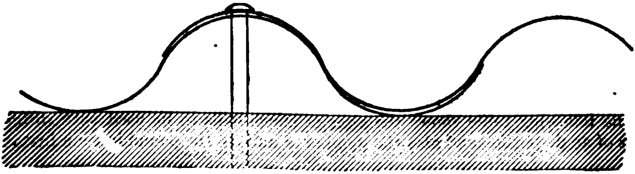

Fig. 1. Approved Method of Laying for Side Lap

apart at the sides. When applied to iron or steel purlins, the side laps should extend over at least 1½ corrugations, and the sheets should be riveted together every 8 in on the sides and at every alternate corrugation at the ends. The Cincinnati Corrugating Company makes a patent edge-corrugation which makes a tight joint with a lap of only one corrugation. To fasten the sheets to the purlins, which are usually steel angles, cleats of band-iron, ¾ or ⅞ in wide, may be passed around or under the purlins and riveted at both ends to the sheets, as shown in Fig. 3. By contracting or pressing these cleats toward the web, a tight, secure fastening results, which allows for contraction and expansion of the sheets. Cleats, however, are generally used only with channel or Z-bar purlins. For angle-iron purlins, clinch-nails, made of soft-iron wire, are commonly used, as shown in Fig. 4; they make very satisfactory fastenings.

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* Much practical information regarding the use of corrugated sheets on mill-buildings, with many details, is contained in Steel Mill Buildings and in the Structural Engineers' Handbook, by Milo S. Ketchum.

† For the strength of corrugated sheets, see the books above mentioned.

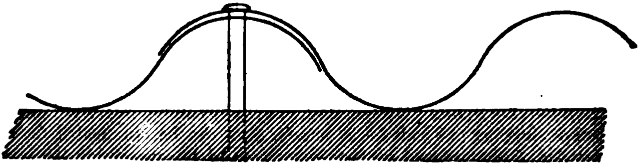

Fig. 2. Common Method of Laying for Side Lap

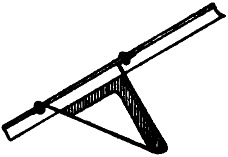

Fig. 3. Sheets Fastened to Angle-purlin by Band-iron Cleats

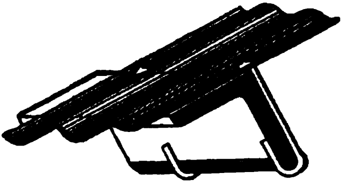

Fig. 4. Sheets Fastened to Angle-purlin by Clinch-nails

The following table shows the sizes of clinch-nails to be used with different sizes of angle-purlins and also the number of nails to the pound in each instance:

Purlin-angles	2×2 in	2½×3 in	3½×3½ in	4×4½ in
Lengths of nails	4 in	5 in	6 in	7 in
Number of nails per pound	48	38	33	27

The nails should be placed through the TOP of every second or third corrugation. At the eaves of the building and along the edges of the ventilators special pains should be taken in fastening the roofing, as these are the places where the force of the wind is the greatest and where it tends to strip the roofing from the purlins. For these parts of the roof the best method of fastening is that shown in Fig. 5. These fastenings consist of strips of sheet iron about 2 in wider than the purlins, made of No. 12 iron and riveted to the purlins with ¼-in rivets spaced 10 in apart. To these strips the corrugated sheets are riveted, every 5 in or every two corrugates, with 6-lb rivets. The method of fastening shown in Fig. 6, also, answers very well and is less expensive.

In ordering corrugated sheets an allowance must be made for the laps. The following table gives the number of square feet necessary to cover one square of actual surface, using sheets 8 ft long. If shorter sheets are used, the allowance must be slightly increased.

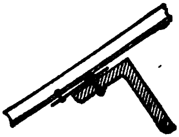

Fig. 5. Approved Fastening for Sheets at Eaves

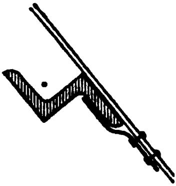

Fig. 6. Alternate Method of Fastening at Eaves

Number of Square Feet of Corrugated Sheets to Cover 100 Square Feet of Roof

End-laps	1 in	2 in	3 in	4 in	5 in	6 in
	sq ft	sq ft	sq ft	sq ft	sq ft	sq ft
Side lap, 1 corrugation	110	111	112	113	114	115
Side lap, 1½ corrugations	116	117	118	119	120	121
Side lap, 2 corrugations	123	124	125	126	127	128

Approximate Weights in Pounds of 100 Square Feet of 2½-in Corrugated Sheets

Gauge	No. 28	No. 27	No. 26	No. 24	No. 22	No. 20	No. 18	No. 16
Painted	69	77	84	111	138	165	220	275
Galvanized	86	93	99	127	154	182	236	291

Anti-Condensation Lining. Wherever corrugated steel is laid on purlins with no sheathing or paper underneath, if the building is heated, moisture will invariably collect on the under side, and if the air in the building is warm and humid, considerable dripping will result. To prevent this dripping, it is necessary to protect the under side of the corrugated steel with paper or felt. This may be done by first stretching poultry-netting over the purlins, from eaves to ridge, and wiring the strips together at the edges. Over this should be laid one thickness of asbestos paper and one or two layers of saturated felt. The corrugated steel may then be fastened to the purlins in the usual way. The side laps may be secured by stove-bolts, with 1 by ¼ by 4-in plate washers on the under side, to support the lining.

Corrugated Siding

For Siding, either the 2½, 2, or 1¼-in corrugations are used. The 1¼-in size, however, makes the best appearance. For the laps, 1 in at the bottom and one corrugation at the sides are sufficient.

For Sheds, etc., the sheets may be nailed to cross-pieces cut in between the studs horizontally and spaced from 2 to 3 ft apart, the studs being from 3 to 4 ft on centers. For elevators, either cross-corrugated sheets or sheets not more than 32 in long should be used. The nails should be driven in the trough of each alternate corrugation, 2 in above the lower end of the sheet, which will be 1 in ABOVE the top end of the under sheet. This allows the sheet to slide 1 in in 32 in as the building settles, before the nail will strike the upper end of the lower sheet. The side lap should not be nailed.

Ceilings. For the ceilings of stores, stables, etc., 3/16 or 5/8-in corrugated sheets are much used; and the construction is an excellent one for this purpose.

Galvanized Iron. This term is commonly applied to all galvanized sheet metal, although most, if not all, of the galvanized sheets of the present day have a steel base. The best quality of galvanized iron bears the trade-mark "Apollo" or "Apollo Best Bloom." Galvanized sheets come in lengths of 6, 7 and 8 ft in United States Gauge-Nos. 14, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 26, 27, 28 and 30, and in widths of 24, 26, 28, 30 and 36 in for all gauges except No. 30, which is made only in widths of 24, 26 and 28 in. Sheets of No. 28 gauge are also made in widths of 32 and 34 in. The widths commonly carried in stock are 24, 28 and 30 in. Most of the galvanized iron used for cornices and ornamental work is No. 27 gauge. No. 28 is sometimes used for gutters and conductors.

Copper for Roofs

Method of Applying. This is usually in 2½ by 5-ft sheets, making 12½ sq ft and weighing from 10 to 14 lb per sheet. It is laid on boards to which it is fastened by copper cleats. No solder is employed, as it is in tin roofs, in the horizontal joints, and the horizontal and sloping joints are made by simply overlapping and bending the sheets. The horizontal joints are locked together and then tightly flattened down.

MEMORANDA ON TILING

Floor-Tiling and Wall-Tiling

Tile Floors are extensively used in the better class of buildings, and particularly in those portions which are used by the public, on account of their great durability, sanitary qualities and decorative effects. As a matter of fact, a good tile floor is also cheaper in the long run than a wooden floor if it is subject to much wear. The materials used for tiling floors are tiles made from different grades of clay, marble, slate, glass and rubber. Of these probably the most durable and sanitary are the vitreous clay tiles. For walls and wainscotings, glazed tiles, marbles and glass are extensively used.

Floor-Tiles. The following include some of the principle kinds of clay tiles:

(1) **Common Encaustic Tiles.** These belong to the cheapest grades, and are made of naturally colored clays, red, buff, gray, chocolate and black. These tiles are of a porous, absorbent nature and are used for common floors where sanitary requirements are not exacting.

(2) **Semivitreous Tiles.** These belong to a somewhat better grade than the first mentioned and are less porous and absorbent.

(3) **Vitreous Tiles.** These are the hardest tiles known, cannot be scratched by steel or sand, and are non-absorbent and thoroughly aseptic. They are used principally for floors requiring a perfect sanitary condition and are manufactured in white, blue, gray, green and pink colors of great delicacy.

(4) **Ceramic Tiles or Ceramic Roman Mosaic.** This material is made of VITREOUS clay in tesseral pieces representing the tesseræ of the Roman mosaics. It is made into regular tiles ranging from ½ to ¾-in squares and also in hexagonal shapes from ¾ in to 1 in in size. A rounded LOZENGE TILE is also manufactured to be laid in tesseral paving. (See, also, Flooring of Mosaic, Terrazzo, etc., page 1521.)

The material itself is of great hardness and well suited for work of a monumental or public character. The even and regular texture of the tesseræ admits the adoption of DAMASK DESIGNS which have become identified and associated with this material. The minuteness of the tesseræ admits of a great range in designing and the following of the architectural lines. The ceramic Roman mosaic is much preferred to mosaic consisting of natural marbles, because of the great variety in colors and its greater durability. The vitreous-clay tiles are impervious to attacks of any acids contained in the atmosphere, while marbles, especially, are subject to rapid disintegration caused by the sulphuric acid contained in the smoke-laden atmosphere of our cities.

(5) **Florentine Mosaics and Flint Tiles.** These are the largest and heaviest tiles manufactured in this country. They are either plain or inlaid and are in use especially in ecclesiastic work on account of their relation to mediæval application. The material is vitreous, annealed and tougher than it is brittle. It is also in use for exterior polychrome work.

(6) **Aseptic Tiles.** These are large, heavy and thoroughly vitreous tiles used for institute work. They are the only vitreous tiles of large size made in this country. As the tiles are large and generally of hexagonal shape, the joint-spaces are reduced to a minimum, and they are, therefore, especially adapted for hospitals, operating-rooms and wards for contagious diseases.

Enameled Tiles, Wall-Tiles and Mantel-Tiles. The following include some of the enameled tiles:

(1) **White, Wall-Tiles.** These are glazed tiles for wainscots. They have a white, soft body and a surface covered with a clear glaze. The brilliancy of this glaze and its reflecting properties make the white wall-tiles especially desirable for dark passages.

(2) **Colored, Glazed or Enameled Tiles.** These tiles are about the same as the former in quality; the GLAZE or ENAMEL, however, is stained with metallic oxides, which produces a brilliant decorative effect.

(3) **Dull-Satin, etc., Finished, Enameled Tiles.** These are glazed tiles with a DULL or BLIND enamel-finish. The dull finish is produced either by sand-blasting or by devitrifying enamels. It is principally used for quaint decorative effects in mantel-work.

(4) **Glazed Roman Mosaics.** This is a type of enameled tiling which has great decorative possibilities. It has the same tesseral texture as the ceramic floor-tiles and is readily applied to wainscots and mantel-work.

Setting of Tiles. Clay tiles are set in Portland-cement mortar as a rule, and flooring of this character should always be provided with a substantial concrete base. Ceramic mosaics are sometimes laid on a flexible base. With this construction wooden floors can be provided with tile covering, and owing to the elasticity and lightness of the material, floors in elevators, boats and other ambulant structures can be safely tiled.

Marble Tiles, from 9 to 12 in square, have been extensively used for flooring, principally on account of their decorative effect. None of the marbles, however, is as hard and consequently as durable as the vitreous and ceramic tiles, an from all practical standpoints the marbles do not make as good floor-coverings. When used, they should be 1¼ in thick and not over 12 in square, and should be bedded in cement on a concrete base. Marbles should not be used for flooring in hospitals, as they yield rapidly to the usual antiseptic floor-washes.

Slate, although non-absorbent and not affected even by dilute mineral acids, is too cold and dingy to commend itself for floor-tiles, but because it is conveniently handled in large slabs it is valuable as a cheap base and as a cover for wiring and pipe-trenches in the floors. As these often follow a wall, it may serve in the capacity of a border and as such be extended around the floor-space. Slate slabs for floors should be about 1¼ in thick.

Marbleithic Tiles or Slabs are made of small pieces or chips of marbles of irregular shapes, set in a backing of sand and Portland cement. After the cement has set, the top surface is rubbed until it becomes flat and smooth. Marbleithic resembles mosaic or TERRAZZO, except that it is laid in the form of tiles instead of being put down on the floor in a plastic condition. Much objection has been made to TERRAZZO because of the cracks which commonly occur in it, due to the slight settlements which are unavoidable in a new building. (See, also, Flooring of Mosaic, Terrazzo, etc., page 1521.) With tile floors of any material the joints allow for any slight movement of the floor-construction, without causing visible cracks. By the process of manufacture, marbleithic is made much harder than it is possible to make mosaic floors that are laid in a plastic condition, so that they have a much better wearing surface. Floors of this material have been in use since 1895 and show little if any wear. Marbleithic tiles are made of various colored marbles and in different sizes, shapes and patterns, so that a great variety of effects may be produced. Sanitary coved bases, stair-treads, and wainscotings, also, are made of this material.

Cast-Glass Tiles, while quite resistant to a blow when the polish is unbroken, will break very easily when the surface is scratched. All glass tiles should, therefore, be very thick and small or protected by metal framing.

Novus Sanitary Glass * is a sanitary structural glass manufactured in all thicknesses from ¼ in up to 2 in and in slabs of all widths and lengths up to 100 in in width and 180 in in length. It is made in various colors and designs and in the following finishes: natural-fire finish, hone, semipolished and polished It can be worked and handled the same as marble, it is readily drilled and shaped to accommodate fixtures, etc., and is very handsome in appearance. It is impervious to discoloration and is non-crazing. These qualities make it especially desirable for floors, wainscoting, tables, shelves, etc., in all places where an absolutely sanitary condition combined with a handsome appearance is required.

Interlocking Rubber Tiling

General Description. There is an interlocking rubber tiling,† which, because of its being noiseless, non-slippery, and more comfortable to the feet than inelastic substances, has met with great favor for floors in banking-rooms, counting-rooms, vestibules, elevators, stairs, cafés, libraries, churches, etc. For elevators it is one of the most durable and practical floors that can be laid; it is also especially and peculiarly adapted for floors of yachts and steamships. The interlocking feature unites the tiles into a smooth, unbroken sheet of rubber, unlimited in area. The tiles do not pull apart or come up, and each being distinct, almost any color-scheme can be employed, the tiles being made in a carefully selected variety of colors. The tiles are laid directly over the original floor, like a carpet, except that they are not fastened. Experience has shown that they are very durable. Each tile is 2⅜ in square and ⅜ in thick; 25.5 tiles are required to the square foot. Rubber nosing for stairs is made to interlock with the tiles.

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* Made by the Penn-American Plate Glass Company, Pittsburgh, Pa.

† Manufactured by the New York Belting and Packing Company, New York.

Cost of Different Tiles

Approximate Cost. The following prices are approximately the cost, to the trade, at the factory. To these should be added the freight and the dealers' profits. The cost of laying the tiles on a cement base, in addition to the cost of the tiles, should not exceed 25 cts per sq ft.

Floor-Tiles

Kinds of tiles	Factory price per sq ft
Common encaustic tiles, unglazed	15 cts
Vitreous tiles, white	22 1/10 cts
Colors, large sizes	from 23 to 26 cts
Ceramic tiles, or ceramic Roman mosaic	from 20 to 35 cts

Wall-Tiles and Mantel-Tiles

Kinds of tiles	Factory price per sq ft
White glazed wall-tiles	23 cts
Colored glazed or enameled tiles	35 cts
Enameled tiles, dull satin-finish	50 cts
Marbleithic, from 45 cts, upwards, laid	....
Hand-made faience, plain colors	from $0.60 to $1

Flooring of Mosaic, Terrazzo,* etc.

Flooring of Mosaic Work is largely used. (See, also, Ceramic Tiles, or Ceramic Roman Mosaic, page 1519, and Marbleithic Tiles, page 1520.) It is composed of small pieces of stone, marble, pottery or glass, usually laid in some ornamental design or pattern. A bed of concrete is first laid and the small pieces of the material used set in a floating of cement and made from ½ to 1 in thick. When cubes of varicolored marble are used, pressed into the cement mortar, it is called ROMAN MOSAIC. A somewhat cheaper flooring is made by spreading marble chips of irregular shape over the surface of the cement, pressing them into it with plasterers' floats and rolling them with iron rollers. This is called TERRAZZO MOSAIC. The following is from the specifications for the new Field Museum, Chicago, Ill., D. H. Burnham, architects: "Filling under terrazzo shall be composed 1 part cement, 2 parts sand and 4 parts brick. Before concrete filling commences to set spread a ¾-in wearing surface composed of marble chips with only enough neat Portland cement to firmly unite the pieces. Trowel and roll, and after the mortar has set, rub the terrazzo to a smooth, even surface and wash clean." "Terrazzo floors in the East cost from 20 to 30 cts per sq ft, contractor's profit included." †

* See article on Terrazzo Floors, by C. R. Marsh, in Journal of the Society of Constructors of Federal Buildings, July, 1914.

† Quoted from The New Estimator, by William Arthur, 1914.

ASPHALTUM

Bitumen, Asphaltum, Asphalt. "Bitumen is the name used to denote a group of mineral substances, composed of different hydrocarbons, found widely diffused throughout the world in a variety of forms which grade from thin volatile liquids to thick semifluids and solids, sometimes in a free or pure state, but more frequently intermixed with or saturating different kinds of inorganic or organic matter. To designate the condition under which bitumen is found, different names are employed; thus the liquid varieties are known as NAPHTHA and PETROLEUM, the semifluid or viscous as MALTHA or MINERAL TAR, and the solid or compact as ASPHALTUM or ASPHALT." *

Asphaltum is found in extensive beds or lake-like deposits on both continents; the most notable of these are the PITCH lakes on the island of Trinidad, and at Bermundez, Venezuela. It is also found saturating the limestone and sandstone formations in certain localities. Deposits of very nearly pure asphaltum are found in Utah, Mexico, Cuba, and various parts of the United States. ELATERITE, GILSONITE and WURTZILITE are varieties of very nearly pure asphaltum.

Asphaltic Roofing-Materials are manufactured principally from Trinidad asphalt. These deposits have also been the main source of supply for the asphaltum used in street-paving in the United States.

Rock-Asphalt. The term ROCK-ASPHALT is commonly used to designate the material obtained from the bituminous limestone deposits at Seyssel and Pyrimont, in the valley of the Rhône, France, in the Val-de-Travers, canton of Neuchâtel, Switzerland, and at Ragusa, on the island of Sicily. It is extensively employed for paving purposes throughout Europe, and is considered to make a much more durable pavement than can be made with asphaltum. Rock-asphalt is prepared for shipment in two forms: (1) COMPRESSED ASPHALT BLOCKS, which are used for paving in much the same way as stone blocks, and (2) MASTIC-ASPHALT, which is put up in cakes of varying shape, generally bearing the manufacturer's trade-mark.

Mastic-Asphalt. In the Eastern States MASTIC-ASPHALT is used for floors of cellars, stores, breweries, malt-houses, hotel-kitchens, stables, laundries, conservatories, public buildings, carriage-factories, sugar-refineries, mills, rinks, etc., and for any place where a hard, smooth, clean, dry, fire-proof and water-proof, odorless and durable covering of a light color is required, either in the basement or upper stories. It can be laid over cement concrete, brick, or wood, in one sheet without seams; also over cement concrete for roofs for fire-proof buildings. For dwelling-house cellars, especially on moist or filled land, this material is especially adapted, being water-tight, non-absorbent, free from mold or dust, impervious to sewer-gases, and for sanitary purposes, invaluable. Mastic-asphalt is also valuable for DAMP-COURSES over foundations, and for covering vaults and arches under ground.

Asphalt Floors and Pavements. For floors of cellars, courtyards, etc., laid on the ground, a base of cement concrete 3 in thick should first be laid; and over this a layer of asphalt from ¾ in to 1½ in thick, according to the use to which it is to be put. For ordinary cellar-floors, the asphalt need not be more than ¾ in thick; for yards on which heavy teams are to drive, it should be 1½ in thick. In specifying asphalt pavement, both the thickness of the concrete and of the asphalt should be given; it should also be remembered that ASPHALT PAVEMENT does not include the CONCRETE FOUNDATION unless so specified. In laying asphalt over planks or boards, a layer of stout, dry, but not tarred, sheathing-paper should first be put down and the asphalt laid on this. Asphalt floors for stables should be at least 1 in thick. Architects and owners desiring to employ ROCK-ASPHALT for any of the above purposes should be careful to secure the genuine VAL-DE-TRAVERS, SEYSSEL, or SICILIAN ROCK-ASPHALT, as there are imitations which are of but little value.

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* Byrne, Inspectors' Pocket Book.

The Bituminous Sandstones of California have been extensively used for paving streets in Western cities. They are prepared for use as paving-materials by crushing to powder. With this powder a considerable proportion of sand or gravel is generally mixed and the mixture heated until it becomes plastic; it is then spread over the roadways and compressed by rolling.

MINERAL WOOL

Sources of Mineral Wool. There are at least two kinds of mineral wool made in this country. The more common quality is made by mixing certain kinds of stone with the MOLTEN SLAG from blast-furnaces and converting the whole mass into a fibrous state. The best slag for the purpose is that which is free from iron. The appearance of the finished product is much like that of wool, being soft and fibrous, but in no other respect are the materials alike. Mineral wool made from slag appears in a variety of colors, principally white, but often yellow or gray, and occasionally quite dark. The color, however, is said to be no indication of the quality, as all of the peculiar properties of the material are present in equal proportions in any of the shades. The other kind of mineral wool is known as ROCK-WOOL, and is made from granite rock raised to 3 000° F. It is claimed that as it is absolutely free from sulphur, it is the only odorless wool manufactured. It has been approved by the United States War Department. It has the same general appearance as that made from slag, and is white in color.

Nature of Mineral Wool. Both of these materials consist of a mass of very fine, pliant, but inelastic, vitreous fibers interlacing in every direction and forming an innumerable number of minute air-cells. Its great value in the insulation and protection of buildings lies in the number of air-cells which it contains, its consequent non-conduction of heat, and its fire-resisting qualities. In wool made from common slag, 92% of the volume consists of air held in minute cells, while in the best grade the proportion of air reaches as high as 96%. This confined air makes it one of the best, if not the best, of the non-conductors of heat. Aside from these qualities it is very durable and contains nothing that can decay or become musty. Being itself incombustible it greatly retards the burning of wooden floors or partitions if their inner spaces are filled with it.

Uses of Mineral Wool. The greatest value of this material is as an insulator of heat, but it is also a valuable non-conductor of sound. It is the general opinion, however, that it can be considered only as a MUFFLER of the sound-waves, for there seems to be no practical way in which it can be used so as to separate entirely the floor and ceiling. It would be crushed by laying floor-cleats upon it. As a muffler or filling between the beams, however, there is probably nothing that is superior. In the end, then, it would seem that the most complete insulation from sound, without separate beams, would be obtained by FLOATING the flooring on some material like Cabot's Quilt or on a very thick felt, with the spaces between the floor-cleats filled with mineral wool.

Manner of Applying Mineral Wool. Mineral wool, when used alone as floor-deadening, may be laid on boards cut in between the joists, or on top of sheathing-lath when that material is used. The wool should be at least 2 in thick. Again, mineral wool is particularly desirable for filling the spaces between the studs of outside walls and partitions and between the rafters of roofs. It may be used to great advantage, also, in partitions around bath-rooms or water-closets, and around water-pipes when placed in partitions. In outside walls and attic roofs, as a protection from the heat of summer or the cold of winter, it is of the greatest value. By lathing the under side of the rafters with sheathing-lath, and spreading on top a layer of 2 or 3 in of mineral or rock-wool, the comfort of the room is greatly increased. Flat roofs over inhabited rooms may be covered with rough boards and 1¾-in cleats nailed on top, the spaces filled with wool, and the roof-sheathing then nailed to the cleats. This not only greatly increases the comfort of the rooms, but greatly retards the progress of fire from the outside. When insulating against heat, nails driven through the insulating material do no harm. When using mineral wool in floors it should be packed in very closely, but not jammed so as to break the fibers, which are naturally very brittle. In partitions it is packed between the studs and laths, so as to completely fill the spaces, the wool being put in after the lathing has reached a height of 2 or 3 ft. More laths are then put on, the spaces filled, and so on to the top. The wool should not be dropped from any considerable height, as the breaking up of the fibers destroys the insulating qualities of the material. In fact the tendency of mineral wool to settle and consolidate, if improperly or too loosely packed, is the only drawback, except cost, to its use for insulation. The wool behind the lathing will not prevent the plaster from keying.

Cost of Mineral Wool. Mineral wool is sold by the pound, and in estimating the quantity of wool required, 1 lb per sq ft of filling, 1 in thick, should be allowed for ordinary wool and ¾ lb for selected wool. The price of the ordinary wool is about $1.25, and of selected wool $2 per hundred pounds.

DATA ON STRUCTURAL STEEL

Estimating the Cost of Structural Steel for Buildings

Structural steel for buildings is commonly made up of I beams, channels, angles, Z bars and plates, which may be used as single beams or braces, or built into riveted girders, columns, or trusses. The Z bars are now seldom used for columns or other structural work in buildings. The cost of the completed steel-work is made up of the following items:

(1) Cost of the plain steel at the mill, plus freight and dealers' profits.

(2) Extras for cutting, punching, fitting and assembling into girders, columns, or trusses.

(3) Cost of the fittings, such as connection-angles, gusset-plates, etc.

(4) Shop-painting.

(5) Cost of erection at the building.

(6) Painting after erection.

Base-Price of Steel. For orders of any considerable size, the cost of plain steel is based on the price at the mills plus the freight to the point of delivery.

The BASE-PRICE, free on board cars at Pittsburgh, Pa., at the present time (1915), is about $1.45 per 100 lb for I beams and channels 15 in and less, and for angles and zees, from 3 to 6 in.

I beams over 15 in cost 10 cts per 100 lb extra, and zees over 3 in, 5 cts extra.

For angles, channels and zees under 3 in, the base is $1.40 at Pittsburgh.

For angles, over 6 in, $1.50.

For H beams, over 8 in, $1.60.

For deck beams and bulb angles, $1.75.

For corrugated and checkered plates, from $1.75 to $1.90.
For plates, structural, the base is $1.40.
For plates, flange, the base is $1.50.
For corrugated steel, painted, No. 22, $2.15.
For corrugated steel, galvanized, No. 22, $3.00.
For steel sheets, black, Nos. 10 and 11, $1.90.
For steel sheets, galvanized, Nos. 10 and 11, $2.35.
For steel sheets, black, No. 22, $2.10.
For steel sheets, galvanized, No. 22, $2.95.
For bar-iron, the base is $1.65.
For rivets, $2.10.

Freight-Rates (1913) in car-load lots are: Pittsburgh to Albany, N. Y., 16 cts; to Baltimore, 14½ cts; to Boston, 18 cts; to Buffalo, N. Y., 11 cts; to Chicago, 18 cts; to Cincinnati, 15 cts; to Cleveland, 10 cts; to Columbus, O., 12 cts; to Denver, 85½ cts; to Louisville, 18 cts; to New York, 16 cts; to Norfolk, Va., 20 cts; to Philadelphia, 15 cts; to Richmond, Va., 20 cts; to Rochester, N. Y., 11½ cts; to St. Louis, 23 cts; to Washington, D. C., 14½ cts.

For Pacific coast points, it has been customary to allow a discount of about 18% from the base, at Pittsburgh, on account of the high freight, and to meet European competition. On account of the expense of carrying beams in stock, local dealers usually charge from ½ to 1 ct a pound, extra, on orders supplied from stock.

List of Extras to be Added to Prices of Plain Beams and Channels. If any kind of work whatever is done on the plain steel, or if the same is cut to length with a less variation than ⅜ in, an extra price is charged, which is based on the following list, adopted in 1902. These charges are common to all shops if the order is of any size:

Extras to be Added to Base-Price for Each 100 Pounds

(1)	For cutting to length with less variation than plus or minus ⅜ in	15 cts
(2)	Plain punching one size of hole in web only	15 cts
(3)	Plain punching one size of hole in one or both flanges	15 cts
(4)	Plain punching one size of hole in either web and one flange or web and both flanges. The holes in the web and flanges must be of the same size	25 cts
(5)	Plain punching each additional size of hole in either web or flanges, web and one flange, or web and both flanges	15 cts
(6)	Plain punching one size of hole in flange and another size of hole in web of the same beam or channel	40 cts
(7)	Punching and assembling into girders	35 cts
(8)	Coping, ordinary beveling, including cutting to exact lengths, with or without punching; including the riveting or bolting of standard connection-angles	35 cts
(9)	For painting or oiling, one coat, with ordinary oil or paint	10 cts
(10)	Cambering, beams and channels, and other shapes for ships or other purposes	25 cts
(11)	Bending, or other unusual work	shop-rates
(12)	For fittings, whether loose or attached, such as angle-connections, bolts, and separators, tie-rods, etc.	$1.55

Tie-rods in all cases, where estimated upon in connection with beams or channels, are to be classified as fittings.

In making an estimate of the steelwork from the framing-plans, the weight of all connection-angles, gusset-plates, separators, tie-rods, etc., must be taken off separately, and the cost figured at $1.55 per 100 lb above the base-price.

The standard connections are given in Chapter XV, on pages 617 and 618, and standard separators on page 613.

In estimating the cost of riveted columns and girders, the weight of the plain bars and plates of which each column or girder is composed may be taken, and an extra added to the price per pound to cover cost of rivets and assembling.

This extra will be about as follows:

Light channel-columns	1½ cts per lb
Heavy channel-columns	1¼ cts per lb
Plate girders, from 24 to 48 in deep	1¼ cts per lb
Box girders, from 24 to 48 in deep	1¼ cts per lb
Box girders, from 48 to 60 in deep	1 1/10 cts per lb

Cost of Erecting. For erecting ordinary beams and columns in buildings having masonry walls the cost of erection should not exceed $10 per ton when there are bolted connections, and it will sometimes be as low as $6 per ton. For erecting the steelwork of skeleton buildings having riveted connections, it is customary to allow $10 per ton.

Cost of Painting. The usual charge for shop-painting is about $1 per ton, but if done in accordance with the specification on pages 1486–7 it would exceed this amount. For painting one additional coat after erection, allow about $1 per ton.

Roof-Trusses. "In lots of at least six, the shop-cost of ordinary roof-trusses in which the ends of the members are cut off at right-angles is about as follows:[*] Trusses weighing 1 000 lb each, from $1.15 to $1.25 per 100 lb; trusses weighing 1 500 lb each, from $0.90 to $1.00 per 100 lb; trusses weighing 2 500 lb each, from $0.75 to $0.85 per 100 lb; and trusses weighing from 3 500 to 7 500 lb, from $0.60 to $0.75 per 100 lb. Pin-connected trusses cost from 10 to 20 cts per 100 lb more than riveted trusses."

Steel Mill-Buildings. The average shop-cost for the frames of steel mill-buildings, including draughting, is about $25 per ton, and the cost of erection from $15 to $25 per ton.[†]

Cost of Drafting. Details for church and court-house roofs having hips and valleys cost from $6 to $8 per ton; details for ordinary mill-buildings cost from $2 to $4 per ton. The cost of making shop-drawings varies greatly with the character of the construction of the building, and with the accuracy of the architect's drawings. The average costs per ton of steel, for making shop-drawings are about as follows:

For entire skeleton construction, in which the loads are all carried to the foundations by the steel columns, $1.45.

For the interior parts which are supported on steel columns, when the outside walls carry the floor-loads and their own weight, $1.25.

For the interior parts which are supported on cast-iron columns, when the outside walls carry the floor-loads and their own weight, $0.70.

For construction without columns, and in which the floor-beams rest on masonry walls, $0.85.

For buildings in which roof-trusses supported by columns comprise the greater part of the construction, $2.50.

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[*] See Structural Engineers' Handbook, 1914, by Milo S. Ketchum.

[†] For much valuable data relating to steel mill-buildings, see The Design of Steel Mill Buildings, by Milo S. Ketchum.

For buildings in which roof-trusses on masonry walls comprise the greater part of the construction, $1.25.

For mill-buildings, average, $2.50.

For manufacturing or shop-buildings, with flat roofs, and one story in height, $0.75.

For alterations, additions, remodeling, which require measurements before details and shop-drawings can be made, $1.90.

Approximate Estimates of the Weight of Steel in Buildings. According to H. G. Tyrrell,* the weight of steel in any proposed new building may be roughly estimated from the following data, which is a fair average for buildings not over eleven stories high, designed according to the Building Laws of the City of Boston:

	Per sq ft of floor
Apartment-houses and hotels, with outside frame	14 lb
Apartment-houses, without outside frame	9 lb
Office-buildings, with outside frame	23 lb
Office-buildings, without outside frame	15 lb
Warehouses, with outside frame	28 lb
Warehouses, without outside frame	18 lb

For buildings higher than eleven stories, the weight of floors will increase in direct proportion to the number of stories, while the weight of columns will increase more rapidly.

For the approximate weight of roof-trusses, see Chapter XXVII, pages 1050 to 1052.

Cost of Merchant Steel. The cost of merchant iron and steel of all kinds is based on a certain size of each particular shape, which is taken as the BASE, and the price of all other sizes is figured at a certain extra rate above the base according to a standard CARD OF MILL-EXTRAS. The BASE-PRICE may fluctuate and be changed without notice, but the extras remain constant, and are the same in all localities. The following tables, on pages 1528 and 1529, include the standard classification of extras on iron and steel bars.

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* Estimating Structural Steel, in Architects & Builders' Magazine, Jan., 1903.

Standard Classification * of Extras on Iron and Steel Bars

Adopted August, 1902

Rounds and squares †

Sizes	Extra per 100 lb	Sizes	Extra per 100 lb
3/4 to 3 in.	Base	3 1/16 to 3 1/2 in.	$0.15
5/8 to 11/16 in.	$0.10	3 9/16 to 4 in.	0.25
1/2 to 9/16 in.	0.20	4 1/16 to 4 1/2 in.	0.30
7/16 in.	0.40	4 9/16 to 5 in.	0.40
3/8 in.	0.50	5 1/8 to 5 1/2 in.	0.50
5/16 in.	0.60	5 5/8 to 6 in.	0.75
1/4 and 9/32 in.	0.70	6 1/8 to 6 1/2 in.	1.00
7/32 in.	1.00	6 5/8 to 7 1/4 in.	1.25
3/16 in.	2.00		

Flat bars and heavy bands

Sizes	Extra per 100 lb
1 to 6 in × 3/8 to 1 in.	Base
1 to 6 in × 1/4 and 5/16 in.	$0.20
11/16 to 15/16 in × 3/8 to 3/4 in.	0.40
11/16 to 15/16 in × 1/4 and 5/16 in.	0.50
9/16 and 5/8 in × 3/8 to 1/2 in.	0.50
9/16 and 5/8 in × 1/4 and 5/16 in.	0.70
1/2 in × 3/8 and 7/16 in.	0.90
1/2 in × 1/4 and 5/16 in.	1.10
7/16 in × 3/8 in.	1.00
7/16 in × 1/4 and 5/16 in.	1 20
3/8 in × 1/4 and 5/16 in.	1.50
1 1/8 to 6 in × 1 1/16 to 1 3/16 in.	0.10
1 1/8 to 6 in × 1 1/4 to 1 1/2 in.	0.20
1 3/4 to 6 in × 1 5/8 to 2 3/4 in.	0.30
3 1/8 to 6 in × 3 to 4 in.	0.40

Light bars and bands

Sizes	Extra per 100 lb
1 1/2 to 6 in × Nos. 7, 8, 9 and 3/16 in.	$0.40
1 1/2 to 6 in × Nos. 10, 11, 12 and 1/8 in.	0.60
1 to 1 7/16 in × Nos. 7, 8, 9 and 3/16 in.	0.50
1 to 1 7/16 in × Nos. 10, 11, 12 and 1/8 in.	0.70
13/16 to 15/16 in × Nos. 7, 8, 9 and 3/16 in.	0.70
13/16 to 15/16 in × Nos. 10, 11, 12 and 1/8 in.	0.80
11/16 and 3/4 in × Nos. 7, 8, 9 and 3/16 in.	1.00
11/16 and 3/4 in × Nos. 10, 11, 12 and 1/8 in.	1.20
9/16 and 5/8 in × Nos. 7, 8, 9 and 3/16 in.	1.20
9/16 and 5/8 in × Nos. 10, 11, 12 and 1/8 in.	1.30
1/2 in × Nos. 7, 8, 9 and 3/16 in.	1.30
1/2 in × Nos. 10, 11, 12 and 1/8 in.	1.50
7/16 in × Nos. 7, 8, 9 and 3/16 in.	1.80
7/16 in × Nos. 10, 11, 12 and 1/8 in.	2.10
3/8 in × Nos. 7, 8, 9 and 3/16 in.	1.90
3/8 in × Nos. 10, 11, 12 and 1/8 in.	2.40

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* Intermediate sizes take the next higher extra. It is not customary to enforce more than one-half the "standard-card extras" for round and square bars.

† Squares up to 4 1/2 in only.

Standard Classification* of Angles, Channels and Tees

Angles

Sizes	Extra per 100 lb
1½ × 3/16 in and heavier, but under 3 in	Base
1 to 1¼ × 3/16 in and heavier	$0.10
⅞×3/16 in	0.20
¾×3/16 in	0.30
⅝×⅛ in	2.00
½×⅛ in	3.00
3×3 in×less than ¼ in thick	0.50
Angles ¾ in and larger, but smaller than 3 in, ⅛ in thick	0.10 per 100 lb over 3/16 in

Channels

Sizes	Extra per 100 lb
1½×3/16 in and heavier, but under 3 in	Base
1 to 1¼×3/16 in and heavier	$0.10
⅞×3/16 in	0.20
⅝ and ¾×3/16 in	0.30
⅝×⅛ in	0.60
½×⅛ in and thicker	1.00
Channels ¾ in and wider, but under 3 in, ⅛ in thick	0.10 per 100 lb over 3/16 in

Tees

Sizes	Extra per 100 lb
1½×3/16 in and heavier, but under 3 in	Base
1¼×3/16 in and heavier	$0.10
1 to 1⅛×3/16 in and heavier	0.20
⅞×⅛ in and thicker	0.50
¾×⅛ in and thicker	0.60
⅝×⅛ in and thicker	2.00
Tees 1 in and larger, but smaller than 3 in, ⅛ in thick	0.10 per 100 lb over 3/16 in

* Intermediate sizes take the next higher extra.

The base for car-load lots for any city may be obtained by adding the freight-rates given on page 1525 to the base prevailing at the mills.

ESTIMATING THE COST OF BUILDINGS*

Cost of Buildings per Cubic Foot. The method of CUBIC-FOOT VALUES has been used more than any other in estimating the cost of any proposed building, before the plans and specifications are sufficiently complete for taking off the actual quantities. "Comparison of UNIT COSTS is the only scientific criterion by which to judge the economic merit of a structure, a machine or a method of doing work." * Two buildings in the same city or district, built in the same style and for the same purpose, of the same materials, and on the same scale of wages and prices of materials, should cost the same, or very nearly the same, per cubic foot, although one building may be somewhat larger than the other and of different shape. It therefore follows that if we know the COST PER CUBIC FOOT of different classes of buildings, in different localities, we can approximate quite closely the cost of any proposed building by multiplying its cubic contents in feet by the known cost per cubic foot of a similar building already built in that locality.

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* The editor is indebted to E. S. Hand for valuable data relating to this subject. He is also indebted to others whose names are mentioned in connection with particular tables, etc. The readers are referred especially to the Handbook of Cost Data for Contractors and Engineers, by H. P. Gillette and to The New Building Estimator, by William Arthur.

Size of Building Proportioned to Cost per Cubic Foot. If the cost of a proposed building must be kept absolutely within a certain sum, the size of the building should be proportioned so that the CUBIC CONTENTS shall not exceed the quotient obtained by dividing the amount appropriated by the AVERAGE COST PER CUBIC FOOT of similar buildings. Even then it may be found, when the bids are opened, that they exceed the appropriation; but the excess is often a relatively small percentage of the total cost and the necessary reductions can be made without altering the main features of the building.

Methods of Computation. In estimating the cost by the METHOD OF CUBIC CONTENTS, it is of course necessary that the contents be computed on the same basis, in both the proposed building and the one already built. The cubic contents are generally computed from the basement or cellar-floor, to the average height of a flat roof, or, if there is a pitched roof, the finished portion of the attic is included, or that part which might be finished, mere air-spaces and open porches not being included. Vaults and areas under sidewalks, etc., are generally included as part of the basement. All measurements are to the outside of the walls and foundations. The estimated cost may or may not include the fees of the architect and other experts.

Other Methods of Estimating the Cost of Buildings. The cost of buildings, such as hospitals, theaters, schools, churches, barracks, large stables, etc., is sometimes estimated by the COST PER BED, SITTING, INMATE, etc. Estimates are also based upon the COST PER SQUARE FOOT of GROUND OCCUPIED or of all the FLOOR-SPACE, in certain types of buildings.

Data † on Cubic-Foot Values as a Basis for Preliminary Estimates of Building Costs

Notes on Modifying Conditions. Buildings of a given TYPE, such as office-buildings and school-buildings, when similar in construction and finish and built under similar market-conditions as to cost of labor and materials, are found to be nearly identical in CUBIC-FOOT COSTS. The buildings of any such type do not differ widely in bulk, and this is always very considerable when compared with such structures as dwellings and small business buildings. This seems only another way of saying that similar causes produce similar effects, but it goes a step farther by indicating that the results here are virtually identical; so nearly so, that the AVERAGE CUBIC-FOOT COST of a certain kind of building can be relied on to produce an estimate within from 3 to 5% of the actual cost of new work of the same kind and under the same conditions. Other types of large structures, such as public buildings, hotels, churches and theaters, are less subject to standardization because more variable in equipment and finish. This is true also of dwellings, shops and other small structures whose lesser bulk, moreover, renders even less possible a close prediction as to their cost. These uncertainties do not, however, warrant the rejection of the CUBIC-FOOT-COST METHOD for preliminary estimating. They do indicate that it is less closely approximate for some types than for others. But the degree of uncertainty on even the most variable types may be minimized and should be reduced to perhaps 10% under a careful system of cost-computation. Such system should cover a considerable number of examples, taking account of all factors of material influence upon cost in each type, and must follow a consistently uniform method of determining cubic-foot values.

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* H. P. Gillette, in the preface to his Handbook of Cost Data for Contractors and Engineers.

† The data (up to table on page 1532) on cubic-foot values is quoted, by permission, from notes relating to this subject, compiled by Professor Warren P. Laird from the study of a large number of public and private buildings erected in widely separated districts of the United States. For these buildings Professor Laird acted as the professional adviser for the selection of the architect, and in all cases the estimate of the cost of the buildings was based strictly upon a total number of cubic feet and a fixed unit cost per cubic foot.

The Factors Which Influence Cost include the following.

(1) Prevailing market prices of labor and materials.
(2) Type of construction employed, depth and kind of foundations and existence of special features such as towers or domes.
(3) Finish: external facing and ornamentation; internal surfacing and decoration.
(4) Equipment: (*a*) number and complexity of heating, lighting, ventilating, sanitary, elevator and other systems; (*b*) extent to which apparatus or equipment, such as laboratory-devices, opera-chairs, bank-counters, etc., is provided for direct use of occupants of building.
(5) Fees of architect and other experts.
(6) Locality. Costs of structures of a given type will vary with the locality because of differing standards of practice and building laws, availability of building materials, labor, etc.
(7) Other items, developing in the experience of the architect.

The Method of Determining Cubage may either simply recognize the GEOMETRICAL VOLUME of the building or, better, may employ a COEFFICIENT OF VALUE for any part whose cost varies materially from the average. The latter method may be preferred as allowing a closer calculation of variations from known examples. For instance, an unfinished cellar or other story or a small light-court would cost less per cubic foot than the remainder of the building, while a tower or dome or finished basement containing, also, an expensive mechanical plant, would cost more. Foundations sometimes cost so much that they require figuring to their full depth as though the finished building were carried down to that level.

Cubic-Foot Costs. Subject to the foregoing considerations, the following data on fire-proof buildings may be used as a STANDARD FOR AVERAGE CASES. The unit prices will probably be found too low for New York and some other large cities and somewhat above those of several other sections of the United States.

Construction: steel and terra-cotta, stone and brick facings, complete equipment and superior grade of interior finish:

Type of building	Cents per cubic foot
Office-buildings	32 to 35
Public buildings	40 to 45
School-buildings	20 to 25

Construction: reinforced concrete; facing, common brick; equipment, type usual in such structures; inside finish, the simplest.

Type of building	Cents per cubic foot
Factories*	14 to 16
Lofts*	15 to 18

Table † for Estimating the Approximate Cost of a New Building or the Value of an Existing Building

Based on prices for labor and materials in 1915. The cost of first-class fireproof buildings is greater in the Western and Southern States than in the Eastern States, because of the distance from the great steel and material-centers.

Farm and Country Property‡

	Cost per cubic foot, cents
Dwellings, frame; small box house, no cornice	5
Dwellings, frame; shingle roof, small cornice, no sash weights, plain	6 to 7
Dwellings, brick; same class	8 to 9
Dwellings, frame; shingle roof, good cornice, sash weights, blinds (good house)	8 to 9
Dwellings, brick; same class (good house)	10 to 11
Barns, frame; shingle roof, not painted, plain finish	2 to 3
Barns, frame; shingle roof, painted, good foundation	3 to 4
Stores, frame; shingle roof, painted, plain finish	6 to 8
Stores, brick; shingle roof, painted, good cornice, well finished	8 to 10
Ordinary frame churches and schoolhouses; country	6 to 8
Brick churches and schoolhouses; country	9 to 11

If the roofs are slate or metal, add ¼ ct per cu ft.

City and Village Property‡

	Cost per cubic foot, cents
Dwellings, frame; shingle roof, pine floors and finish, no bathroom or furnace, plain finish (good house)	7 to 8
Dwellings, brick; same class	9 to 10
Dwellings, frame; shingle roof, hard-wood floor in hall and parlor, bath, furnace, and fair plumbing	9 to 10
Dwellings, brick; same class	9 to 11
Dwellings, frame; shingle roof, hard wood in first story, good plumbing, furnace, artistic design, some interior ornamentation, well painted	11 to 13
Dwellings, brick; with good plumbing, bath, hot and cold water, pine finish, well painted, no hard-wood finish	12 to 13

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* If such subcontracts as plumbing, heating, lighting-fixtures, elevators, etc., are not included, of course these figures will be reduced. See Cost of Reinforced-Concrete Buildings, page 1538.

† This table was originally compiled by Mr. F. E. Kidder from data collected from various sources, and based on prices prevailing in 1902. The prices have been revised to agree, as closely as possible, with those of 1915. All tabulations of this kind, based on costs per cubic foot are, at best, only approximate averages, and useful only as general guides.

‡ Lists similar to these were first compiled by James N. Brown of St. Louis, Mo., and with the lower unit prices used in 1902 originally formed part of the instructions furnished by insurance companies to their adjusters.

Miscellaneous Buildings		Cost per cubic foot, cents
Abattoirs and other slaughter-houses		16 to 18
Asylums, lunatic; complete, including patients' wards, administrative buildings, chapel, hospital, mortuary, laundry, workshops, and all other accessories		18 to 28
Per patient	$1300 to $1800	
Bath-houses; complete, or for barracks, but not supplied with hot water		50 to 55
Per bath	$315 to $360	
Baths, public; comprising swimming-baths, slipper-baths, laundry, caretaker's quarters, machinery, etc., complete		34 to 40
Breweries; complete, including buildings, cellarage, boilers, engine, machinery, coppers, liquor-baths, mash-tubs, coolers, refrigerator, ice storage, pumps, and all other requirements		16 to 23
Churches; plain		18 to 25
Per square foot	$5.00 to $7.25	
Per sitting	$45 to $60	
Churches; ornamental		25 to 44
Per square foot	$8.00 to $14.00	
Per sitting	$73 to $135	
Cotton-mills; as generally constructed		10 to 14
Per spindle	25 to 34 cts	
Cow-stables; complete, with iron finishings and fittings		16 to 18
Per square foot	$2.46 to $3.14	
Per cow	$190 to $212	
Second-class stable; with common fittings		12 to 15
Per square foot	$1.85 to $2.25	
Per cow	$145 to $162	
Third-class stables; for farm, wooden fittings		8½ to 11
Per square foot	$1.62 to $1.68	
Per cow	$100 to $118	
Drill-halls or sheds for infantry		12 to 16
Per square foot	$1.80 to $1.90	
Electric stations of power-houses; buildings erected complete, exclusive of machinery and plant		16 to 19
Flats, as constructed in New York; comprising ornamental brickwork in front, elevators, fire-resisting floors, and the whole well finished in ordinary wood throughout		32 to 40
Hospitals; complete, including administrative buildings, etc.		23 to 34
Per bed	$1 750 to $2 600	
Cottage-hospitals; for small towns		19 to 25
Per bed	$1 200 to $1 750	
Hospitals, isolated; including all nursery-buildings.		19 to 25
Per bed	$2 000 to $2 600	
Hotels first-class; complete in every particular		35 to 46
Second-class		26 to 35
Third-class		23 to

		Cost per cubic foot, cents
Houses, first class; complete, in brickwork and good substantial finishings, large mansions with elaborate finish;		
Main building, 16-ft ceilings		34 to 45
Per square foot	\$6.25 to \$7.25*	
Additions, 11-ft ceilings		18 to 23
Per square foot	\$2.80 to \$3.40	
Houses, second class; large mansions of ordinary character;		
Main building, 14-ft ceilings		25 to 34
Per square foot	\$4.00 to \$5.00	
Additions		17 to 23
Per square foot	\$1.85 to \$2.40	
Houses, third class; country-houses;		
Height of ceiling, 11 ft		17 to 23
Per square foot	\$2.40 to \$3.00	
Houses, fourth class; speculative buildings;		
Ceilings, 10 ft		15 to 17
Per square foot	\$1.45 to \$1.75	
Houses, fifth class; tenements and cottages to rent;		
Ceilings, 9 ft		11 to 13
Per square foot	\$1.23 to \$1.50	
Hollow-tile houses, covered with cement or stucco, about		20
Libraries; public, complete in every particular		18 to 25
Municipal lodging-houses; for cities and large towns		17 to 20
Per bed	\$350 to \$425	
Museums, public; for large cities		25 to 37
For towns		21 to 29
Music-halls, complete; per head of accommodations, for large cities	\$90 to \$145	
For small cities and towns	\$45 to \$80	
Town-halls, complete; for large cities		35 to 40
For small cities and towns		25 to 34
Alternative prices; basement		23 to 27
Superstructure		30 to 40
Ornamental towers		44 to 52
Theaters, complete; per head of accommodations, in large cities	\$92 to \$120	
In small cities and towns	\$56 to \$90 or	20 to 50

Chimneys

	Per foot of height
Chimney-shafts, plain, as for factories, etc., complete, including foundations, iron cap, etc., height measured from surface of ground to top of cap; not exceeding 100 ft in height	\$45 to \$52
Chimney-shafts from 100 to 180 ft in height	\$50 to \$58
Chimney-shafts from 180 to 250 ft in height	\$56 to \$63

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* The prices per square foot, in this and following paragraphs, are per square foot of floor-area, counting all of the floors above the basement. F. E. Kidder.

Examples of Actual Cost of Buildings per Cubic Foot

In order to illustrate the subject further, a few examples of recently erected buildings are given. The lists were furnished through the courtesy of the architects of the buildings. Such lists could be indefinitely extended, but those submitted are deemed sufficient to give some idea of the similarities and variations of costs based upon cubage. With the exception of reinforced-concrete buildings, it is probably true that for the past twenty or twenty-five years (1890 to 1915) the cost of buildings has increased, with some variations in the rate of increase, at the rate of about 1% per year.

Examples of the Actual Cost of Buildings per Cubic Foot

These buildings were designed by Boring & Tilton

Name and location of building	Date	Height and type	Approximate cost	Cost per cubic foot, cents
Memorial Hall, Tome Institute, Port Deposit, Md.	1900	Three stories and basement, fire-proof	$150 000	16
West Side Branch Library, Cleveland, Ohio	1908	One story and basement, non-fire-proof	85 000	17
Stamford Grammar School, Stamford, Conn.	1908	Two stories and basement, non-fire-proof	50 000	15
St. Agatha's School, 87th St. and West End Ave., New York City	1907	Six stories and basement, fire-proof	275 000	29
American Seamen's Friend Society, Jane and West Sts., New York City	1909	Five stories and basement, fire-proof	200 000	32
Eastern District Branch Y. M. C. A., Brooklyn, N. Y.	1906-1909	Six stories and basement, fire-proof	255 000	27
Tarrytown Hospital, Tarrytown, N. Y.	1910	Two stories and basement, non-fire-proof	65 000	26
Blair Hospital, Huntingdon, Pa.	1909	Three stories and basement, fire-proof	90 000	20
Elizabeth Library, Elizabeth, N. J.	1912	Three stories and basement, fire-proof	100 000	35
Springfield Library, Springfield, Mass.	1908	Two stories, mezzanine and basement, fire-proof	350 000	35
Sioux City Library, Sioux City, Iowa	1912	Two stories and basement, non-fire-proof	75 000	21½
521 Park Avenue, New York City	1912	Twelve stories and basement, fire-proof	350 000	45
United States Immigrant Station, Ellis Island, New York Harbor. Main building	1898	Two stories and basement, fire-proof	625 000	17½
Hospital building	1898	Three stories and basement, fire-proof	150 000	28
Mount St. Mary's College, Plainfield, N. J.	1912	Three stories and basement, fire-proof	250 000	22

These buildings were designed by Palmer, Hornbostle & Jones

Name and location of building	Date	Notes	Cubic contents, cubic feet	Approximate cost	Cost per cubic foot, cents
Oakland City Hall, Oakland, Cal.	1914	Based on all contracts except for lighting-fixtures	2 999 442	$1 400 000	46⅔
Allegheny County Soldiers' Memorial, Pittsburgh, Pa.	1911	....	2 855 892	913 721	32
New York State Education Building, Albany, N. Y.	1912	Original contract completed, Dec. 1912	11 281 691	3 744 521	33⅕

These buildings were designed by Robert D. Kohn

Name and location of building	Date	Height, character of construction and finish	Cost per cubic foot, cents
Hermitage Hotel, New York City.	1907	Size of lot, 50 by 100 ft; height, 150 ft; 15 bedrooms and 11 baths on each floor; basement and sub-basement; power, electric light and refrigerating-plants; complete kitchen-equipment; brick and limestone exterior; cement floors.	56
Trades School Building, Manassas, Va.	1910	Main wing, 50 by 100 ft, two and one-half stories; shop-wing, 75 by 105 ft, one story, brick; shops, mill-constructed roof, cement floor; brick exterior throughout; heating-plant in extension; common wooden-floor construction, tin roof, class-rooms plastered; cheaply built.	10
Ethical Culture Meeting House.	1910	Height, 100 ft; basement, assembly-room; main floor, auditorium for 1 200 people; two stories above auditorium, Sunday school and offices; limestone exterior; fire-proof construction; oak finish.	35

Cost of Some Notable Buildings in New York City. Some of the more prominent buildings in the Borough of Manhattan, City of New York, are included in the following table. For all these structures the permits were issued n 1911. By reason of its height the Woolworth Building may be considered the most notable of the list. It is not only the highest building in New York City or the United States, but in the world. The cubic contents total nearly 12 000 000 cu ft. Its foundations are carried to rock, which is about 120 feet below the street-surface. The approximate weight of its steel frame is 23 000 ons.

Some Notable Buildings in New York City*

Name of Building	Description	Heights, ft	Ground-areas, sq ft	Total floor-areas, sq ft	Estimated cost	Cubic contents,† cu ft	Costs per cubic foot,† cents
Hotel McAlpin	25-story hotel	307	31 100	690 000	$4 500 000	9 100 000	49
Grand Central Station	8-story railroad-station	148	118 000	600 000	4 000 000	14 000 000	29
Masonic Building	19-story lofts and meeting-rooms	292	23 300	423 000	1 000 000	5 701 000	17
Fire Companies' Building	25-story office-building	315	20 500	484 000	2 000 000	6 295 000	32
Walker-Lispenard Building	17-story telephone-exchange	338	20 300	330 000	1 400 000	6 270 000	22
Woolworth Building	55-story office-building	750	29 300	900 000	3 500 000	11 800 000	26
Grand Stand, Polo-Grounds	2-story grand stand	...	139 200	192 400	100 000	....	..
United States Rubber Co's Building	20-story office-building	273	10 800	226 000	750 000	2 940 000	25
Apartment-House	12-story apartment-house	139	14 300	174 000	1 000 000	2 080 000	48
Hyde Building	20-story office-building	288	14 700	315 000	1 000 000	4 500 000	22
Auerbach Candy-Factory	11-story factory	163	40 166	424 600	750 000	6 260 000	12
Title Guarantee and Trust Co's Building	8-story bank	162	12 300	112 000	1 000 000	2 240 000	45
Æolian Building	17-story lofts	252	15 700	281 000	900 000	4 125 000	22

* Taken from the Report of the Bureau of Buildings of the City of New York for the Borough of Manhattan, for the year ending Dec. 31, 1911.

† These items were furnished by E. S. Hand.

The Grand Central Station, as given in the list, is only a part of the complete terminal, being that part which contains the passenger-concourse and the waiting-rooms, restaurant and other parts that are considered necessary to care for the traffic. The cubic contents of this part total about 14 000 000 cu ft. Other parts of the building were erected under previous permits. Some interesting facts as to the complete main station are:

Cost, about	$8 000 000
Ground-area above street-level, square feet	266 000
Additional station-facilities under street, square feet	80 000
Floor-area devoted to station-purposes, square feet	1 188 000
Cubic contents, about, cubic feet	32 857 800
Steel used in construction, tons	35 767
Weight of largest girder used, tons	30

The Cost of Reinforced-Concrete Buildings.[*][†] In estimating the cost of a building by CUBICAL CONTENTS or by AREAS OF FLOORS the shape of the building in plan should be taken into consideration. A long, narrow building will cost more per cubic or square foot than one more nearly square in plan; and in computing costs by the cubic-foot or square-foot unit prices these conditions as well as the judgment and experience of the architect or engineer who makes the estimates affect the accuracy of the results. The following notes quoted from data furnished by the architects and engineers of the buildings mentioned include useful information relating to costs of some contemporaneous reinforced-concrete buildings of different types, erected in Philadelphia and vicinity.

(1) "A reinforced-concrete building of the FACTORY-TYPE, erected (1914–15) in the City of Philadelphia. It is a concrete cage, with no brick veneer, four stories in height, no basement, size, 60 by 159 ft, stair-shafts and elevator-shafts projecting beyond the building; cubical contents, 603 000 cu ft. The cost, without equipment, is 7½ cts per cu ft. Drainage is included in this price, but no plumbing, heating, lighting or elevators. The total floor-area of the building is 40 140 sq ft and the cost per square foot is $1.14½. This is built according to the building laws of Philadelphia.

(2) "A MILL-CONSTRUCTED BUILDING, about the same size as building (1), recently erected in a manufacturing town forty miles from Philadelphia. It is four stories in height and has a part-basement, a wing 30 by 40 ft, and a one-story boiler-room and engine-room. The total cubical contents are 524 160 cu ft, and the cost, 6⅛ cts per cu ft. The total floor-area is 37 900 sq ft, and the cost, $0.85⅛ per sq ft. This is without power, heat, or light. There are a few plumbing-fixtures in this building.

"In comparing the costs of the two buildings, it must be borne in mind that one is located forty miles from Philadelphia, and was not erected under the rigid building laws that are in force there. It is usually possible to erect a building of any type at less expense outside of Philadelphia than in that city and this can probably be said of any city where there are no state building codes.

(3) "A MILL-CONSTRUCTED BUILDING, three stories in height, erected in 1906 in Camden, N. J., and having 575 044 cu ft. It cost 7 cts per cu ft. It has 38 912 sq ft of floor-area, at a cost of $1.04 per sq ft. This price is without power, heat, light, or elevators, but includes some plumbing.

(4) "The new municipal REPAIR-SHOP of the City of Philadelphia. This is a reinforced-concrete building with brick veneer of an ornamental type, and cost 9⅛ cts per cu ft for 1 080 591 cu ft or $1.74 per sq ft for 57 323 sq ft of total

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[*] Valuable data on this subject has been furnished the Editor by Ballinger & Perrot, the architects and engineers of the five reinforced-concrete buildings described.

[†] See, also, page 1532.

floor-area. This is without plumbing, power, heat, light, or elevators. The relatively high cost per square foot for this building is due to the fact that the crane run-way takes up a considerable portion of the building, so that a floor is omitted where the crane is placed, and the floor-area accordingly reduced.

(5) "The new building for the AUTOMOBILE CLUB of Philadelphia. This is a three-story building, of reinforced-concrete cage-construction, and contains 1 341 966 cu ft, at a cost of 10⅜ cts per cu ft. The total floor-area is 90 602 sq ft, costing $1.54 per sq ft. This is without power, heat, light, or any equipment, but includes plumbing. The shape of this building favors economy of construction, as it is nearly square in plan."

In summing up the conclusions arrived at in regard to the average costs of reinforced buildings, E. G. Perrot states * that the cost can best be considered by classifying them under three general heads:

(1) Warehouses and manufactories. Cost, from 8 to 11 cts per cu ft.

(2) Stores and loft-buildings. Cost, from 11 to 17 cts per cu ft.

(3) Miscellaneous buildings, such as school-houses, hospitals, etc. Cost from 15 to 20 cts per cu ft.

Cost of Mills and Factories Built on the Slow-Burning Principle. For data relating to total and unit costs of buildings of this type, see Chapter XXII, pages 802 to 810.

Percentages of Cost of Items of Construction in Fire-Proof Buildings

The tables† on the following six pages show, on pages 1540 to 1545, the DIVISION OF THE COSTS of fire-proof buildings among the different materials and parts of the construction, the data having been furnished the compiler by architects and builders in the cities mentioned in the tables. Each column of values in the tables gives the data for an individual building, except the values for New York City, in the second, third and fifth columns, which show the averages for a large number of buildings. The tables on the first four pages include only buildings approximating closely the standard specifications of the National Board of Fire Underwriters. The tables show that the foundations and steel frames, the only parts little damaged in conflagrations, represent, approximately, only 25% of the entire sound value of a building. For example, in the tables on the first four pages, the average cost of all the foundations is 8%, while the average cost of the steel frames is 17.88%. The tables show, also, on pages 1544 and 1545 the percentages of cost of the classified items of construction of eight buildings damaged by the Baltimore conflagration (1904), the averages of these eight buildings being given in the last column.

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* See "Comparative Costs of Reinforced Concrete Buildings," by E. G. Perrot, in Proceedings of the National Association of Cement Users, Vol. V, 1909.

† The tables on the first four pages were compiled by F. J. T. Stewart, Continental Insurance Company, and those on the last two pages by the Baltimore Committee of the National Board of Fire Underwriters. All are reproduced, by permission, from J. K Freitag's Fire Prevention and Fire Protection. Those parts of the Baltimore tables which gave the proportion of fire-damage to sound value of the various items have been omitted as this article of the Pocket-Book deals more especially with original costs.

Table Showing Proportion of Value in the Various Items of Construction of Fire-Proof Buildings

The figures opposite each item represent percentages of total cost of building

Classified construction	New York					Chicago						Baltimore							
	Ofcs	Ofcs	Hotel	Ofcs	W.H.	Ofcs	Ofcs	Ofcs	Ofcs	Merc	Merc	Ofcs	Ofcs	Ofcs	Ofcs	Ofcs	Ofcs	Ofcs	Ofcs
Height, in stories	10	...	....	12	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	11	12	7	14	9	8	10	7
Cost, cents per cubic foot	...	...	....	40	...	30.3	34.8	32.3	...	14	23.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Foundations	...	...	....	...	...	*4.4*	*2.34*	*5.67*	...	*6.00*	*10.74*	*5.62*	*4.37*	*7.25*	...	...	...	...	*4.3*
Excavations of back-filling	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1.22	1.25	2.07	...	...	...	...	4.3
Shoring banks, etc	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1.06	...	...	...	...	...	...
Foundation-footings and concrete	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4.4	0.74	5	...	...	...	...	...
Rubble-stone and granite pier-caps	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.65	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sidewalks and curbs	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.13	0.18	...	...	...	...	...
Steel frame	*24.0*	*18.4*	*16.0*	*22.50*	*36.5*	*19.70*	*14.0*	*11.86*	*10.6*	*27.6*	*38.66*	*13.6*	*14.54*	*19.52*	*9.9*	*9*	*10.1*	*11.4*	*17.5*
Material	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	11.79	...	...	...	...	...	...
Erection	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1.7	...	...	...	...	...	...
Shop-drawings	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.49	...	...	...	...	...	...
Painting	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.24	...	...	...	...	...	...
Teaming	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.32	...	...	...	...	...	...
Masonwork	*26.56*	*26.2*	*31.5*	*20.10*	*32.5*	*26.31*	*27.96*	*22.3*	*38.5*	*27.6*	*44.79*	*23.76*	*28.5*	*34.15*	*30.15*	*31.31*	*37.2*	*29.9*	*35.5*
Brick, common	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	10.1	6.59	11.21	...	...	...	8.98	13.5
Brick, faced or pressed	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1.82	1.26	...	...	...	...	...
Brick, enameled	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.86	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brick, cleaning and pointing	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.21	...	...	...	...	...	...
Terra-cotta	1.41	...	....	2.06	...	10.04	...	5.76	...	...	...	4.34	7.61	5.07	3.9	2.5	...	3.5	...
Stone	2.75	...	....	1.50	...	...	10.30	...	...	...	...	2.55	4.22	9.34	4.05	7.4	27.3	8.7	9.4
Marble	...	...	....	10.90	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	....	0.83	...	...	...
Wall-lining or furring	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.77	...	...	...	1.8	...	...	...
Floor-arches, roof, etc	...	...	....	...	...	11.06	9.16	5.8	...	...	22.08	3.87	4.73	3.68	6.8	6.6	3.4	3.6	6.6
Cinder-concrete filling over arches	...	...	....	...	...	1.06	1.30	1.24	...	...	0.47	0.57	0.58	0.49	...	...	...	...	6.
Partitions	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1.56	1.88	3.1	...	...	...	...	...
Partitions, cleaning and wrecking	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Safety-deposit vaults	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7.6	...	...	5.16	...
Miscellaneous scaffolding and wrecking	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.48	...	...	...
Miscellaneous masonry	22.40	...	....	...	...	4.15	7.2	9.5	...	...	22.24	...	...	...	7.8	11.70	6.5	...	...

Abbreviations: Ofcs, Offices; Merc, Mercantile; W. H., Warehouse.

Table (Continued) Showing Proportion of Value in the Various Items of Construction of Fire-Proof Buildings

The figures opposite each item represent percentages of total cost of building

Classified construction	New York					Chicago						Baltimore							
Equipment	*20.65*	*21.2*	*12.0*	*20.89*	*11.25*	*24.96*	*24.54*	*25.04*	*23.2*	*20.8*	*2.26*	*19.18*	*24.54*	*15.96*	*18.69*	*26.71*	*15.23*	*21.23*	*12.69*
Elevator-plant	5.70	...	....	5.28	...	4.65	7.81	5.48	...	...	...	7.6	7.68	8.15	5	5.68	3.8	7.7	4.02
Plumbing	3.49	...	....	4.16	...	6.58	5.90	6.19	...	...	0.85	3.26	3.55	2.61	4.13	3.5	3.7	3.4	3.36
Heating-system	5.85	...	....	5.85	...	...	0.67	5.88	...	...	...	4.6	7.06	3.54	4.2	3.6	2.2	6.7	4.15
Boiler-plant	...	...	....	...	...	...	1.92	1.86	...	...	0.85	...	...	...	...	1.9	...	...	...
Lighting-system, wiring and fixtures	5.37	...	....	5.6	...	3.82	2.76	...	...	...	...	2.54	5.05	1.38	2.03	1.9	1.6	3	1.10
Dynamos, switchboards, etc.	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	3.34	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.18	...	...	...
Fixtures	...	...	....	...	...	...	0.32	1.24	...	...	...	0.7	0.49	...	1.05	0.65	...	...	...
Mail-chute	0.24	...	....	...	...	0.24	0.06	0.13	...	...	...	0.48	0.27	0.28	0.18	...	0.33	0.43	...
Filter-plant	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.44	...	...	...	...	...	...
Refrigerating-plant	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.93	...	...	...	...
Safes	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1.9	...	...	...
Vault-doors and safe-doors	...	...	....	...	...	0.24	0.29	0.32	...	...	0.56	...	...	...	0.63	...	3.6	...	...
Flash-signals and indicators	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	....	0.54	...	...	...	...
Furniture	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5.4	...	...	...
Ventilation	...	...	....	...	...	9.43	4.80	0.60	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Trim and finish	*28.40*	*29.8*	*33.25*	*22.26*	*14.75*	*24.44*	*29.45*	*35.28*	*27.7*	*18.3*	*4.39*	*36.06*	*27.56*	*22.83*	*36.20*	*28.78*	*36.63*	*26.89*	*25.04*
Carpentry, rough	...	...	....	...	...	8.90	6.53	8.54	...	...	2.86	2.03	2.59	0.22	10.9	9.8	5.4	7.9	1.6
Carpentry, finish	20.50	...	....	10	...	...	1.88	...	...	...	...	5.27	4.31	0.51	...	...	...	...	5.7
Hardware, rough	...	...	....	...	...	0.96	1.70	1.5	...	...	...	0.32	0.29	1.7	...	0.64	0.9	1.16	1.95
Hardware, finish	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.74	0.88	5.1	0.83	...	...	...	...
Marble	2.83	...	....	9.85	...	5.02	4.17	7.61	...	...	0.25	6.74	7.11	1.42	10.5	5.4	10.1	6.2	2.8
Mosaic	1.25	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.14	...	1.99	...	...	1.2	...	...
Glass	...	...	....	...	...	1.02	1.32	3.37	...	...	...	1 44	9	1.13	1.4	7.5	1.4	...	0.89
Slate	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Plastering	3.82	...	....	2.41	...	2.97	3.68	2.35	...	...	...	2.94	3.05	2.96	2.9	4.21	3.7	2.7	1.4
Fresco	...	...	....	...	...	1.84	3.49	1.78	...	...	...	0.88	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Paint and varnish	...	...	....	...	...	1.64	2.05	1.39	...	...	0.30	2.00	1.34	1.45	2.9	1.6	1.4	2.9	1.5
Office-partitions (wood and glass)	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.65	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ornamental iron	...	...	....	...	...	1.09	2.58	6.19	...	...	...	9.70	5.87	4.62	6.4	5.0	10.5	5.5	6.8
Skylights and sheet metal	...	...	....	...	...	1.00	2.05	2.55	...	...	0.98	0.71	1.22	1.54	0.37	0.63	0.83	0.53	2.4
Office-grill	...	...	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.5	...	0.19	...	...	1.2	...	...
General expenses	...	*4.4*	*7.70*	...	*5.00*	...	...	...	...	...	...	*1.83*	*1.02*	...	*5.17*	*4.31*	*0.36*	*11.2*	*6.94*

Table (Continued) Showing Proportion of Value in the Various Items of Construction of Fire-Proof Buildings

The figures opposite each item represent percentages of total cost of building

Classified construction	Boston																	St. Louis	
	Ofcs	Ofcs	Ofcs	Ofcs	Ofcs	Ofcs	Ofcs	Ofcs	Merc	Merc	Merc	Merc	Merc	Sch'l	Stg	Merc	Merc	Ofcs	Ofcs
Height, in stories	9	11	10	10	11	11	11	11	7	4	6	3	5	3	7	5	6	12	12
Cost, cents per cubic foot	24	...	35	49	67	41.8	45	34	...	...	21.5	22	29	29.6	...	...	...	...	...
Foundations	*10.6*	*5.13*	*4.32*	*7.5*	*4.42*	*5.8*	...	...	*14.2*	*14*	...	*11.5*	*13.5*	*7.4*	...	*24.5*	...	*5*	*7*
Excavations and back-filling	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Shoring banks, etc.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Foundation-footings and concrete	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Rubble-stone and granite pier-caps	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sidewalks and curbs	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Steel frame	*14.4*	*27.4*	*22.5*	*15*	*25.7*	*21.8*	*21.4*	*24.6*	*8.25*	*2.2*	*22.1*	*19.32*	*14.65*	*21.2*	*21.6*	*14.3*	*7.95*	*15.0*	*15.0*
Material	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Erection	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Shop-drawings	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Painting	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Teaming	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Masonwork	*41.4*	*15.0*	*32.23*	*41.6*	*33.60*	*27.57*	*34.85*	*26*	*33.65*	*31.45*	*22.88*	*30.6*	*17.42*	*30.46*	*68.62*	*26*	*38.6*	*20.0*	*25.0*
Brick, common	27.5	8.3	18.9	15	19.7	17.75	17.7	16.9	29.2	30	16.8	24	9.75	20.1	64	23.8	...	...	...
Brick, face or pressed	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brick, enameled	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brick, cleaning and pointing	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Terra-cotta	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Stone	7.1	1.75	8.17	16.6	5.25	3.55	10.4	4.54	4.45	1.45	3.3	6.6	6.95	6.6	4.62	2.14	...	...	...
Marble	5.8	4.95	5.16	10	8.65	6.27	6.75	4.56	...	...	2.78	...	0.72	3.76	...	0.08	...	...	...
Wall-lining or furring	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Floor-arches, roof, etc.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cinder-concrete filling over arches	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Partitions	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Partitions, cleaning and wrecking	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Safety-deposit vaults	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Miscellaneous scaffolding and wrecking	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Miscellaneous masonry	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Abbreviations: Ofcs, Offices; Merc, Mercantile; W. H., Warehouse; Sch'l, School; Stg, Storage.

Table (Concluded) Showing Proportion of Value in the Various Items of Construction of Fire-Proof Buildings

The figures opposite each item represent percentages of total cost of building

Classified construction	Boston																	St. Louis	
Equipment	*9.48*	*30.3*	*18.05*	*15.99*	*24.45*	*20.12*	*23.02*	*23.53*	*8.98*	*23.9*	*18.71*	*12.3*	*11.84*	*16.25*	*2.46*	*10.65*	*19.09*	*17*	*16*
Elevator-plant	3.29	12.4	3.5	4.66	3.92	5.56	4.3	7.1	7.65	1.54	...	5.07	2.44	2.39	...	4.25	6.45	...	...
Plumbing	1.74	4.75	3.4	4	4.8	5.45	2.92	5.47	0.51	1.85	3.68	2.9	5.07	4.32	...	1.25	1.5	...	...
Heating-system	2.71	8.4	4.83	5.33	2.88	2.48	8.46	7.8	...	9.85	5.5	3.34	2.34	7.64	1.54	1.36	2.52	...	...
Boiler-plant	...	...	1.4	...	5.68	2.37	...	...	...	10.4	7.15	...	...	...	...	1.07	...	...	...
Lighting-system, wiring and fixtures	1.74	4.75	3.79	2.00	1.62	4.26	7.34	3.16	...	0.26	2.38	1.03	1.99	1.9	0.92	1.5	7.2	...	...
Dynamos, switchboards, etc.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fixtures	...	...	1.13	...	5.55	...	...	...	0.825	...	...	...	...	...	...	1.22	1.42	...	...
Mail-chute	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Filter-plant	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Refrigerating-plant	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Safes	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vault-doors and safe-doors	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Flash-signals and indicators	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Furniture	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ventilation	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Trim and finish	*20.87*	*22.11*	*22.4*	*19.34*	*12.16*	*24.73*	*21.30*	*26.11*	*34.18*	*28.27*	*36.32*	*26.36*	*41.35*	*24.92*	*7.24*	*24.70*	*34.57*	*33*	*27*
Carpentry, rough	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Carpentry, finish	16.6	14.3	13.4	13.2	6.54	15.75	13.6	18.9	31.2	24.4	16.8	17.5	29	15.1	...	19.9	30.8	...	...
Hardware, rough	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hardware, finish	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Marble	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mosaic	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Glass	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Slate	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Plastering	3.32	5.5	3.3	2.66	1.93	5.2	2.74	3.55	0.572	...	12.6	2.0	6.7	4.3	1.54	0.51	...	...	...
Fresco	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Paint and varnish	2.9	1.65	4	2.33	2.63	2.6	3.74	2.68	1.14	1.58	5.4	3.26	3.6	2.8	0.30	2.86	2.34	...	...
Office-partitions (wood and glass)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ornamental iron	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Skylights and sheet metal	2.05	0.66	1.7	1.15	1.06	1.18	1.22	0.986	1.27	2.29	1.52	3.6	2.05	2.72	5.4	1.43	1.43	...	...
Office-grill	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
General expenses	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*10*	*10*

Table Showing Proportion of Value in the Various Items of Construction in Eight Fire-Proof Office-Buildings Erected in Baltimore, Md., Before the Conflagration. The figures opposite each item represent percentages of total cost of building

Classified construction	Union trust Building	Calvert Building	Herald Building	Continental Building	Equitable Building	Mer Nat Bank Building	Maryland Trust Building	C & P Tel Co Building	Average for eight buildings
Foundations	*5.62*	*4.37*	*7.25*	....	....	....	....	*4.3*	*5.5*
Excavations and back-filling	1 22	1.25	2.07	....	....	....	....	4.3	2.21
Shoring banks and holding adjacent property	....	1.6	....	....	....	....	....	....	1.6
Foundation-footings and concrete	4.4	0.74	5	....	....	....	....	....	3.38
Rubble-stone and granite pier-caps	....	0.65	....	....	....	....	....	....	0.65
Sidewalks and curbs	....	0.13	0.18	....	....	....	....	....	0.155
Steel frame	*13.6*	*14.54*	*19.52*	*9.9*	*9.00*	*10.1*	*11.4*	*17.5*	*13.195*
Material	....	11.79	....	....	....	....	....	....	11.79
Erection	....	1.7	....	....	....	....	....	....	1.7
Shop-drawings	....	c.49	....	....	....	....	....	....	0.49
Painting	....	0.24	....	....	....	....	....	....	0.24
Teaming	....	0.32	....	....	....	....	....	....	0.32
Masonwork	*23.76*	*28.90*	*34.15*	*30.15*	*31.31*	*37.2*	*29.94*	*35.5*	*31.31*
Brick, common	10.1	6.59	11.21	....	....	....	8.98	13.5	8.25
Brick, face or pressed	....	1.82	1.26	....	....	....	....	....	1.54
Brick, enameled	....	0.86	....	....	....	....	....	....	0.86
Brick, cleaning and pointing	....	0.21	....	....	....	....	....	....	0.21
Terra-cotta	4.34	7.61	5.07	3.9	2.5	....	3.5	....	4.48
Stone	2.55	4.22	9.34	4.05	7.4	27.3	8.7	9.4	9.12
Marble	....	....	....	....	0.83	....	....	....	0.83
Wall-lining or furring	0.77	....	....	....	1.8	....	....	....	1.28
Floor-arches, roof, etc.	3.87	4.73	3.68	6.8	6.6	3.4	3.6	6.6	4.91
Cinder-concrete filling over floor-arches	0.57	0.58	0.49	....	....	....	....	6.0	1.91
Partitions	1.56	1.88	3.1	....	....	....	....	....	2.18
Partitions, cleaning and wrecking	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Safety-deposit vaults	....	....	....	7.6	....	....	5.16	....	6.38
Miscellaneous scaffolding and wrecking	....	....	....	....	0.48	....	....	....	0.48
Miscellaneous masonry	....	....	....	7.8	11.70	6.5	....	....	8.66
Equipment	*19.18*	*24.54*	*15.96*	*18.69*	*26.71*	*15.23*	*21.23*	*12.69*	*19.27*
Elevator plant	7.6	7.68	8.15	5	5.2	3.8	7.7	4.02	6.15
Plumbing	3.26	3.55	2.61	4.13	3.5	3.7	3.4	3.36	3.43
Heating system	4.6	7.06	3.54	4.2	3.6	2.2	6.7	4.15	4.5

Table (Continued) Showing Proportion of Value in the Various Items of Construction in Eight Fire-Proof Office-Buildings Erected in Baltimore, Md., Before the Conflagration. The figures opposite each item represent percentages of total cost of building

Classified construction	Union Trust Building	Calvert Building	Herald Building	Continental Building	Equitable Building	Mer Nat Bank Building	Maryland Trust Building	C & P Tel Co Building	Average for eight buildings
Boiler-plant	....	....	....	....	1.9	....	....	....	1.9
Lighting-system, wiring and fixtures	2.54	5.05	1.38	2.03	1.9	1.6	3	1.16	2.33
Dynamos, switchboards, etc.	....	....	....	....	2.18	....	....	....	2.18
Fixtures	0.7	0.49	....	1.05	0.65	....	....	....	0.72
Mail-chute	0.48	0.27	0.28	0.18	....	0.33	0.43	....	0.32
Filter-plant	....	0.44	....	....	....	....	....	....	0.44
Refrigerating-plant	....	....	....	0.93	....	....	....	....	0.93
Safes	....	....	....	....	1.9	....	....	....	1.9
Vault-doors and safe-doors	....	....	....	0.63	....	3.6	....	....	2.11
Flash-signals and indicators	....	....	....	0.54	....	....	....	....	0.54
Turkish baths	....	....	....	....	0.68	....	....	....	0.68
Furniture	....	....	....	....	5.4	....	....	....	5.4
Piping, high pressure	....	....	....	....	0.70	....	....	....	0.70
Trim and finish	*36.06*	*27.56*	*22.83*	*36.20*	*28.78*	*36.63*	*26.89*	*25.04*	*29.99*
Carpentry, rough	2.03	2.59	0.22	10.9	9.8	5.4	7.9	1.6	5.05
Carpentry, finish	5.27	4.31	0.51	....	....	....	....	5.7	3.94
Hardware, rough	0.32	0.29	1.7	....	0.64	0.9	1.16	1.95	0.99
Hardware, finish	0.74	0.88	5.1	0.83	....	....	....	....	1.88
Marble	6.74	7.11	1.42	10.5	5.4	10.1	6.2	2.8	6.28
Mosaic	0.14	....	1.99	....	....	1.2	....	....	1.11
Glass	1.44	9	1.13	1.4	7.5	1.4	....	0.89	1.23
Slate	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Plastering	2.94	3.05	2.96	2.9	4.21	3.7	2.7	1.4	2.98
Fresco	0.88	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	0.88
Paint and varnish	2.00	1.34	1.45	2.9	1.6	1.4	2.9	1.5	1.88
Office-partitions (wood and glass)	2.65	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2.65
Ornamental iron	9.70	5.87	4.62	6.4	5.0	10.5	5.5	6.8	6.79
Skylights and sheet metal	0.71	1.22	1.54	0.37	0.63	0.83	0.53	2.4	1.02
Office-grill	0.5	....	0.19	....	....	1.2	....	....	0.63
General expenses	*1.83*	*1.92*	....	*5.17*	*4.31*	*0.36*	*11.2*	*6.94*	*4.53*
Miscellaneous	1.83	1.92	....	0.27	0.67	0.36	10	1.94	2.43
Architects' fees, etc.	....	....	....	4.9	1.82	....	....	5.0	3.91
Permits, bond, survey, insurance, etc.	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	1.2
Cleaning out debris after fire	....	....	....	....	1.82	....	0.2	....	1.82

Cost of Different Kinds of Work per Cubic Foot of Building

Some estimates * have been made by F. W. Fitzpatrick showing the proportionate COST OF THE DIFFERENT BRANCHES OF WORK which go to make up a completed building. Believing that these data will be found useful in making up approximate estimates, Mr. Kidder obtained permission to use them in the Pocket-Book. The following figures represent the actual cost of a TEN-STORY OFFICE-BUILDING, 60 by 130 ft in plan, built in the Middle West, a first-class fire-proof structure, with two street-fronts faced with granite and resting on a pile foundation.

Kind of work	Per cubic foot of entire building, cents	Kind of work	Per cubic foot of entire building, cents
Foundations	1¾	Heating	1⅛
Steel framing	2½	Plumbing	½
Granite and all masonry	11⅙	Elevators	1
Cornice, roofs and skylights	⅔	Stairs, scenic structural framing, "making ends meet," lamp-fixtures, etc. What might be called a fair amount for "contingencies" in such a building, including lesser items not mentioned here but grouped together	$4\tfrac{23}{120}$
Fire-proof floors	⅔	Architect's fee	1⅗
Partitions, tile	⅖		
All plastering and stucco	1¼		
Elevator-fronts and all ornamental metalwork	2		
Marblework	3⅙		
Hardware	$\tfrac{2}{15}$		
Joiners' work	1⅙		
Glass	$\tfrac{5}{12}$		
Painting and varnishing	$\tfrac{7}{30}$		
Electric wiring	⅔	Total	$34\tfrac{5}{12}$

The Chicago post-office building, containing 12 000 000 cu ft and of monumental character and finish, cost, in some of its items, as follows:

Kind of work	Per cubic foot of entire building, cents	Kind of work	Per cubic foot of entire building, cents
Foundations	1¾	Ornamental metalwork	2⅛
Steel framing	2½	Marble	5⅔
Granite and masonry	13½	Plumbing	½
Fire-proof floors	⅔	Heating	1⅛
Plaster, plain and ornamental	1⅞		

It will be noticed that the relative cost of several of these items is the same as in the office-building. The total cost of this building was 42⅙ cts per cu ft.

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* Published in "Fireproof," March, 1903.

Cost of Buildings per Square Foot

One-Story Buildings of Large Area, such as exposition-buildings, etc., may be estimated almost as accurately by the square foot of ground covered as by the cubic foot of building, as there are few or no interior partitions, and usually no plastering or interior finish.

Iron and Steel Buildings. "Roughly speaking, the cost of one-story iron and steel buildings, complete, is, for sheds and storage-houses, from 40 to 60 cts per sq ft of ground, and for such buildings as machine-shops, foundries, and electric-light plants, that are provided with traveling cranes, the cost is from 60 to 90 cts per sq ft of ground covered." *

Structural Steel. For estimates of cost of structural steel for buildings, see pages 1524 to 1527.

Wooden and Brick Mills and Warehouses. See Chapter XXII, pages 802 to 810.

Exposition-Buildings. The cost † of the World's Fair buildings (Chicago, 1893) per square foot of ground covered, including sculpture and decoration, was as follows:

Manufactures and Liberal Arts Building	$1.39
Transportation Building	1.08
Electricity Building	1.69
Machinery Hall	2.12
Agricultural Building	1.44
Administration Building	9.18
Horticultural Building	1.41
Mines and Mining Building	1.04
Fisheries Building	2.35
Forestry Building	0.75

Cost of Structures for the St. Louis Exposition (1904). The following figures were issued by Isaac S. Taylor, at that time Director of Works, of the

Building	Dimensions, ft	Area, acres	Total cost	Cost, sq ft
Art	161×346	1.42	$967 833.90	$5.45
Two Art Pavilions, each	144×423	3.14		
Art Building Annex	106×150	0.41	39 388.99	2.48
Government Building	200×736	3.86	328 980.00	2.23
Government Fisheries	136×136	0.42	45 000.00	2.43
Mines and Metallurgy	525×750	9.08	488 848.50	1.24
Liberal Arts	525×750	8.80	471 820.95	1.20
Education and Social Economy	525×758	7.70	323 950.75	0.81
Manufactures	525×1 200	13.47	711 510.00	1.13
Electricity	525×758	6.67	408 531.57	1.03
Varied Industries	525×1 200	10.28	704 067.96	1.12
Machinery	525×1 000	9.48	509 110.50	0.97
Steam, Gas and Fuel	301×326⅔	2.25	135 480.00	1.38
Transportation	525×1 300	15.70	674 853.42	0.99
Horticulture	374×782	5.42	225 342.27	0.77
Agriculture	500×1 600	18.62	520 491.07	0.58
Forestry, Fish and Game	300×600	4.07	168 883.38	0.94
Festival Hall	195 in diameter, exclusive of annex	1.09	215 899.00	....

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* H. G. Tyrrell.

† Given by E. C. Shankland, chief engineer.

World's Fair, showing the area and cost of the principal exhibition-buildings. The total area of twenty-two buildings was 123.51 acres, and the total cost $6 939 992.26. The cost was for the bare buildings, and did not include sculptural or other decorations, or the architects' compensation.

Recent Exposition Buildings. The cost of buildings of this character, erected since 1904, shows a pretty general increase up to 1914, with occasional variations in the rate of change, of from 1 to 2% per year.

Cost of United States Government Buildings. There was published in 1900, by the United States Treasury Department, a history of the public buildings of the United States, giving their cost, and in 1902, there was published * a list of 287 buildings, giving the cost per cubic foot, the material used for the walls and the date of erection. There was also published, in 1910, by the Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds of the United States Senate, a list of sites and plans for public buildings, giving data of much value in regard to the cost of public buildings, their cubical contents and their cost per cubic foot, including buildings erected from 1816 to 1910. "As a rule, these buildings have cost more per cubic foot than private buildings, so that their cost cannot always be used as a guide, except for government buildings." †

Unit Prices per Cubic Foot for Recent Government Buildings of the Same Type.‡ The data included in the following paragraphs relate to federal buildings recently erected or in process of construction in 1914. They are of certain FIXED TYPES and in different parts of the United States. The buildings are post-office buildings and the location, brief description of the general construction, ground-area covered, cubical contents and comparative rates per cubic foot are given. The buildings are grouped under five different types, and the VARIATIONS IN COSTS PER CUBIC FOOT of similar or identical buildings in each type, located in different sections of the country, are shown. Following these five types is a list of buildings of various sizes and descriptions showing the variations in the cubic-foot rates. The conclusions arrived at and summarized at the end of the lists, include a table which shows what is considered by the office of the Supervising Architect to be a fair DIFFERENCE IN COST OF BUILDINGS OF THE SAME TYPE in different sections of the United States. It is considered, also, by this office, that the method of estimating the cost of buildings by a CUBIC-FOOT UNIT PRICE is productive of very uncertain results, inasmuch as there are many variable conditions entering into the construction of buildings located in different localities. The principal items affecting the cost of similar types of buildings are:

(1) Labor; rates and efficiency.
(2) Materials; quality and freight-rates.
(3) Season; time of year when building is constructed.
(4) Contractors; finances, ability, equipment, overhead expenses and margin of profit desired.

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* Published in the Architects' and Builders' Magazine, Aug., 1902, and in the Inland Architect April, 1902.

† F. E. Kidder, in previous editions of the Pocket-Book.

‡ The information relating to the cost of recent government buildings of certain types was furnished by J. W. Ginder, Superintendent of the Computing Division, Office of the Supervising Architect, by permission of Mr. O. Wenderoth, the Supervising Architect through whose courtesy and valuable assistance the editor is able to present the data referred to. The editor regrets that limited space prevents the reproduction of a carefully prepared and most interesting series of photographs of the plans, elevations and sections of the government buildings, the costs of which per cubic foot are here discussed.

(5) **Location**; as to supply-centers, distance from railroads, and facilities for handling materials.

Variations in Unit Costs of Identical Buildings in Different Localities. In order to compare the costs of identical buildings, with slight modification only, the following are given as examples, to show the variance in different localities.

Type 1. Post-office buildings at Grenada, Miss., Bennettsville, S. C., Covington, Tenn., and Burlington, N. J.

Description. Main building, two stories and basement; rear projection, one story and basement; non-fire-proof construction throughout; brick facing; stone trim; wooden cornice; slate-covered gable roof, with dormers over two-story portion, and flat, composition roof over one-story portion.

Area and contents	
Ground-area	3 825 sq ft
Cubical contents	138 210 cu ft

Rate per cubic foot		
Location	Non-fire-proof	First floor, fire-proof
Grenada, Miss	$0.322	$0.327
Covington, Tenn	0.315	0.324
Bennettsville, S. C	0.304	0.309
Burlington, N. J	0.293	0.298

Type 2. Post-office buildings at Winchester, Tenn., McPherson, Kan., and Longview, Tex.

Description. Main building, two stories; rear projection, one story; partly excavated basement; non-fire-proof construction throughout; brick facing; stone trim; wooden cornice and pilasters at front entrance; slate-covered gable roof with dormers over two-story portion, and flat, composition roof over one-story portion.

Area and contents	
Ground-area	3 825 sq ft
Cubical contents	138 210 cu ft

Rate per cubic foot		
Location	Non-fire-proof	First floor, fire-proof
Winchester, Tenn	$0.344	$0.350
McPherson, Kan	0.346	0.351
Longview, Tex	0.332	0.337

Type 3. Post-office buildings at Cookeville, Tenn., and Jackson, Ky.

Description. Three-story-and-basement building; stone-faced to top of course over water-table; selected, common-brick facing and ornamental terra-cotta trim; composition and slate roof and non-fire-proof construction, except the first floor.

Area and contents	
Ground-area	4 942 sq ft
Cubical contents	290 300 cu ft
Rate per cubic foot	
Cookeville, Tenn	$0.275
Jackson, Ky	0.269

Type 4. Post-office buildings at Garden City, Kan., and Lake City, Minn. (identical buildings).

Description. One-story-and-basement, brick-faced building, with stone water-table course and trimmings and ornamental terra-cotta cornice, architrave and parapet-coping; non-fire-proof construction, except the first floor; composition roof.

Area and contents	
Ground-area	3 888 sq ft
Cubical contents	141 456 cu ft
Rate per cubic foot	
Garden City, Kan	$0.405
Lake City, Minn	0.341

Type 5. Post-office buildings at Abilene, Kan., and Bellefontaine, Ohio.

Description. One story and basement; stone facing; granite steps, etc.; tin roof; fire-proof construction, except roof.

Area and contents	
Ground-area	5 000 sq ft
Cubical contents	183 000 cu ft
Rate per cubic foot	
Abilene, Kan	$0.359
Bellefontaine, Ohio	0.367

Buildings of Various Sizes and Descriptions. The following list is for buildings of various sizes and descriptions throughout the country and shows the variance in the cubic-foot rate.

Post-office building at New Rochelle, N. Y.

Description. This building is of an irregular plan; two-story and basement; center pavilion; sides and rear one-story and basement; clearstory over workroom; stone facing to first-floor level; brick facing above this point, with terra-cotta trim and cornice; composition roof; fire-proof construction.

Ground-area	7 512 sq ft
Cubical contents	258 900 cu ft
Rate per cubic foot	$0.259

Post-office building at Mobile, Ala.

Description. Front portion, two stories, and rear portion, one story over workroom. Only a small portion of basement excavated for heating-plant. Main building faced with limestone and rear second story portion with ornamental terra-cotta. Fire-proof construction; long and short spans, and concrete joists with terra-cotta fillers; copper deck and Spanish-tile roofs.

Ground-area	18 054 sq ft
Cubical contents	670 476 cu ft
Rate per cubic foot	$0.341

Post-office building at Muskogee, Okla.

Description. A four-story-and-basement building. Granite to the first-floor line, stone-faced above (except in interior court, which is brick); terra-cotta cresting at roof; copper roofing and fire-proof construction throughout. Both standard types of concrete and terra-cotta floor-construction. Monumental in design. Corinthian colonnade at entrance. Eight heavy bronze lamp-standards. Six flights of marble stairs. Entire lobby of marble, and very ornamental plaster-work in lobby and court-room.

Ground-area	20 400 sq ft
Cubical contents	1 326 614 cu ft
Rate per cubic foot	$0.43

Post-office building at New Bedford, Mass.

Description. One story, basement and mezzanine with clearstory over central portion; granite facing, except clearstory, which is faced with terra-cotta; main roof of composition; clearstory roof of copper; fire-proof construction.

Ground-area	27 750 sq ft
Cubical contents	1 080 690 cu ft
Rate per cubic foot	$0.323

Post-office building at Newark, Ohio.

Description. Two-story, basement and unfinished attic. The workroom extends through two stories. Offices in second story over balance of building. Fire-proof construction throughout. Terra-cotta floors, ceilings, roofs, partitions, furring, etc. Exterior faced with pink granite to the first-floor level and with white marble above, including cornice, parapet, etc. Flat tin roof; bronze grilles at first and second-story windows on front of building. Cast-iron grilles at first-story and basement-windows on sides and rear; bronze-faced post-office screens, desks, revolving doors, vestibules, etc., and drawn-bronze covered sashes, window-frames, doors, etc., in lobby. Caen-stone cornice and coffered ceiling in lobby. Bronze and marble stairs to second story.

Ground-area	6 912 sq ft
Cubical contents	369 640 cu ft
Rate per cubic foot	$0.487

Post-office building at Minot, N. D.

Description. Three-story-and-basement building; fire-proof, except roof, which is plank on steel beams; stone facing to second-story window-sills; brick facing above, with stone cornice, parapet-coping, etc.

Ground-area	6 700 sq ft
Cubical contents	427 300 cu ft
Rate per cubic foot	$0.328

Post-office building at McAlester, Okla.

Description. Three stories and basement; fire-proof, except roof; terra-cotta floors, etc.; suspended ceilings; stone facing to second-floor level; brick facing above, with stone trim; cornice and balustrade; tin roof.

Ground-area	7 482 sq ft
Cubical contents	394 765 cu ft
Rate per cubic foot	$0.38

Post-office building at North Tonawanda, N. Y.

Description. The building has two stories and basement; granite to the first-floor line; brick-faced above with stone trimming and slate roof; fire-proof construction to and including the second floor.

Ground-area	5 475 sq ft
Cubical contents	276 320 cu ft
Rate per cubic foot	$0.289

Conclusions Regarding Variations in Unit Costs. In the foregoing unit costs, the APPROACH-WORK, such as walks, platforms, terraces, etc., is included. This, in some cases, is quite expensive, and is generally from 5 to 10% of the entire cost of the building. In federal buildings, there are many requirements not met with in the ordinary mercantile buildings, and the permanent character of the building necessitates all materials, workmanship and construction to be of the very best in each case. This is guaranteed by iron-clad specifications, long-time guarantees for several items of the work, and personal government inspection. The office of the supervising architect has determined that the RELATIVE INCREASE in cost of buildings throughout the country over the cost in the Mississippi Valley district is about as follows, taking the Mississippi Valley district, as a BASE, at 100%, and the labor and market-conditions which prevailed in October, 1914.

	Per cent
Mississippi Valley district	100
New England (except Maine)	110
Maine	115
Southern States	100
Northwest Mountain district	130
Southwest Mountain district	120
Pacific Coast	125

In the grouping of districts, the Mississippi Valley district is intended to cover the Middle States as far east as Ohio and Pennsylvania, and the states, generally, bordering on the western bank of the Mississippi River. This is found to be a part of the country in which the LOWEST PRICES have been obtained. The other districts represent the approximate greater cost for buildings over that in the Mississippi Valley or Middle States, and is intended to represent the DIFFERENCE IN COST AT ANY TIME; but is not intended to represent the difference in cost at different periods.

Illustration of Variation in Cost of Buildings of Identical Area and Contents. The following notes are taken from photographs of drawings and from data accompanying them.* The drawings were for a Post-Office building at Menomonie, Wis. This building contains 4 770 sq ft of ground-area, and the cubical contents are 147 570 cu ft. The contract was awarded (1913) for $45 380, or at the rate of $0.308 per cu ft. It is a one-story-and-basement building, faced with brick, with stone water-table, brick parapet and tin and composition roof. The first floor, only, is fire-proof. Proposals were opened (1914) for a Post-Office building at Uvalde, Tex. This building, except for some slight modifications, is as nearly like the Menomonie building as it is possible to make it without using the same drawings. The ground-area of the Uvalde building is 4 672 sq ft and the cubical contents, 151 875 cu ft. The work in connection with the approaches is practically the same as that at Menomonie. If these buildings had been erected in the same town, it does not appear that there would have been any difference in the costs, but the lowest proposal received for the Uvalde building was $56 400, or at the rate of $0.371 per cu ft. A comparison of the amounts for these two buildings further illustrates the unreliability of any universal application of the cubic-foot rate in determining the costs of buildings, and also shows that the difference in cost of construction of buildings in different sections of the country varies considerably.

Cost per Cubic Foot of Some Important Federal Buildings. The following tabulations contain additional unit costs and other data for public buildings.

Cost per Cubic Foot of Some of the Larger Public Buildings

Location and building	Cost per cubic foot, cents
New York, N. Y., Custom-House (completed 1908)	74
Cleveland, Ohio, Post-Office, Custom-House and Court-House	68
San Francisco, Cal., New Post-Office and Court-House (completed 1906)	66
Denver, Col., new Mint (completed 1905)	65
San Francisco, Cal., Subtreasury Building (estimated)	60
Baltimore, Md., new Custom-House (completed 1908)	55
Washington, D. C., Senate Office-Building	50
Salt Lake City, Utah, Post-Office (completed 1905)	47
Indianapolis, Ind., new Post-Office (completed 1906)	46
Philadelphia, Pa., new Mint (completed 1901)	45
Washington, D. C., National Museum Building	43
Washington, D. C., Agricultural Buildings (portions completed)	40
Washington, D. C., House Office-Building	36

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* These photographs of plans, elevations and sections, together with many others, and accompanying explanations and data, were furnished the editor by J. W. Ginder, Superintendent of the Computing Division, Office of the Supervising Architect, by permission of Mr. O. Wenderoth, the Supervising Architect, and have been of great assistance in the presentation of notes on the costs of buildings.

Cost per Cubic Foot and per Square Foot of Some New Public Buildings *

Location	Facing	Cost	Contents, cu ft	Area, sq ft	Cost	
					Cu ft	Sq ft
Bangor, Me............	Granite	$271 297	793 720	15 600	$0.342	$17.40
Augusta, Ga...........	Marble	288 800	576 000	11 000	0.500	26.20
South Chicago, Ill......	Stone	132 702	377 668	11 000	0.350	12.00
Long Branch, N. J......	Limestone	95 200	256 210	6 470	0.373	14.80
Plymouth, Mass.......	Brick	81 532	256 210	6 470	0.318	12.60
Piqua, Ohio...........	Limestone	116 689	448 300	9 984	0.360	11.70
New Bedford, Mass...	Granite	295 051	1 080 000	21 732	0.300	13.50

Depreciation of Buildings †

Discounts from Values of New Buildings. The figures given on the preceding pages are for new buildings. To ascertain their value at any time subsequent to their erection, a discount from the value when new should be made as follows:

	Per cent per year
Brick, occupied by owner..............................	1 to 1¼
Brick, occupied by tenant..............................	1¼ to 1½
Frame, occupied by owner..............................	2 to 2½
Frame, occupied by tenant..............................	2½ to 3

If built of long-leaf yellow pine, or of spruce from the New England States, add from 20 to 30%, or if of short-leaf yellow pine, add from 40 to 50% to these values. If of redwood or cedar from the Pacific Coast, use about one-half these estimates, which are for white pine or white pine with oak framing-timbers. These figures for depreciation are to include buildings in which ordinary repairs have been made. If extraordinary repairs have been made, the discount should not be so heavy. Good judgment must be used in estimating the amount of depreciation in buildings.

The Depreciation of Mill-Buildings. The annual depreciation of a mill-building of slow-burning construction varies from 1 to 1½%, while the depreciation of a reinforced-concrete factory-building is relatively much less, since it is confined entirely to such details as windows, doors, roofing, etc.

The Wear and Tear of Building Materials. At the tenth annual meeting of the Fire Underwriters' Association of the Northwest, held at Chicago in September, 1879, Mr. A. W. Spalding read a paper on the wear and tear of building materials and tabulated the results of his investigations in the following form:

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* Reproduced, by permission, from the Journal of the Society of Constructors of Federal Buildings, September, 1914, through the courtesy of C. R. Marsh, Editor of Publications of the Society of Constructors of Federal Buildings. This Journal, published monthly, contains data of much interest to architects and builders.

† From Tiffany's Estimate of Depreciation, used by the United States Government.

Material in building	Frame dwelling		Brick dwelling (shingle roof)		Frame store		Brick store (shingle roof)	
	Average life years	Depreciation per annum %	Average life years	Depreciation per annum %	Average life years	Depreciation per annum %	Average life years	Depreciation per annum %
Brick	....	......	75	1⅓	....	......	66	1½
Plastering	20	5	30	3⅓	16	6	30	3⅓
Painting, outside	5	20	7	14	5	20	6	16
Painting, inside	7	14	7	14	5	20	6	16
Shingles	16	6	16	6	16	6	16	6
Cornices	40	2½	40	2½	30	3⅓	40	2½
Weather-boarding	30	3⅓	....	......	30	3⅓	....	......
Sheathing	50	2	50	2	40	2½	50	2
Flooring	20	5	20	5	13	8	13	8
Doors, complete	30	3⅓	30	3⅓	25	4	30	3⅓
Windows, complete	30	3⅓	30	3⅓	25	4	30	3⅓
Stairs and newels	30	3⅓	30	3⅓	20	5	20	5
Bases	40	2½	40	2½	30	3⅓	30	3⅓
Inside blinds	30	3⅓	30	3⅓	30	3⅓	30	3½
Building hardware	20	5	20	5	13	8	13	8
Piazzas and porches	20	5	20	5	20	5	20	5
Outside blinds	16	6	16	6	16	6	16	6
Sills and first-floor joists	25	4	40	2½	25	4	30	3⅓
Dimension-lumber	50	2	75	1⅓	40	2½	66	1½

These figures represent the averages deduced from the replies made by eighty-three competent builders unconnected with fire-insurance companies in twenty-seven cities and towns of the eleven Western States.

THE QUANTITY SYSTEM OF ESTIMATING*

Explanation of the System. The QUANTITY SYSTEM is not, as some persons have supposed, merely the taking off of a list of items by one person for some other person's use. It means the careful measurement by a disinterested expert specially trained in this kind of work, that is, a QUANTITY SURVEYOR. This specialist proceeds in a manner different from that of the average contractor. He follows certain recognized rules in taking off quantities, abstracting and billing, with a view to eliminating errors. He uses also certain uniform standards of measurements and expressions. His checking and rechecking methods to ensure accuracy must be studied to be appreciated by those to whom the quantity system is unknown. A record is made of every item, however small, having a money-value. These items are classified and arranged, each under its proper trade or department, in methodical order. Guess-work methods are unknown to the quantity surveyor, while his accuracy and attention to even small details is worthy of comment. Every bidder figures from a copy of the surveyor's quantities furnished to each one, with the plans and specifications, free of cost. The surveyor who does this work is a professional man similar to the engineer or the architect. He should, in fact, have, and he usually has had, experience in these professions, and in addition, a practical experience acquired in the field in actual, close superintendence of construction-work.

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* The quantity system of estimating has been systematically advocated since 1891. It has attracted much attention among contractors, architects and engineers as a direct result of the long-continued activity of those who recommend it. In course of time this system of estimating must be adopted, as it stands for a square deal between owner and contractor. The movement in aid of this work is purely a voluntary one, an honest effort to bring about a betterment of the existing conditions in estimating and contracting. Further information may be obtained from G. A. Wright, 354 Pine Street, San Francisco, Cal., the founder of the present movement to introduce the system in the United States.

Method of Procedure. Such a surveyor, in taking off quantities from an architect's or engineer's drawings, readily detects any ambiguities or discrepancies, due to hasty preparation or other cause. The attention of the architect or engineer is at once called to such matters by the quantity surveyor, as he goes on with his work. Detected in this way, such uncertainties are at once corrected and adjusted, so that by the time the drawings and specifications reach the bidders for estimating purposes, everything has been made plain and accurate and the possibility of error in quantities can be practically disregarded. The resulting document, prepared exclusively in the surveyor's office, is then printed or similarly reproduced, and a facsimile supplied free of cost to each bidder, who inserts his unit price opposite each item, and readily foots up the money-cost in dollars and cents. This is really all that he should be expected to do for nothing. The quantities of materials and labor then set forth in this document, or BILL OF QUANTITIES, should state everything the contractor is called upon to perform or furnish, in order to complete his contract. In short, the bid becomes a PROPOSAL to do a certain FIXED QUANTITY of work, no more and no less. This, then, briefly, is the main underlying principle of the QUANTITY SYSTEM OF ESTIMATING: a definite quantity of work for a definite price, and the entire elimination of conditions which now compel bidders to take chances, and cause all parties, the owners included, to suffer in the end.

The Present Unsatisfactory Conditions. Most architects are familiar with the wasteful, unsatisfactory methods followed today. They injure both parties to a contract because of bidders' mistakes in figuring, as accuracy is so often sacrificed for so-called speed. While wonderful strides in methods of construction and in materials have been made, no attention has been given to STANDARDIZING METHODS OF ESTIMATING. In the end, of course, it is the owner who suffers. There are, however, as a result of the movement initiated in San Francisco, indications that more conservatism and a closer adherence to business principles are going to be preferred by the moneyed interests, in place of the guess-work which has prevailed in the past. Architects or engineers who permit an unduly low bidder to take a contract are certainly courting trouble.

Use of the System in Other Countries. The principle of measure and value, or payment by measurement, usually designated as the QUANTITY SYSTEM, is based upon equity and square dealing. On large work it is used in England, Ireland, Scotland, France, Germany, Australia and South Africa, and it is a significant fact, that in no instance in which this system has been once established, has it ever been abandoned for the former haphazard methods.

Advantages Claimed. The advocates of the quantity system in the United States claim for it the following advantages:

(1) The enormous saving of time and money now wasted by numerous bidders, all doing the same thing and going over the same ground.

(2) Safer bids, as the volume of work to be performed is clearly indicated by the bill of quantities, which is the essence of the contract.

(3) No expense to the bidder, the owner paying for his own quantities knowingly, and he and the contractor both receiving the benefit. The owner pays now, but this fact is not emphasized or brought to his attention, and so he does not know it. The percentage added to a bidder's net cost is not all profit, a

certain portion being absorbed in overhead charges, which, of course, are ultimately paid by the owner.

(4) Saving of disputes arising from extra claims which are often made because of the vagueness of the drawings, and of omissions or other errors in the specifications.

(5) Better opportunities for the careful, competent bidder. With the quantity system the bidders all work up from the same basis. The incompetent bidder cannot omit or forget items, and so take work away from more careful or more competent bidders.

(6) Better work and greater harmony, for the reason that if no part of the work is omitted there is less temptation to that letting up on the work which usually results in dissatisfaction, if not in friction or worse.

(7) Misunderstandings are reduced to a minimum. The bill of quantities is the interpreter of what is intended, a sort of clearing-house for the drawings and specifications.

(8) Neither party to the contract can obtain any advantage over the other on quantity or description of work.

(9) No disputes with subbidders, it being clearly stated what each trade is to furnish.

(10) Contractors having much less figuring to do can devote more time and give more attention to buildings in hand, and especially to supervising and directing their subcontractors, a condition much desired at present.

(11) Less liability of owners and architects to have inferior contractors as the lowest bidders.

(12) Fewer extras, which are usually a trouble to all concerned. Should there be any, however, they can be more easily adjusted if the schedule prices govern in such a case.

(13) The architect or engineer, if he so desires, has the advantage of collaboration with the professional quantity surveyor, who is available, also, when preliminary figures are required. This information is now often furnished by the contractors, thus creating an undesirable obligation.

(14) No change or reorganizing of architects' or engineers' offices is necessary, and much detail-work, now involved in the taking off of figures, would be taken care of in the quantity surveyor's office.

(15) When the contracts are signed, the drawings and specifications will have been previously made as complete as possible, thereby avoiding subsequent inconvenience to the contractor and his foreman on the job, and largely doing away with inquiries at the architect's offices by contractors during the progress of the work.

Adaptation to American Practice. In the United States any such system must conform to American needs and sentiment, and be a practical system. For many reasons it would be undesirable to accept the English practice in either of its forms. The great principles it stands for, however, can be accepted and applied with great advantage.

DIMENSIONS AND DATA USEFUL IN THE PREPARATION OF ARCHITECTS' DRAWINGS AND SPECIFICATIONS*

Dimensions for Furniture. For the convenience of draughtsmen when designing furniture or providing space for a special article the following dimensions are given: †

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* See, also, the additional tables with more detailed and classified lists.

† Many of these dimensions were first contributed to the American Architect of November 10, 1894, by Alvin C. Nye.

Chairs and Seats. The average figures taken from a variety of good chairs are: Height of the seat above the floor, 18 in; depth of the seat, 19 in; the top of the back above the floor, 38 in. Usually the seat increases in depth as it decreases in height, while the back is higher and slopes more. Twenty inches inside is a comfortable depth for a seat of moderate size. Chair-arms are about 9 in above the seat. The slope of the back should not be more than one-fifth the depth of the seat. A LOUNGE is 6 ft long and about 30 in wide.

Tables vary in shape and size almost as much as chairs. Writing-tables and dining-tables are made 2 ft 5 in high, and the type of sideboard called a CARVING-TABLE is made 3 ft high to the principal shelf; but tables for general use are 2 ft 6 in high. DINING-TABLES are made from 3 ft 6 in to 4 ft wide and to extend from 12 ft to 16 ft by means of slides within the frame. This frame should not be so deep as to interfere with the knees of any one sitting at the table; that is, there must be about 2 ft clear space between it and the floor. The smallest size practicable for the KNEE-HOLES of desks and library-tables is 2 ft high by 1 ft 8 in wide, the width to be increased as much as possible.

Bedsteads are classed as SINGLE, THREE-QUARTERS, and DOUBLE. A single bed is from 3 to 4 ft wide inside; a three-quarter bed, from 4 ft to 4 ft 6 in; a double bed, 5 ft. Bedsteads are from 6 ft 6 in to 6 ft 8 in long inside. Footboards are from 2 ft 6 in to 3 ft 6 in and headboards from 5 ft to 6 ft 6 in high. Single beds for dormitories are often made only 2 ft 8 in wide.

Bureaus vary in shape and size to such an extent that it is almost impossible to say that any dimension is fixed. Convenient sizes are: body, 3 ft 5 in wide, 1 ft 6 in deep and 2 ft 6 in high; or 4 ft wide, 1 ft 8 in deep and 3 ft high.

Commodes are 1 ft 6 in square on the top and 2 ft 6 in high.

Chiffoniers are about 3 ft wide, 1 ft 8 in deep and 4 ft 4 in high.

Cheval-Glasses are made, if large, 6 ft 4 in high and 3 ft 2 in wide. If small, 5 ft high and 1 ft 8 in wide. If medium, 5 ft 6 in high and 2 ft wide.

Wash-Stands of large sizes are 3 ft long, 1 ft 6 in wide and 2 ft 7 in high. Small sizes are from 2 ft 4 in to 2 ft 8 in long.

Wardrobes may be 8 ft high, 2 ft deep and 4 ft 6 in wide; or 6 ft 9 in high, 1 ft 5 in deep and 3 ft wide.

Sideboards may be from 4 to 6 ft long and from 20 in to 2 ft 2 in deep.

Upright Pianos vary from 4 ft 10 in to 5 ft 6 in in length, from 4 to 4 ft 9 in in height and are about 2 ft 4 in deep over all.

Miniature and Baby-Grand Pianos vary from 5 ft 10 in to 6 ft in length, and are about 4 ft 10 in in width.

Parlor-Grand Pianos vary from 5½ ft to 6 ft 10 in in length, and are about 4 ft 10 in in width.

Concert-Grand Pianos are about 8 ft 10 in in length and 5 ft in width.

Billiard-Tables (Collender), 4 by 8 ft, 4 ft 2 in by 9 ft and 5 by 10 ft. Size of room required 13 by 17 ft, 14 by 18 ft and 15 by 20 ft, respectively.

Classified Tables* of Furniture-Dimensions. The following more detailed and classified tables of average dimensions of furniture are added to those already given and are taken from recent data furnished by manufacturers of rniture. While some of these measurements vary slightly from the dimenons given in the preceding paragraphs they represent average dimensions of rniture as made at the present time.

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* These additional tables were compiled by E. S. Hand, and much of this data in the several editions of the Pocket-Book has been taken, by permission, from the valuable treatise on Furniture Designing and Draughting, by A. C. Nye.

Dimensions of Tables

Kind of table	Length	Width	Height	Remarks
Bedroom-table	31	22	29	....
Bedroom-table	18	18	30	Commode
Bijou-table	30	22	30	....
Carving-table	42	20	36	....
Dressing-table	36	20	30	....
Extension table	66	66	30	Round
Extension table	54	54	30	Square
Library-table	51	41	30	Oval
Library-table	42	27	29	....
Library-table	54	34	29	....
Library-table	60	36	29	....
Tea-table	13	13	20	Round
	18	18	24	Square
	23	17	29	Upper shelf
	30	23	18	Lower shelf

All dimensions are in inches. Heights are from the floor.

Dimensions of Chairs

Kind of chair	Height	Seat-width,		Depth, outside	Back		Arms, height from floor
		Front	Back		Height	Slope	
Bedroom-chair	18	16	13	17	34	3½	......
Baby's high chair *	20	14	12	13½	37	3	27
Cheek-chair †	17	29	25	27½	44	4½	......
Chip-chair	17	22	17½	17	39	.....	......
Chip-chair	18	22	17	17¾	38	.....	......
Dining-chair	20	24	22	22	45	2½	26½
Dining-chair	20	19	17	19	43	2	......
Dining-chair	19	19	17	18	38½	1½	......
Dining-chair	18	20	15	15	36	2	......
Easy chair	17	33	28	24 ¶	43	5	21
Easy chair †	17	27	25	27½	41	6½	26
Hepplewhite chair	18	21½	17	17	34½	2	27
Parlor-chair ‡	16½	24	19½	18¾	36	4	25¾
Parlor-chair †	14	21	21	18 ¶	29	.....	......
Parlor-chair †	18	26½	22½	26½	37	4	25
Parlor-chair §	18	20	13	19	36	3	23
Piano-bench	20	40	.....	15	......	.....	......
Reception-chair ‖	17	21	19	21	30	2	......
Rocking-chair	16	23½	20½	19½	41	2	24
Roundabout chair	18	18	18	18	29½	0	28½
Rubens chair	20½	17½	17½	15	40	0	......
Slipper-chair	12	18	15	17	28	3	......

* Foot rest 12 in above floor. † Overstuffed. ‡ French cane seat and back.
§ Wooden arm and back. ‖ Upholstered seat. ¶ Depth inside.

All dimensions are in inches. Heights are from the floor. The slope of the back is measured at the seat-level to a perpendicular through the highest point of the back.

Dimensions of Sofas

Kind of sofa	Height	Seat-width		Depth, outside	Back		Arms, height from floor
		Front	Back		Height	Slope	
Small	18	43	40	21	32½	3	24
Extra large	16	78	76	36	29	2	25
Ordinary sofa	15	54	51	24	34	5½	24
Lounge	17	68	68	28	35	2½	29
Lounge	17	57	57	29	23	12	34

All dimensions are in inches. Heights are from the floor. The slope of the back is measured at the seat-level to a perpendicular through the highest point of the back.

Dimensions of Case-Work

Kind of case-work	Body			Remarks
	Width	Depth	Height	
Bureau	45	20½	36½	
Bureau	51	23	37½	
Bureau	48	22	36½	
Bureau	54	20	42	
Bookkeeper's desk	60	33	42	
Bookkeeper's desk	60	32	44	Deck, 11 in; slope, 22 in
Chiffonier	39	20	48	
Chiffonier	36	20	51	
Cheval-glass	25		65	
Commode	16	16	31	
Sideboard	84	32	30	
Wardrobe	36	19	69	
Wardrobe	54	24	96	

All dimensions are in inches. Heights are from the floor. The slope of the back is measured at the seat-level to a perpendicular through the highest point of the back.

Dimensions of Bedsteads

Kind of bed	Inside		Heights		Width, side rail	Height, bottom of side rail
	Length	Width	Foot	Head		
Single bed	78	42	40	62	9½	9½
Single bed	78	42	41	60	10	10
Double bed	78	58½	42	63	11	10½
Double bed	78	56	36	67	13	9½

All dimensions are in inches. Heights are from the floor.

Dimensions of Plumbing-Fixtures. Enameled-Iron Bath-Tubs. Standard sizes for roll-rim baths with sloping ends are: nominal lengths, 4 ft, 4½ ft, 5 ft, 5½ ft and 6 ft; width over all, from 30 to 34 in. Specially narrow tubs are made from 25 to 29 in wide. The actual length over rim is usually 1 or 2 in more than the nominal length, and 2 in will include an ordinary overflow-pipe.

Wash-Basins. Crockery basins, to go with marble slabs, are made round and oval. Round bowls are made 10, 12, 13, 14 and 16 in in diam, measured from the outside of the rim. Oval bowls, 14 by 17 in, 15 by 19 in and 16 by 21 in. The 12 and 14-in round, and 15 by 19-in oval, are commonly used.

Marble Basin-Slabs may be 20 by 24 in, 20 by 30 in, 22 by 28 in, or 24 by 30 in, the last being a very common size. They can be made any size, to order. They should be 1¼ in thick, countersunk on top, and should have molded edges where exposed.

Corner-Slabs are commonly made 21 by 21 in and 24 by 24 in. Marble backs are usually 8 or 10 in high, and sometimes 12 in.

Enameled-Iron Wash-Basins or Lavatories made in one piece: common sizes are 16 by 20 in, 11 by 14-in basin; 18 by 21-in, 11 by 15 in basin; 18 by 24 in, 12 by 15-in basin; back, 10½ in high. The smallest-sized wash-basin is 13 in wide at the back.

Corner-Basins, 12½ by 12½ in, 12-in round basin; 15 by 15 in, 11 by 14-in basin; 16 by 16 in, 11 by 14-in basin; 19 by 19 in, 11 by 15-in basin. The standard height of wash-basins is 2 ft 6 in from the floor.

Foot-Baths, enameled iron, roll-rim, are 22½ by 19 in; width, including fittings, 1 ft 11 in; height 17 in; depth inside, 11 in.

Seat-Baths, enameled iron, average about 32 in long over fittings, and 27 in wide.

Water-Closets. The dimensions of water-closet bowls vary considerably, the following being about an average: width of bowl over all, 13 in; depth from wall to front of seat, 23 in; height from floor to seat, 17 in; width of seat, from 15 to 16 in. Closets with low-down tanks measure about 28 in from front of seat to wall. The distance from center of outlet-opening to the walls, or the ROUGHING-IN dimensions, are given in manufacturers' catalogues, as they vary with different closets. The smallest space permissible for water-closet compartments, where doors open out, is 2 ft 4 in by 4 ft. If the doors open in, the compartment should be 3 by 5 ft.

Closet-Ranges, used in schools and factories, are made 24, 27 and 30 in, center to center of partitions. For graded schools, 24 in is ample, and for factories, 27 in. The range usually occupies a space 28 in in depth, if set against a wall.

Urinal-Stalls should be from 24 to 27 in, center to center of partitions; depth of partitions, 20 or 22 in; of ends, 2 ft; of bottom slab, 2 ft; height of partitions, from 4 ft 6 in to 5 ft 6 in.

Kitchen-Sinks of cast iron are made in a great variety of sizes, those most commonly used being 16 by 24 in, 18 by 30 in, 18 by 36 in, 20 by 30 in and 20 by 36; 24 by 50 in is the largest size for enameled sinks. The depth inside, for the sizes given, is 6 in. Plain cast-iron sinks are made as large as 32 by 56 in, or 28 by 78 in. Steel sinks are made in all of the above sizes up to 20 by 40 in.

Porcelain Sinks. Common sizes of porcelain sinks are 20 by 30 in, 23 by 36 in and 24 by 42 in.

Cast-Iron Slop-Sinks, common sizes, are 16 by 16 in, 16 by 20 in, 18 by 22 in and 20 by 24 in; 12 in deep.

Copper Pantry-Sinks. Common sizes are 12 by 18 in, 14 by 20 in and 16 by 24 in.

Laundry-Tubs of slate or soapstone are commonly made 2 ft wide over all, and 16 in deep. Lengths over all, two-part tubs, 4 ft and 4 ft 6 in; three-part tubs, 6 ft, 6 ft 6 in and 7 ft. Earthen and porcelain tubs come separately, and are connected as required. The dimensions of each tub are 2 ft or 2 ft 7½ in in length, 2 ft 1½ in in width and 15 in in depth, inside. The length required for two 2-ft tubs is 4 ft 1 in; for three tubs, 6 ft 2 in; and for four tubs, 8 ft 3 in. Wolff's roll-rim enameled-iron wash-tubs are 55 in over all, for two tubs, and 82 in for three tubs.

Range-Boilers are 12 in diameter for 30-gal, 14 in for 40-gal, 16 in for 52-gal and 63-gal, 22 in for 100-gal and 120-gal boilers.

Dimensions of Carriages. Covered Buggy (Goddard). Length over all, 14 ft; width, 5 ft; height, 7 ft 4 in. Will turn in space from 14 to 20 ft square, according to skill.

Coupé. Length over all, 18 ft; width, 6 ft; height, 6 ft 6 in.

Buggy (Piano-Box). Length over all, 14 ft; width, 4 ft 10 in.

Landau. Length over all, 19 ft 6 in; width, 6 ft 3 in; height, 6 ft 3 in; length of pole, 8 ft 0 in.

Stanhope Gig, Two Wheels. Length over all, 10 ft 6 in; width, 5 ft 8 in; height, 7 ft 6 in.

Victoria. Length, without pole, 9 ft 6 in; length of pole, 8 ft; width over all, 5 ft 4 in.

Light Brougham. Length, without pole or shaft, 9 to 11 ft; width over all, 5 ft 4 in; height, 6 ft 4 in.

Automobiles. Length, from 11 to 19 (average 16) ft; width, 6 ft; height, 7 ft.

Dimensions and Weight of Fire-Engines. From measurements of different fire-engines belonging to the city of Boston, it was found that the greatest length, including pole, was 22 ft 6 in. The widths varied from 5 ft to 5 ft 11 in, the average height being 8 ft 8 in. The average weight (computed from 29 engines), 8 000 lb; the greatest weight, 9 420 lb and the least, 4 780 lb.

Dimensions and Weight of Hose-Carriages. Extreme length with horse, 19 ft 6 in, without horse, 17 ft 6 in; width, from 5 ft 9 in to 7 ft; height, from 6 ft 8 in to 7 ft; average weight (computed from 11 carriages), 2 943 lb; greatest weight, 3 500; least weight, 2 120.

Dimensions and Weight of Ladder-Wagons. Length of truck, 33 ft; total length, with ladders on, 45 ft; width, 6 ft 2 in; average weight (computed from 12 wagons), 6 660 lb; greatest weight, 8 800; least, 4 350.

Dimensions of Locomotives and Cars. The dimensions of locomotives and freight-cars vary considerably, but the following will cover those in common use:

Locomotives. From 15 ft 4 in to 15 ft 10 in to top of stack from top of rail; extreme width of cab, 10 ft 2 in. Doors to admit locomotives should be from 12 to 13 ft wide and 18 ft high.

Furniture-Cars are 14 ft 1 in, from top of track to top of brake-staff; floor, 3 ft 8 in from track; extreme width, 9 ft 10 in.

Stock-Cars, 13 ft 5 in, from top of track to top of brake-staff; floor, 4 ft from track; extreme width, 9 ft 8 in.

Refrigerator-Cars, 14 ft 6 in, from top of track to top of brake-staff; floor, 4 ft from track; extreme width, 9 ft 7 in.

Ordinary Freight-Cars are about 13 ft high to top of brake-staff and 9 ft 4 in in extreme width. The height of floor of freight-cars varies from 3 ft 8 in to 4 ft above top of track for STANDARD-GAUGE, and from 3 ft to 3 ft 6 in for NARROW-GAUGE cars.

Passenger-Coaches vary from 14 to 16 ft in height and from 10 to 11 ft in width. Doors to admit cars should give at least 12 in clearance on each side, and 2 ft overhead.

Street Trolley-Cars are about 8 ft 6 in wide for the car proper, and the steps project about 8 in. Height from track to top of coach, 11 ft 6 in; the trolley-stand is 18 in higher. The length varies, up to 42 ft. Trucks for a 41 ft 6 in car are about 24 ft apart. Wheel-bases, 4 ft center to center. Radius of shortest curve in Denver, Colo., 35 ft to midway between rails. The GAUGE of a railroad track is the distance between the inner sides of the heads of the two rails. The standard or BROAD GAUGE is 4 ft 8½ in; standard NARROW GAUGE, 3 ft 3½ in.

Capacity of Freight-Cars. Car-Loads. The capacity of freight-cars, and the minimum car-loads, vary so greatly that no accurate general information can be given. For heavy freight, 25 tons is an average load; for light freight, from 12 to 15 tons; for household goods, 10 tons is about the minimum; for lime, 15 tons is about a minimum load; for cement, 20 tons. The minimum car-load, to obtain car-load rates, varies with different roads, and also with the rate made; a low rate is usually made on the basis of a big load. Thirty tons is a good load for heavy freight, and 40 tons is about the maximum, except for special cars.

Miscellaneous Dimensions. Horse-Stalls. Width, from 3 ft 10 in to 4 ft or else 5 ft or over; length, 9 ft. The width should never be between 4 ft and 5 ft. as a horse is liable to cast himself.

Dimensions of Standard Bowling-Alleys.[*] For ONE PAIR OF ALLEYS: Room necessary, 83 ft over all; 11 ft 6 in wide, 60 ft from foul-line to head pin, 3 ft for pins to back of alley, 4 ft for pin-pit, 8 in deep in front, 6 in in back; alleys, of maple flooring, should extend on and beyond the foul-line 12 ft, and then 4 ft more, making a 16-ft approach to the foul-line for the player to run to deliver the ball. For ONE ALLEY: Same length, 83 ft; width, 6 ft 3¼ in; closer dimensions; beds 42 in, gutters 9 in, division-pieces 2¾ in, ball-return 9¾ in.

	In		In
ONE ALLEY: Ball-return	9¾	ONE PAIR OF ALLEYS: Ball-return	9¾
First-division piece	2¾	First-division piece	2¾
Gutter	9	Gutter	9
Bed	42	Bed	42
Gutter	9	Gutter	9
Second-division piece	2¾	Second-division piece	2¾
6 ft 3¼ in =	75¼	6 ft 3¼ in =	75¼

To the 75¼ in of the PAIR OF ALLEYS, should be added

Gutter	9
Bed	42
Gutter	9
Third-division piece	2¾
	138

Additional room should be provided for the bowlers and spectators as these dimensions are for the alleys only.

Dimensions of Drawings for Patents (United States). 10 by 15 in, with border-line 1 in inside all around.

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[*] Dimensions furnished by The Brunswick-Balke-Collender Company, New York City.

Dimensions of a Barrel. Diameter of head, 17 in; diameter at bung, 19 in; length, 28 in; volume, 7 680 cu in.

Miscellaneous Memoranda. Weight of Men and Women. The average weight per person of twenty thousand men and women weighed at Boston, Mass., in 1864, was, men, 141½ lb; women, 124½ lb.

Wooden Flagpoles. For a flagpole, extending from 30 to 60 ft above the roof, the following proportions give satisfactory results: The diameter at the roof should be 1/60 the height above the roof, and the top diameter one-half the lower. To profile the pole, divide the height into quarters; make the diameter at the first quarter above the roof, fifteen-sixteenths of the lower diameter; at the second quarter, seven-eighths, and at the third quarter, three-quarters the lower diameter.*

Steel Flagpoles.† The Department of Education, City of New York, has abandoned the use of wooden flagpoles and is using steel flagpoles. For an ordinary building, 60 ft in height above the curb, a pole 43½ ft in height is used, which is sufficient for the tackle of a large or post-flag, for the reason that roof-parapets are very low. Each pole is required to be fitted complete with a cast-iron, galvanized, revolving truck, mounted on crucible-steel pins, the cap beneath it, also, being of galvanized iron. The truck is fitted with two 4¾-in bronze sheaves on Tobin-bronze pins, surmounted with an 8-in 20-oz copper ball, acid-cleaned and painted with four coats of the best English weather-proof sizing, and covered with XXXX leaf-gold. One or more field-joints are permitted in the length of the pole, which are determined according to standard details, the bands being secured to the male tube, and both edges of the inner band and the shoe being machine-beveled to insure a perfect fit. The female tube is drilled and secured to the male shoe with tap-screws of sufficient strength to carry the upper section of the pole, and the ends of the screws are upset. The exposed ends of the female tube are chamfered and caulked tight. A steel collar or band, to receive the copper flashing, is secured to the pole and braced just above the roof-lines.

Dimensions of Schoolrooms, Boston Schools.‡ The sizes of the rooms in the Boston school-houses, as adopted by the school board, are, for grammar-schools, 28 by 32 ft in plan by 13 ft 6 in in height; for primary schools, 24 by 32 by 12 ft. This accommodates 56 scholars per room, in each grade, allowing 216 cu ft per scholar in the grammar schools, and 165 cu ft in the primary grade. A width of 27 ft is very satisfactory for schoolrooms, and is commonly adopted because it permits of the use of 28-in joists, without waste.

Heights of Blackboards in Schoolrooms.‡ The heights from floor to top of chalk-rail should be about as follows:

For third and fourth grades,	chalk-rail......	2 ft 1 in from floor
For fifth grade,	chalk-rail......	2 ft 2½ in from floor
For sixth grade,	chalk-rail......	2 ft 4 in from floor
For seventh and eighth grades,	chalk-rail......	2 ft 6 in from floor

Slate blackboards are made 3 ft 6 in, 4 ft and 4 ft 6 in high, 4 ft being a very common and satisfactory height.

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* The Building Trades Pocketbook.

† From data compiled by E. S. Hand from notes furnished by C. B. J. Snyder, Superintendent of School Buildings, New York City.

‡ F. E. Kidder, in previous editions.

Sizes of Seats and Desks for Schools and Academies *

Number of desk	Age of scholar years	Height of seat or chair in	Height of desk (next scholar) in	Space occupied by desk and seat (back to back) ft	 in
0	16 to 18	16¾	29½	2	9
1	14 to 16	15½	28	2	9
2	12 to 14	15½	27½	2	8
3	10 to 12	14¼	26½	2	7
4	8 to 10	13¼	25½	2	5
5	7 to 8	12¼	24	2	4
6	6 to 7	11½	22½	2	3
7	5 to 6	10½	21	2	2
....	4 to 5	9½	19	2	0

Desks for two scholars are 3 ft 10 in long, and for a single scholar, 2 ft long. Aisles are from 2 ft to 2 ft 4 in wide, according to age of scholars and size of room.

Additional Data† on School-Houses

Sizes of Rooms. The Department of Education, New York City, has adopted, for the dimensions of the schoolrooms, the German standard of 22 by 30 ft in plan by 14 ft in height, with unilateral lighting. These dimensions are used for all grades of elementary schools, the sittings being on the basis of 15 sq ft of floor-space per pupil. Good light cannot be had on desks which are placed at a greater distance from the windows than one and one-half times the height of the top of the upper sash from the floor.

Sizes of Seats and Desks for Elementary and High Schools

Number of desk	Age of scholar years	Height ‡ of seat or chair in	Height ‡ of desk in	Space§ occupied by desk and seat (back to back) in
0	16 to 18	17	31	32
1	14 to 16	16	30	32
2	12 to 14	15	28	31
3	10 to 12	14	26	30
4	8 to 10	13	24	29½
5	7 to 8	12	23	27
6	6 to 7	11	22	27
7	5 to 6	10	20½	26

Blackboards. For first and second-year scholars the chalk-rail is placed 2 ft from the floor, and the boards are 4 ft high. This allows the smaller children

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* F. E. Kidder, in previous editions.

† From data compiled by E. S. Hand from notes furnished by C. B. J. Snyder, Superintendent of School Buildings, New York City.

‡ Heights are measured as follows: From the floor to the top of ink-well strips of desks, and from floor to top of front edge of seats, and should not vary more than ½ in from the heights given in this table.

Aisles have a minimum width of 18 in for the lower grades and 22 in for the upper grades.

§ If chairs are used, this distance must be increased from 1½ to 2 in.

Table of Treads and Risers*

The figures in the first column can be used for either treads or risers

Height of riser or width of tread, inches	Number of treads or risers																									
	2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12		13		14	
	Story-height or horizontal length of run																									
	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
6	1	0	1	6	2	0	2	6	3	0	3	6	4	0	4	6	5	0	5	6	6	0	6	6	7	0
6¼	1	0½	1	6¾	2	1	2	7¼	3	1½	3	7¾	4	2	4	8¼	5	2½	5	8¾	6	3	6	9¼	7	3½
6½	1	1	1	7½	2	2	2	8½	3	3	3	9½	4	4	4	10½	5	5	5	11½	6	6	7	0½	7	7
6¾	1	1½	1	8¼	2	3	2	9¾	3	4½	3	11¼	4	6	5	0¾	5	7½	6	2¼	6	9	7	3¾	7	10½
7	1	2	1	9	2	4	2	11	3	6	4	1	4	8	5	3	5	10	6	5	7	0	7	7	8	2
7⅛	1	2¼	1	9⅜	2	4½	2	11⅝	3	6¾	4	1⅞	4	9	5	4⅛	5	11¼	6	6⅜	7	1½	7	8⅝	8	3¾
7¼	1	2½	1	9¾	2	5	3	0¼	3	7½	4	2¾	4	10	5	5¼	6	0½	6	7¾	7	3	7	10¼	8	5½
7⅜	1	2¾	1	10⅛	2	5½	3	0⅞	3	8¼	4	3⅝	4	11	5	6⅜	6	1¾	6	9⅛	7	4½	7	11⅞	8	7¼
7½	1	3	1	10½	2	6	3	1½	3	9	4	4½	5	0	5	7½	6	3	6	10½	7	6	8	1½	8	9
7⅝	1	3¼	1	10⅞	2	6½	3	2⅛	3	9¾	4	5⅜	5	1	5	8⅝	6	4¼	6	11⅞	7	7½	8	3⅛	8	10¾
7¾	1	3½	1	11¼	2	7	3	2¾	3	10½	4	6¼	5	2	5	9¾	6	5½	7	1¼	7	9	8	4¾	9	0½
7⅞	1	3¾	1	11⅝	2	7½	3	3⅜	3	11¼	4	7⅛	5	3	5	10⅞	6	6¾	7	2⅝	7	10½	8	6⅜	9	2⅛
8	1	4	2	0	2	8	3	4	4	0	4	8	5	4	6	0	6	8	7	4	8	0	8	8	9	4
8¼	1	4½	2	0¾	2	9	3	5¼	4	1½	4	9¾	5	6	6	2¼	6	10½	7	6¾	8	3	8	11¼	9	7½
8½	1	5	2	1½	2	10	3	6½	4	3	4	11½	5	8	6	4½	7	1	7	9½	8	6	9	2½	9	11
9	1	6	2	3	3	0	3	9	4	6	5	3	6	0	6	9	7	6	8	3	9	0	9	9	10	6
9½	1	7	2	4½	3	2	3	11½	4	9	5	6½	6	4	7	1½	7	11	8	8½	9	6	10	3½	11	1
10	1	8	2	6	3	4	4	2	5	0	5	10	6	8	7	6	8	4	9	2	10	0	10	10	11	8
10½	1	9	2	7½	3	6	4	4½	5	3	6	1½	7	0	7	10½	8	9	9	7½	10	6	11	4½	12	3
11	1	10	2	9	3	8	4	7	5	6	6	5	7	4	8	3	9	2	10	1	11	0	11	11	12	10
13	2	2	3	3	4	4	5	5	6	6	7	7	8	8	9	9	10	10	11	11	13	0	14	1	15	2
14	2	4	3	6	4	8	5	10	7	0	8	2	9	4	10	6	11	8	12	10	14	0	15	2	16	4

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* The editor is indebted to T. Z. Talley for the calculations and arrangement of this table.

Table of Treads and Risers * (Continued)

The figures in the first column can be used for either treads or risers

Height of riser or width of tread, inches	Number of treads or risers																									
	15		16		17		18		19		20		21		22		23		24		25		26		27	
	Story-height or horizontal length of run																									
	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
6	7	6	8	0	8	6	9	0	9	6	10	0	10	6	11	0	11	6	12	0	12	6	13	0	13	6
6¼	7	9¾	8	4	8	10¼	9	4½	9	10¾	10	5	10	11¼	11	5½	11	11¾	12	6	13	0¼	13	6½	14	0¾
6½	8	1½	8	8	9	2½	9	9	10	3½	10	10	11	4½	11	11	12	5½	13	0	13	6½	14	1	14	7½
6¾	8	5¼	9	0	9	6¾	10	1½	10	8¼	11	3	11	9¾	12	4½	12	11¼	13	6	14	0¾	14	7½	15	2¼
7	8	9	9	4	9	11	10	6	11	1	11	8	12	3	12	10	13	5	14	0	14	7	15	2	15	9
7⅛	8	10⅞	9	6	10	1⅛	10	8¼	11	3⅜	11	10½	12	5⅝	13	0¾	13	7⅞	14	3	14	10⅛	15	5¼	16	0⅜
7¼	9	0¾	9	8	10	3¼	10	10½	11	5¾	12	1	12	8¼	13	3½	13	10¾	14	6	15	1¼	15	8½	16	3¾
7⅜	9	2⅝	9	10	10	5⅜	11	0¾	11	8⅛	12	3½	12	10⅞	13	6¼	14	1⅝	14	9	15	4⅜	15	11¾	16	7⅛
7½	9	4½	10	0	10	7½	11	3	11	10½	12	6	13	1½	13	9	14	4½	15	0	15	7½	16	3	16	10½
7⅝	9	6⅜	10	2	10	9⅝	11	5¼	12	0⅞	12	8½	13	4⅛	13	11¾	14	7⅜	15	3	15	10⅝	16	6¼	17	1⅞
7¾	9	8¼	10	4	10	11¾	11	7½	12	3¼	12	11	13	6¾	14	2½	14	10¼	15	6	16	1¾	16	9½	17	5¼
7⅞	9	10⅛	10	6	11	1⅞	11	9¾	12	5⅝	13	1½	13	9⅜	14	5¼	15	1⅛	15	9	16	4⅞	17	0¾	17	8⅝
8	10	0	10	8	11	4	12	0	12	8	13	4	14	0	14	8	15	4	16	0	16	8	17	4	18	0
8¼	10	3¾	11	0	11	8¼	12	4½	13	0¾	13	9	14	5¼	15	1½	15	9¾	16	6	17	2¼	17	10½	18	6¾
8½	10	7½	11	4	12	0½	12	9	13	5½	14	2	14	10½	15	7	16	3½	17	0	17	8½	18	5	19	1½
9	11	3	12	0	12	9	13	6	14	3	15	0	15	9	16	6	17	3	18	0	18	9	19	6	20	3
9½	11	10½	12	8	13	5½	14	3	15	0½	15	10	16	7½	17	5	18	2½	19	0	19	9½	20	7	21	4½
10	12	6	13	4	14	2	15	0	15	10	16	8	17	6	18	4	19	2	20	0	20	10	21	8	22	6
10½	13	1½	14	0	14	10½	15	9	16	7½	17	6	18	4½	19	3	20	1½	21	0	21	10½	22	9	23	7½
11	13	9	14	8	15	7	16	6	17	5	18	4	19	3	20	2	21	1	22	0	22	11	23	10	24	9
13	16	3	17	4	18	5	19	6	20	7	21	8	22	9	23	10	24	11	26	0	27	1	28	2	29	3
14	17	6	18	8	19	10	21	0	22	2	23	4	24	6	25	8	26	10	28	0	29	2	30	4	31	6

* The editor is indebted to T. Z. Talley for the calculations and arrangement of this table.

to use the lower portion. The upper part of the surface is at a height convenient for the use of the teacher, there being much display-work employed in the lower grades. For scholars in grades from the third to the eighth year, inclusive, and for high schools the chalk-rail is placed 2½ ft from the floor and the boards are 3 ft 6 in in height.

Doors and Stairways. Wardrobes should be entered from the classrooms only. Classroom-doors should open into the rooms, so as to afford the teacher control in case of panic. All exit-doors should open out. All stairways should be shut off from corridors by means of self-closing doors, which, together with the stairways and the enclosures, should be of fire-proof materials. Stairways should be of sufficient number to permit of the building being vacated within three minutes from the time a signal is given. This can be effected by allowing a linear width of 4 ft for the first 50 persons and 12 in additional for each 100 persons in excess thereof. No stairway is to be less than 4 ft nor more than 5 ft in width. Exits should be planned so as to provide 15 lin ft for the first 500 persons and 6 in additional for each 100 persons in excess thereof. No stairway should have more than 15 steps in any one flight, changes in direction being effected by a square platform and no winders being used. No stair-door or exit-door should open out over a step. Platforms are to be provided for such doors and are to extend at least 1 ft beyond the edge of the door when standing open.

Stairs.* The RISE of a stair is the height from the top of one step to the top of the next. The TOTAL RISE is the height from floor to floor. The RUN is the horizontal distance from the face of one riser to the face of the next. RISERS are the upright boards or other materials forming the faces of the steps, and the TREADS are the horizontal pieces or surfaces on which the feet tread. Treads are usually from 1¼ to 1¾ in wider than the run, on account of the NOSING. The height of an individual riser or the RISE of any stairs is found by dividing the TOTAL RISE by the number of risers. The RUN of the stairs may be fixed at will unless the space is cramped, but to secure a comfortable stair the run must bear a certain relation to the rise.

Rules for Dimensions of Treads and Risers. For ordinary use a rise of from 7 to 7½ in makes a very comfortable flight of stairs. For schools and for stairs used by children the rise should not exceed 6 in. Stairs having a rise greater than 7¾ in are steep. The width of the run should be determined by the height of the rise; the less the rise the greater should be the run, and *vice versa*. Several rules have been given for proportioning the run to the rise:

(1) THE SUM OF THE RISE AND RUN should be equal to from 17 to 17½ in.

(2) THE SUM OF TWO RISERS AND A TREAD should not be less than 24 nor more than 25 in.

(3) THE PRODUCT OF THE RISE AND RUN should not be less than 70 nor more than 75.

These rules apply only to stairs with nosings. Stone stairs without nosings should have at least 12-in treads for adults. (See Tables, pages 1566–7.)

Height of Hand-Rail. In dwellings, hotels, apartments, etc., the height of the rail should be about 2 ft 6 in above the tread, on a line with the face of the riser. For grand staircases the height may be reduced to 2 ft 4 in. On steep stairs the height should be from 2 ft 7 in to 2 ft 9 in. The rail should also be raised over winders. On landings, the height of the rail should be equal to the height of the stair-rail, measured at the center of the tread, the usual height in residences being from 2 ft 8 in to 2 ft 10 in.

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* This subject is quite fully treated in Building Construction and Superintendence, Part II, Carpenters' Work, by F. E. Kidder.

Sash-Cords.* Until a few years ago, linen or cotton cord only was used for connecting weights with the sashes of double-hung windows, and cord is still more extensively used than either ribbons or chains. For windows of ordinary size a good braid of cord will wear for a long time, and this material will probably never be entirely displaced by metal. "Tests made at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology show that cords wear much longer than chains, though they have less tensile strength. Cords should be smooth and round, so that each strand bears its part of the stress, and well glazed, so that they have a smooth surface and consequently less wear from friction with the wheel of the pulley." It has been found that cord can be braided too hard for durability, yet if it is braided so as to be very flexible it may be so soft that it will stretch and cause great annoyance by permitting the weight to hit the bottom of the weight-box. The architect, however, should always specify the particular BRAND and SIZE of cord to be used, and also the diameter of the pulley. Among the leading brands of sash-cord at present are the Samson Spot,† and the Silver Lake A.‡ These brands are superior to the ordinary braided cords, which are made from inferior yarns to meet the jobbers' requirements for price. In addition to other most excellent qualities, the Samson cord offers an additional advantage that architects will appreciate; it has a colored strand woven through it, which shows in spots on the surface and thus enables one to tell at a glance that no other cord has been substituted. The Silver Lake A sash-cord has the name Silver Lake A branded on every foot of cord; but unless the letter A accompanies the name a second grade of cord is denoted. The marking of the cord by color, or any other device, does not alter the quality of the cord. Special marks may be applied to inferior cords as well as to the best. The following numbers should be specified for the different weights of sash-weights:

Relative Sizes of Sash-Cords, Weights and Pulleys

Size-number	6	7	8	9	10	12
Diameter in inches	3/16	7/32	1/4	9/32	5/16	3/8
Feet per pound	66	55	44	36	27	20
Suitable for weights in pounds up to	5	12	20	30	40	50
Minimum diameter in inches of pulley allowable	1½	1¾	2	2¼	2½	3

For hanging sashes weighing over 40 lb, only the largest size of Samson or Silver Lake A cord, or some form of sash-chain or sash-ribbon, should be used, and the pulleys should be selected to fit the cord or chain. A guarantee that the cord will last at least twenty years may be had from either of the manufacturers mentioned above. The Samson wire-center sash-cord has recently been put on the market. This is really a metal sash-cord protected by a braided-cotton surface which acts as a noiseless cushion. It is claimed that it harmonizes with the window-finish and that it has greater durability than other sash-cords or metal devices. (See record of tests made at Massachusetts Institute of Technology, page 1571.) The standard color is that of dark mahogany, but this cord is made to order for large buildings in other colors to match the finish.

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* The following notes, relating to Sash-Cords, Sash-Chains, Sash-Ribbons, Sash-Weights and Sash-Balances, are condensed and revised from articles by Professor Thomas Nolan, in Kidder's Building Construction and Superintendence, Part II, Carpenters' Work.

† Manufactured by the Samson Cordage Works, Boston, Mass.

‡ Manufactured by the Silver Lake Company, Boston, Mass.

Sash-Chains. Of several styles of sash-chains on the market, the style most largely used is the flat-link chain.* This chain is made either of steel, or of bronze composed of 95% copper and 5% of tin. For suspending very heavy sashes, doors and gates, a cable-chain has been extensively used. Star † sash-chain is made of bronze-metal. The manufacturers of the Norris sash-pulley claim that a riveted chain that has joints only one way is almost sure to break when even slightly twisted, and that it is better to use two chains of the link-pattern running side by side over the same pulley. The strongest sash-chains are of steel, made rust-proof by the hot-galvanizing process, and electro-copperplated to give a bronze finish; and of a bronze-mixture which looks like copper, but is tougher and harder. One firm ‡ claims that its galvanized-steel sash-chain is from 11 to 45% stronger than any bronze or copper sash-chain and that it will resist fire for a much longer period. The tensile strength of their chain varies from 475 to 850 lb, according to the weight used.

Sash-Ribbons. These are now also extensively used in hanging the sashes of the better class of buildings. The ribbons are made of steel and aluminum-bronze or of some mixture of aluminum, and in ⅜, ½, ⅝, ¾ and ⅞-in widths. They are claimed to be practically indestructible, but according to one series of tests it would appear that in some cases they do not wear as long as sash-cords or sash-chains. Some people object that the ribbons snap against the pulley-stiles, when the sash is raised or lowered, and thus make considerable noise. The ⅜-in ribbon may be used for a sash weighing up to 100 lb and requiring 50-lb weights. For a window 6 ft 10 in high and 3 ft wide, glazed with plate glass, the ribbons with attachments cost about 75 cts. Sash-ribbons are now manufactured by a number of firms who also make the necessary attachments for weight and sash. For the best working of windows hung with ribbons, pulleys of the following sizes should be used:

For sashes weighing not over 40 lb, 2 in
For sashes weighing not over 60 lb, 2¼ in
For sashes weighing not over 100 lb, 2½ in
For sashes weighing not over 150 lb, 3 in
For sashes weighing not over 250 lb, 3½ in
For sashes weighing not over 300 lb, 4 in
For sashes weighing not over 350 lb, 4½ in

Comparative Strength of Sash-Cords and Chains. The comparative strength and durability of sash-cords and chains have been determined by careful tests, but there is a great variation in both cases, due partly to variation in material, but principally to the relative sizes of the chain and pulley or cord and pulley. The cords or chains may be too light for the weights used, or the pulleys too small in diameter to carry the cord without undue bending. The pulleys may also have too narrow a groove or an uneven groove with sharp edges which cut the cords. The larger the diameter of the pulley, the longer the wear.

Tests § on Wire-Center Sash-Cord and Bronze Sash-Chains. The cord tested was size No. 8, ¼-in diam, Samson solid braided cotton cord with steel-wire cable center, 1/16 in in diam. The chains tested were of two different makes of bronze, size No. 2, purchased in the open market as typical bronze sash-chains, each recommended by a reputable dealer as the proper chain for use with a 25-lb window-weight. The tests for the better of the two chains are those given. Durability-tests were made by raising and lowering a 25-lb weight over a 2-in pulley, each movement corresponding to once opening and shutting a window. The cord was tested over the regular round grooved pulley ordinarily used for cords, and the chains were tested over the combination grooved pulley usually furnished for sash-chains. For the fire-tests the cords or chains were hung through an asbestos box in which a Bunsen flame under pressure was applied to all alike, the temperature being about 2 200° F. A 25-lb weight was attached in each case to keep the cord or chain under the same tension. The wire-center cord took about twice as long to burn through and wore about seventeen times as long as the bronze chain.

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* One type of this kind of sash-chain is manufactured by the Bridgeport Chain Company, Bridgeport, Conn.

† Manufactured by the U. T. Hungerford Brass & Copper Company, New York City.

‡ The Oneida Community, Ltd., Oneida, N. Y.

§ Made at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, May, 1914, by Professor E. F. Miller.

Tests on Wire-Center Sash-Cord and Bronze Sash-Chain

Durability-tests		Fire-tests	
Number of lifts before breaking		Length of time before parting	
Bronze chain	Samson wire-center cord	Bronze chain, sec	Samson wire-center cord, sec
34 944	659 892	42.5	78.5
37 486	592 559	40	75.5
37 381	632 230	39	77
32 948	594 114	32	75
40 356	631 286	....	....
31 234	577 154	....	....
40 790	504 032	....	....
27 874	637 796	....	....
Average 35 377	Average 603 633	Average 38.4	Average 76.5

Weights of Sashes and Glass. In figuring the weights of windows, the weight of the glass may be taken at 3½ lb per sq ft; for plate glass, 1½ lb for double-strength glass and 1 lb for single-strength glass. For the weight of the wooden sash, add together the height and width, in feet, of each sash, and multiply by 2.1 for 2¼-in sash, by 1⅝ for 1¾-in sash and by 1½ for 1⅜-in sash. These values are sufficiently accurate for determining the size of sash-cords and pulleys, but the weights should be determined by weighing each sash after it is glazed, as the weight of the glass varies considerably.

Iron Sash-Weights. The weights ordinarily used for balancing windows are made of cast iron, in the form of solid cylinders from 1⅜ to 2⅛ in in diameter, and from 7½ to 31 in long, with an eye cast in the upper end of each. The lengths vary with the weights, which are from 2 to 25 lb. Flat weights, which usually are called for in the Philadelphia and some other markets, are from 6 to 34½ in long, from 2 to 30 lb in weight, and from 1¼ by 1⅝ to 1⅝ by 2¼ in in cross-section. In ordering sash-weights the number of pounds of each weight, and the sections and lengths of the boxes in which the weights will work, should be given. Ordinary weights have very rough eyes for the sash-cords. There are a few manufacturers in the East who make weights with a patent eye that will not cut the cord. A sectional sash-weight* made with a well-designed hooking-device which has given satisfaction, is said to be one of the best on the market. Usually from three to six sections are required on each side to balance a sash properly. If the hooking-device fails near the top the upper sash cannot be closed and if at the bottom the window cannot be opened. It is then necessary to open the weight-box and rehang the sections before the window can be operated. In theory, sectional weights are ideal; in practice, however, they are not considered as satisfactory as solid weights. The Brown† sectional weights are made 2¼ by 2⅝ in and in weights of 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 lb. They are made of both cast-iron and lead. It frequently occurs after a contract is let, that the glass is changed from double-thick to plate or prism glass. This means increased weight; but the length of the sash-weight cannot be increased and it, therefore, becomes necessary to increase the area of its cross-section. If the weight-box is detailed to take the regular round sash-weight, its general construction will be such that it will take a 2-in round sash-weight, but not a 2-in square sash-weight. This difficulty can be avoided by a little thought at the start. An added depth of ¼ in in the weight-box permits the use of a rectangular cast-iron sash-weight. The Sanborn sectional sash-weight‡ is intended for use in large buildings of heavy construction. Because of the lack of uniformity in the weight of plate glass the required weights of sash-weights cannot be accurately determined previous to the hanging of the sashes. By the use of a sectional sash-weight, combinations of units can be made up to suit the requirements. The units are made square or rectangular in section in order to secure a maximum weight with a minimum length. An opening of 12 in in the side of the pocket is sufficient for hanging the largest unit. These units are manufactured in standard sizes to meet the general conditions found in the building trades.

Lead Sash-Weights. It often happens that for wide and low windows the weights if of iron would be so long that they would touch the bottom of the pocket before the bottom sash was fully raised. In such cases lead weights are usually resorted to, lead being 80% heavier than cast iron. By casting the weights square in section, whether of iron or lead, a considerable saving can be made in the lengths. One sash-weight manufacturer§ makes a specialty of compressed-lead sash-weights, with wrought and malleable-iron fastenings, centered so that the weights hang perfectly plumb; and when lead weights are necessary the architect will do well to specify the weights made by this company. These weights are made under hydraulic pressure, by which greater smoothness, solidity and density of metal is secured than is possible by the casting-process. A wrought-iron rod is run through the center, to which are securely attached the malleable-iron fittings. In hanging the sashes the weights for the upper sash should be about ½ lb heavier than the sash, and for the lower sash, ½ lb lighter.

Sash-Balances. Within a comparatively few years several devices have been patented for balancing sashes by means of springs instead of weights, but the author believes that only one type, known as the SASH-BALANCE, has proved a practical success. The sash-balance consists of a drum on which the ribbon is wound, and which contains a coiled-steel clock-spring, immersed in oil; the spring sustains the weight of the sash. The common type very much resembles in outward appearance the ordinary sash-pulley, and is applied in practically the same way; the ribbons, which are made usually of aluminum-bronze, are

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[*] Manufactured by E. E. Brown & Company, Philadelphia, Pa.

[†] Manufactured by E. E. Brown & Company, Philadelphia, Pa.

[‡] Manufactured by the Lidgerwood Manufacturing Company, New York City.

[§] Raymond Lead Company, Chicago, Ill.

attached to the sashes in the same manner as cords when weights are used. While the sash-balance in its best form works very satisfactorily, it will probably never entirely supplant the weight and axle-pulley for ordinary windows. There are many windows, however, for which sufficient pocket-room for weights cannot be obtained without spoiling the effect desired or narrowing the glass, as in some bay windows, or where it is undesirable to break the frame into the brick jamb. In such cases the sash-balance is almost invaluable. For hanging the glass doors of show-cases, sash-balances are usually preferable to weights. Sash-balances are made in both side and top-patterns, but the former are recommended wherever there is room at the side of the frame for the depth of mortise required. For windows of the sizes usually found in residences, the depth of the sash-balance measured from the face of the pulley-stile will vary from 3 to 4 in; this can be provided for usually by cutting a hole, if necessary, in the masonry or studding back of the frame. As sash-balances require only a plank frame, the consequent reduction in the cost of the frame offsets the extra cost of the balance. In remodeling old buildings which have plank frames without weights, sash-balances are found to be a great convenience, since they can easily be inserted in the old frames. An advantage which all spring-balances possess is that they act most strongly when the sash is down, and so enable one to raise a binding window more readily than if it were hung with weights; while when the sash is up the springs barely suffice to hold it in position, and do not offer resistance to drawing it down. Of the various sash-balances on the market, the Pullman * and the Caldwell † are the most extensively used, and are undoubtedly reliable. The Pullman Unit sash-balance has been on the market many years and has proved satisfactory. These balances are now made with uniform-size face-plates for the various weights of sash with which they are to be used, and thus make it possible to have all mortises for the balances cut at the mill, as is now done for the regular cord-pulleys. The Caldwell sash-balance, both top and side-types, is much used by the United States Post Office and Navy Departments. It is used also by the leading car-builders. The springs are made of high-grade cold-rolled tempered-steel wire, a material similar to that used for clock-springs. The manufacturers guarantee these sash-balances for from ten to fifteen years.

Seating-Space in Churches and Theaters. The minimum spacing for pews, back to back, is 30 in. This spacing is fairly comfortable for occupants, but is a little cramped for persons passing by others into or out of the pews. A spacing of 32 in is to be preferred, and if there is abundance of room, the spacing may be made 33 in. Anything over 33 in is a waste of room. A space of 18 in in the length of the pew is considered a SITTING.‡

Opera or Theater-Chairs are made 19, 20, 21 and 22 in wide, center to center of arms, and in arranging them in rows where the aisles converge, the ends are brought to a line on the aisles by using a few chairs that are either narrower or wider than the standard width. For churches, a standard width of 20 in is the least that is desirable. For theaters, 21 or 22-in chairs are commonly used in the parquet, 20 or 21-in in the dress-circle, and 20 and 19-in in balcony and gallery, although there is no accepted rule in this respect. On account of the seat-lifting, opera or theater-chairs may be comfortably spaced 31 in, back to back, and this is the usual spacing in halls and churches. In theaters the chairs are usually set on steps. In the upper gallery these steps should not be more than 30 in wide; in the balcony they are usually made either 30 or 31 in wide, and in the parquet, 31 or 32 in wide. As a rule the higher-priced seats are more commodious than the lower-priced.

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* Manufactured by the Pullman Manufacturing Company, Rochester, N. Y.

† Manufactured by the Caldwell Manufacturing Company, Rochester, N. Y.

‡ For dimensions of pew-bodies see page 48 of Churches and Chapels, by F. E. Kidder

Estimating Seating Capacity. The actual seating capacity of theaters and audience-rooms can be determined only by drawing the seats to an accurate scale, on the floor-plan, and then counting the number of chairs, or measuring the linear feet of pews.

Approximate Seating Capacity. For approximate purposes the seating capacity or required size of room may be determined by allowing from 7 to 8 sq ft to each seat, or sitting, when on a curve, and from 6 to 7 sq ft to each sitting when in straight rows, the smaller number being used only for large rooms. This allows for aisles and pulpit-platform. For small concert-halls and narrow rectangular rooms, 6 sq ft per sitting will usually be sufficient allowance, provided only that the actual floor-space utilized for seats and aisles is considered.

Seating Capacity of Several of the Older Cathedrals, Churches, Theaters and Opera-Houses *

European Cathedrals and Churches Estimating that one person occupies an area of 19.7 square inches			
St. Peter's, Rome	54 000	Notre Dame, Paris	21 000
Milan Cathedral	37 000	Pisa Cathedral	13 000
St. Paul's, Rome	32 000	St. Stephen's, Vienna	12 400
St. Paul's, London	25 600	St. Dominic's, Bologna	12 000
St. Petronio's, Bologna	24 400	St. Peter's, Bologna	11 400
Florence Cathedral	24 300	Cathedral of Sienna	11 000
Antwerp Cathedral	24 000	St. Mark's, Venice	7 000
St. Sophia's, Constantinople	23 000	Spurgeon's Tabernacle, London	7 000
St. John Lateran, Rome	22 900		
European Theaters and Opera-Houses			
Carlo Felice, Genoa	2 560	Drury Lane, London	1 948
Opera-House, Munich	2 370	Covent Garden, London	3 000
Alexander, St. Petersburg	2 332	Opera House, Berlin	1 636
San Carlo, Naples	2 240	Adelphi, London	2 300
Imperial, St. Petersburg	2 160	Lancaster, London	1 850
La Scala, Milan	2 113	Globe, London	1 100
Academy of Paris	2 092		
Some Early American Theaters and Opera-Houses, outside of New York			
The Auditorium, Chicago	4 200	Castle Square Theater, Boston	1 600 to 1 800
Academy of Music, Philadelphia	3 124	Gaiety Theater, Boston	nearly 3 000
Boston Theater, Boston	3 000	Grand Opera-House, Cincinnati	1 736

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* The table following this one gives the seating capacities of theaters in use in 1914 in some of the boroughs of New York City. The above table of seating capacities of some of the earlier churches and theaters is retained for purposes of comparison. So many important structures of these types have been erected in recent years in the larger cities of the world, or are now (1915) in process of erection, that it has been found impossible to make any list that would be and would remain, for any length of time, complete.

Seating Capacity of New York Theaters (1914)

Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx

Name	Seating capacity
Academy of Music	2 653
Alhambra	1 389
American	1 683
American, Roof	1 134
Astor	1 137
Belasco	984
Berkley Lyceum	416
Bijou	814
Broadway	1 776
Bronx	1 764
Carnegie Hall	2 632
Carnegie Lyceum	640
Casino	1 465
Century	2 078
Century, Roof	1 150
Circle	1 684
City	2 289
Clinton Street (Odeon)	904
George M. Cohan	1 072
Colonial	1 541
Columbia	1 315
Comedy	696
Criterion	916
Daly's	1 074
Delancy Street	1 242
Foxes (Dewey)	1 310
86th Street	1 436
Eltinge	895
Empire	1 099
Family	687
Fifth Avenue (Proctor's)	1 204
14th Street	1 255
48th Street (Brady's)	969
Fulton	662
Gaiety	806
Garden	1 090
Garrick	844
Globe	1 194
Gotham	1 626
Grand	1 888
Grand Opera-House	2 093
Greeley Square (Loew's)	1 906
Harlem Casino	*
Harlem Opera-House	1 393
Harris	847
Herald Square	1 160
Hippodrome	4 588
Hudson	1 077
Hurtig and Seamon's (Music-Hall)	1 093
Illington	*
Irving Place	1 079
Keith's Union Square	1 080
Kessler's 2nd Avenue	1 803
Kessler's 2nd Avenue, Roof	734
Knickerbocker	1 351
Lafayette	1 042
Liberty	1 211
Lincoln Square	1 547
Lipzin	1 030
Little	299
Longacre	*
Loew's Fifth Avenue	964
Loew's 7th Avenue	1 626
Loew's National	2 333
Lyceum	957
Lyric	1 452
Madison Square Garden	3 366

* Data not furnished.

Seating Capacity of New York Theaters (1914) (Continued)

Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx

Name	Seating capacity	Name	Seating capacity
Madison Sq Garden, Roof	700	Proctor's 23rd Street	1 262
Manhattan Opera-House	3 200	Proctor's 58th Street	1 672
Maxine Elliott	904	Proctor's 125th Street	1 663
Metropolis	1 150	Prospect	1 475
Metropolitan Opera-House	3 305	Republic	900
McKinley Square	1 500	Richmond	665
Miner's Bowery	1 168	Riverside	1 763
Miner's Bronx (Acme)	1 798	Savoy	857
Miner's 8th Avenue	1 178	Star	2 288
Minsky	1 866	St. Nicholas	*
Moulin Rouge	1 615	Thalia	1 380
Murray Hill	1 224	Third Avenue (Keeney's)	1 172
Mount Morris	*	39th Street	677
Nemo	941	Tremont	1 000
New Amsterdam	1 618	Victoria	1 400
New Amsterdam, Roof	610	Victoria, Roof	842
New York Theater, Roof	1 337	Wadsworth	996
Olympic	745	Wallack's	1 203
116th Street	1 743	Washington	1 517
Odeon 145th Street	904	Weber's	800
Park	1 513	West End	1 835
People's	1 693	Weber and Field Music-Hall	1 535
Philipps	*	Winter Garden	1 494
Plaza	1 544	Yorkville	1 191
Playhouse	879		

* Data not furnished.

Borough of Brooklyn

Name	Seating capacity	Name	Seating capacity
Academy of Music	2 200	Jones	860
Amphion	1 589	Liberty	1 333
Bijou	1 562	Linden	647
Broadway	1 969	Lyceum	999
Bushwick	2 228	Lyric	956
Casino	1 503	Majestic	1 891
Columbia	1 673	Myrtle	807
Comedy	1 123	New Montauk	1 323
Crescent	1 610	Novelty	1 032
DeKalb	2 232	Olympic	1 530
Empire	1 740	Orpheum	1 811
Fifth Avenue	1 063	Oxford	704
Folly	1 840	Payton's	1482
Fulton	1 492	Prospect Hall	488
Gayety	1 455	Royal	933
Gotham	958	Shubert's	1 779
Grand Opera-House	1 515	Star	1 517
Greenpoint	1 776		

Dimensions of Some Theaters and Opera-Houses **

The following are the dimensions, in feet, of some of the earlier theaters in this country and in Europe.

Name and location	Auditorium			Proscenium-opening		Stage		
	Width	Depth	Height	Width	Height	Width	Depth*	Height‡
Alexander, St. Petersburg	58	76	58	56	....	75	84	....
——, Berlin	51	78	47	41	....	92	76	....
La Scala, Milan	71	95	64	49	....	86	78	....
San Carlo, Naples	74	73	83	52	....	66	74	....
Grand, Bordeaux	47	56	57	37	....	80	69	....
Salle Lepeletier, Paris	66	76	66	43	....	78	82	....
Covent Garden, London	51	66	....	32	....	86	55	....
Drury Lane, London	56	64	....	32	....	48	80	....
Boston, Boston	....	71	58	46	....	87	68	....
Academy of Music, New York	62	87	....	48	....	83	71	....
Academy of Music, Philadelphia	66	78	74	48	....	90	72	....
Globe, Boston	60	65	....	30	....	62	38	....
Museum, Boston	68	61	....	31	....	68	46	....
Metropolitan Opera-House, New York §	....	....	....	54	50	100	73	88
The Auditorium, Chicago	....	....	....	....	....	110	70	95
Empire, New York	69	66	....	34	34	67	30	65
Knickerbocker, New York	70¾	79	47⅔†	35	34	40	65½	....
Garrick, New York	56⅙	52	....	27	....	71½	28⅓	....
Fifth Avenue, New York	....	....	....	....	....	80	35	....
American, New York	74½	74½	....	39	39	77¾	43⅓	73½
Proctor's Pleasure Palace, New York	74⅓	74½	....	34	34 ‖	70	40	70
Hudson, New York	67⅓	67	....	32	30	67⅓	30⅔	....
Grand Opera-House, Cincinnati	67	69	....	36	34	67	41	....
Castle Square, Boston¶	79½	85½	70†	40	34	68	45½	....
Gaiety, Boston	77	80⅔	....	....	....	60	42	70

Notes on Theater-Dimensions.†† "The utmost distance from the front of the stage to the rear ought not to exceed 75 ft, or the limit the voice is capable of expanding in a lateral direction."

"Measured from the curtain-line, the San Carlo Theater in Naples is 73 ft; the theater at Bologna, 74 ft. Of the London theaters, the Adelphi is 74 ft, Covent Garden 80 ft, the Gaiety 53 ft 6 in, Lancaster 58 ft 4 in, Marylebone 74 ft and the Globe 47 ft 6 in."

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* From the curtain or back line of proscenium opening.

† Measured from stage to center of ceiling.

‡ To the "gridiron" or rigging-loft.

§ As remodeled in 1893.

‖ Can be enlarged to 40 by 40 ft.

¶ The plan of this theater is in the shape of a horseshoe.

** See footnote with table of Seating Capacities of Churches, Theaters, etc., page 1574, in regard to data relating to recently constructed buildings of these types.

†† From The Planning and Construction of American Theaters, by Wm. H. Birkmire.

The width of the ideal theater, between inside walls, should be from 70 to 75 ft, and "the ceiling should be from 55 to 65, or even 70 ft above the stage-level."

"The depth of the parquet-floor at the orchestra-rail is governed by the stage-level, and is generally from 3 ft 6 in to 4 ft 3 in below the stage. A depth of 3 ft 9 in is a good height, as it fixes the eye of the spectator 5 in above the stage-level."

"The height of the stage, that is, from the floor to the bottom of the 'gridiron' or rigging-loft, should be 2 or 3 ft over twice the height of proscenium-opening, in order that the fire-curtain may be raised the full height of the opening." There should be a height of 7 ft above the gridiron to enable the fly-men to adjust their ropes with facility.

Proportioning Gutters and Conductors to the Roof-Surface. The size of gutters and down-spouts and their distance apart for roofs of mill-buildings with a ¼ pitch and of different spans are shown in the following table: *

One-half roof-span, in feet.......	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80
Size of gutter, in inches..........	5	5	6	6	7	7	8	8
Size of down-spouts, in inches..,	3	3	4	4	5	5	6	6
Spacing of down-spouts, in feet..	50	50	50	50	40	40	40	40

The specifications of the American Bridge Company provide as follows for the size of gutters and conductors: †

Span of roof	Gutters	Conductors
Up to 50 ft	6 in	4 in every 40 ft
From 50 to 70 ft	7 in	5 in every 40 ft
From 70 to 100 ft	8 in	5 in every 40 ft

Hanging gutters should have a slope of about 1 in in every 16 ft.

"The Produce Exchange Building in New York City, with a roof-area of three-fourths of an acre, roughly speaking, has twelve leaders, each about 5 in in diameter. The roof, which is paved with fire-brick, is graded with slopes of perhaps one in fifty toward the points at which the leader-openings are placed, most of these draining-surfaces being about 40 by 70 ft each. The provision here made is equivalent to about 1 sq in of leader-opening to 140 sq ft of roof-surface. On the Sloane Building, at 19th Street and Broadway, New York City, with a roof-area of 18 000 or 20 000 sq ft, sloping one in twenty-five, there are two leaders, each about 6 in in diameter, and a third rectangular leader, 4 by 6 in in cross-section. This gives an allowance of 240 sq ft of surface to the square inch of leader-opening, while on the Massachusetts Hospital Life Insurance Company's Building and the Hemenway Building, in Boston, the proportion is only from 60 to 70 sq ft to the square inch of opening." ‡

* H. G. Tyrrell.

† M. S. Ketchum.

‡ Dwight Potter in The Technology Quarterly.

ELEVATOR-SERVICE IN BUILDINGS*

General Considerations. An efficient elevator-service may be obtained by machines of any one of several types, the choice of the one decided upon for any building depending upon varying conditions. The following is a general classification of elevators (see, also, page 1588):

1. Hydraulic elevators:
    (1) Vertical, geared hydraulic type.
    (2) Horizontal, geared hydraulic type.
    (3) Direct-lift plunger-type.
    (4) Inverted (high pressure) plunger-type.
2. Electric elevators:
    (1) Drum-type.
    (2) Worm-gear traction-type.
    (3) Helical-gear type.
    (4) Gearless, traction-type.
        (*a*) Direct-drive (one-to-one) type.
        (*b*) Two-to-one type.

In addition to these, there are also the BELT-DRIVEN type of elevators, and the HAND-POWER elevators. The belt-driven type may be either SINGLE-BELT or DOUBLE-BELT driven, the former being used with a reversible motor and the latter where driving-power is taken from a line-shaft. In view of varying and sometimes conflicting claims of competing manufacturers, the architect's decision must be governed by impartial engineering judgment rendered after a careful study of the problem in each case.

Geared Versus Gearless Types of Elevators. (See, also, page 1589.) There has been much discussion regarding the merits and demerits of geared and gearless machines for elevators and the efficiency and future of each. Manufacturers of gearless traction-machines have claimed that the use of the helical gear, for example, for elevator-machines, being a relatively recent development, has not extended over a sufficient length of time to permit of extensive or definite data; that they are used for different and less severe service than that for which the gearless traction-machines are employed; and that they cannot rival the gearless traction-machines from the standpoint of efficiency. On the other hand, the manufacturers of helical-gear elevator-machines claim that gears have been in successful use for many years, the substitution of helical gears for worm-gears being the only difference made in the application to their type of elevators; that the helical-gear elevators installed in some of the highest office-buildings are doing as much work as any gearless traction-machines; and that the mechanical efficiency of the helical-gear machines is only a little below that of the gearless traction the electrical efficiency under local or ordinary running conditions, greater, and the car-mile consumption in kilowatt-hours, less.

Questions of Cost and Efficiency of Elevators. The principal demerit of elevator-machines of the gearless type is their relatively high first cost, although even that is much lower than the initial cost of elevators of the plunger-type. The use of any gear, whether of the helical, worm or spur-type, is, in the opinion of many engineers, to be recommended only for the purpose of obtaining a higher-speed motor, because a higher-speed motor costs less than a low-speed motor. The helical gear is generally considered a more efficient type of gear than the worm-gear and has a deserved place in the development of the elevator-industry. The helical-geared traction-elevators will undoubtedly be extensively used, for the reason that, even if they are not considered by some engineers to be as good in some details as machines of the gearless, traction type, they are less expensive. It is undoubtedly true, however, that the introduction of any gear means some loss in power, and it is claimed that tests show that low-speed motors can be designed which are in every way as efficient as high-speed motors. The data and statements in the following paragraphs relating to elevator-service in buildings are presented as useful aids to architects, and include some opinions and conclusions which are to be accepted or modified in the light of constant additions to engineering knowledge.

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* The matter relating to elevators and elevator-service is condensed and adapted by permission, from data furnished by various engineers and manufacturers, and papers by the Otis Elevator Company, New York City; The H. J. Reedy Company, Cincinnati, Ohio; R. P. Bolton of The R. P. Bolton Company, Consulting Engineers, New York, and author of "Elevator Service"; C. E. Knox, Consulting Engineer, New York; M. W. Ehrlich, Consulting Engineer, New York; and others.

A. General Conditions Affecting the Requirements of Specifications for Elevator-Service *

Electric Versus Hydraulic Elevators. The question of the type of elevators, whether electric or hydraulic, is best determined by the local conditions or the special conditions which exist in every plant. The relation of the elevator-equipment to the entire mechanical equipment should be carefully considered, and should be decided only after mature deliberation and consultation with unprejudiced engineers and elevator-manufacturers. At the present time (1914) about 90% of the elevators being installed are electric, and this includes all types of buildings from the small one with but one elevator to the tall skyscrapers of the big cities. The electric equipment recommends itself, for while it has all of the safety-features of the hydraulic equipment, it is a more flexible system, is more adaptable to all kinds of conditions, and requires much less space. The question of space is a particularly important consideration in office-buildings. Furthermore, the control-system is more automatic, the acceleration and retardation of the car can be made more rapid, and the stops more accurate; the efficiency, also, is higher and in most cases the cost of operation lower. (See, also, paragraph on Comparison of Merits of Electric, Traction and Hydraulic, Plunger-Elevators, page 1590)

Location of Hoistways and Machinery-Room. The location of the hoistways is rather a matter for the good judgment of the architect. In the larger equipment all elevators serving one portion of the building and for the same character of service, should be placed in one BANK and not distributed or separated. Thus, all express-elevators should be together and in one bank, as should, also, the locals. The hoistways should be so placed that the entrances, in all stories, are on the same side of the car. In some of the larger cities, two entrances for a passenger-car are not permitted, unless the doors can be controlled by the attendant without leaving the operating-device. The machinery-room should be well ventilated, light and clean as possible, in order that the machinery may be given proper attention. This room should also be large enough to make the machines readily accessible for repairs and inspection. Where the machines have heavy parts, which it may be necessary to remove from time to time for repairs, it is advisable to locate a trolley-beam with hand-hoist above them to facilitate the handling of these parts.

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* The Otis Elevator Company, New York, has been of assistance in furnishing much of the engineering data of Section A, of this article on elevators. Among other details it considers especially those conditions which should be considered and made definite by the architect preliminary to the preparation of the elevator-specifications. The paragraphs of Section A should be read in connection with those of Section B, page 1587. and the data compared.

Number and Sizes of Elevators. (See, also, pages 1593 and 1595.) The number and sizes of elevators are governed by the following considerations: (1) the character of the building, (2) the height of the building, (3) the rentable area, (4) the time-intervals between the departures of cars, (5) the number of stories to be served, (6) the average number and length of stops per trip, (7) the speed of the elevators and (8) the type of elevators used. No iron-clad rules can be given for all types of buildings, but the larger office-buildings, loft-buildings or light-manufacturing buildings have been sufficiently regular in design to warrant some general rules, based upon experience; even in these cases, however, the governing conditions vary with the size of the building. One of the most essential requirements for a satisfactory plant is QUICK SERVICE and in first-class office-buildings the intervals between cars should not exceed 30 seconds. The number of stories to be served by a car should be a consideration. For example, in a fifteen-story building, assuming that stops are made at 80% of the stories for one passenger each, and allowing 2 sq ft for each passenger, and 4 sq ft for the operator, the car should have an inside area of about 28 sq ft. In order to facilitate unloading and thus increase the efficiency of the system, it is desirable to have the width of the car greater than the depth. In the above case, a car with outside dimensions of about 6 ft wide by 5 ft deep would give the best results, showing a difference of from 15 to 20% between the depth and width. In specifying the equipment, it is better to call for several moderate-sized cars and a high speed, than for a few large cars of slower speed and larger capacities. Thus, three cars, each carrying one-third of all the passengers, are better than two cars, each carrying one-half, as the service is increased by making the period between cars less. As the elevator-service largely determines the success of a building, it is of vital importance that a sufficient number of elevators be installed to handle the regular traffic, as well as emergency-conditions in case of a shut-down. To illustrate what is considered the proper proportion of passenger-elevators for buildings of various heights, the following table is given, based upon a rentable area of 8 000 sq ft per story and 125 sq ft per person. This table shows the various combinations for elevators with a speed of from 400 to 500 ft and of 600 ft per min for buildings of from 10 to 30 stories above the ground.

Table Showing Number of Elevators Required

Number of stories	Express 600 ft per min	Local 600 ft per min	Express 600 ft per min	Local 500 ft per min	Express 500 ft per min	Local 400 ft per min
10	....	4	....	5	....	5
12	....	5	....	5	....	6
15	....	6	....	7	....	7
18	....	7	....	8	....	8
18	Express to 11 5	1 to 11 5	Express to 10 5	1 to 10 5	Express to 11 5	500 ft per min 1 to 11 5
20	....	All locals 8	....	....	....	....
20	Express to 12 5	1 to 12 5	Express to 11 5	1 to 11 5	Express to 12 6	1 to 12 6
25	Express to 15 6	1 to 15 6	Express to 14 6	1 to 14 6	Express to 15 7	1 to 15 7
30	Express to 18 7	1 to 18 7	Express to 17 7	1 to 17 7	Express to 18 8	1 to 18 8

Buildings equipped with both local and express-service should have the same number of elevators for each class of service. In the case of the twenty-five story building for 600 ft-per-min speed, it is to be noted that the local elevators are shown serving from the first to fifteenth story, whereas the express-elevators serve from the fifteenth to the twenty-fifth story. The express-elevators cannot serve as many stories as the locals on account of the extra time consumed in the run to the first express-landing. With the distribution as shown, the service for all stories is about equal, and both express-elevators and local elevators operate on about the same schedule. In the fourth and fifth columns are shown what is considered the best arrangement with the express-elevators operating at a 600 and the locals at a 500 ft-per-min speed. Upon comparison with the second and third columns, it will be noted that the express-elevators are to serve one additional story. This is due to the difference in speed between the express-elevators and local elevators and is done so that the schedule may still remain the same for both. (See, also, paragraph on the Local and Express Round-Trip Time, page 1595.)

Loads and Speeds. The sizes of the machines or hoisting-apparatus are determined by the loads and speeds. The loads for passenger-cars should be figured on a basis of 75 lb per sq ft of inside area of platform. The speed is a very important factor, as the foregoing indicates. This is usually limited by local ordinances, and in New York City, cars stopping at all stories are not permitted to exceed a speed of 500 ft per min. For express-service, in that portion of the shaft where no stop is made, a speed of 700 ft per min is allowed. This NO-STOP DISTANCE must be at least 80 ft or more. The best companies for elevator-insurance will not permit electric-drum elevators for a speed much over 400 ft per min, whereas the gearless, traction-drive type and the hydraulic types are approved up to the limits, as noted above. In hydraulic plants it is necessary to specify the number of round trips per hour for the entire elevator-equipment. This is required in order to determine an adequate pumping-plant.

Hoistways. The hoistways should be finished to plumb-line dimensions, so that the car running on guide-rails set to plumb-line will at all points have the same clearance. Supports should be provided adjacent to the hoistway for the overhead beams at a distance, if possible, of at least 4 ft from the top of car-frame when the platform is flush with the top landing. This distance should be increased where possible so that the car will have ample clearance, thus preventing accidents due to striking the overhead work, in case it should run past the top landing. The minimum clearances between the top of the car-frame and the overhead apparatus are usually limited by the local building regulations, and these should be consulted. In the case of the elevators operating at a speed greater than 350 ft per min, the distance given above would probably have to be increased in order to comply with these regulations. A pit should be provided at the bottom of the shaft. This should be at least 3 ft deep, and as is the case with the overhead clearances, the depth is usually regulated by the building regulations, in accordance with the speed of the elevator. Wherever possible, the hoistways should be so planned that the main guide-rails may be placed at the sides of the car. Supports should be provided at all the floors for these rails, and where the distance between floors is greater than 12 ft, intermediate supports should be provided. The distance from the supports for the overhead beams, to the penthouse or skylight-roof, varies with the type of installation, but can be accurately obtained from the elevator-manufacturer.

Protection of Counterweights. In New York City the Bureau of Buildings requires that where the counterweights run in the same shaft as the car, they must be protected with a substantial screen of iron from the top of the rail to a point 15 ft below, except where the plunger-type or traction-type elevator is used.

Building Laws Governing Elevator-Installation. The Bureau of Buildings, Borough of Manhattan, New York City, issued regulations * governing the construction, inspection and operation of all types of elevators, and the special attention of all architects is called to them, as they are not only obligatory there, but are excellent guides to practice at all times. The foregoing paragraphs are intended to give an idea of what the architect must consider and provide in a building for the reception of the elevator-apparatus, and what he must determine in order to enable the manufacturer to intelligently design and lay out his machinery.

Standard Designs and Special Apparatus. The specifying of apparatus of special construction is, as a rule, not to be recommended. Standard designs should be used as much as possible, as (1) they are more apt to be well designed, tested and built, (2) they are undoubtedly less expensive, both in initial cost and maintenance and (3) repair-parts may be more easily and quickly obtained and at less cost.

Specifications for Elevator-Installation. The specifications should include data included in the following classification.

(1) Kinds of service and number of elevators of each service.
(2) Maximum load wanted.
(3) Maximum speed.
(4) Load with maximum speed.
(5) Maximum number of round trips per hour for each elevator.
(6) Method of control. For electric elevators, car-switch control should be used for passenger-service and for all elevators for a speed over 150 ft per min.
(7) Size of hoistways and area of car-platforms.
(8) Travel of car-platform in feet, number of car-landings, and number of openings at each landing.
(9) System used. If electric, direct or alternating current, the voltage and, also, the phase of cycles for alternating current should be given. If hydraulic, the steam-pressure or electric current characteristics for the pump-motors or the water-pressure, if the purchaser provides the pumps, tanks or other source of water-pressure supply.
(10) A sketch-elevation showing landings, supports for overhead beams, space for the overhead sheaves, and runbys at top and bottom; a sketch-plan showing size and shape of hoistways, entrances, position of car and counterweight, guide-rails, and location of space available for machines, pumps, tanks, etc., with reference to hoistways.
(11) Car and counterweight guide-rails, whether of wood or steel.
(12) Supports for fastening the rails, character of these supports, and where and how located.
(13) Value of finished car or cage, that is, the specified amount to be allowed for each, the design being subject to the approval of the architect.
(14) Number and size of ropes, if not left to the judgment of the elevator-contractor. The largest sheaves possible should always be required, as this factor determines largely the life of the ropes.
(15) System of signals, that is, (*a*) annunciators in the cars with push-buttons at the landings, (*b*) UP and DOWN signals in the cars, with UP and DOWN buttons at the landings, so arranged that a car going up receives only

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* Published in the Record and Guide, July 29th, 1911.

UP signals, and a car going down receives only DOWN signals, each signal being automatically reset by the first car stopping at the story from which the signal is given. This system adds greatly to the efficiency of a battery of elevators, as it avoids the confusion of more than one car answering a signal, or a car going in one direction stopping for a passenger going in the opposite direction. The number of stories at which each car is to land should always be specified.

(16) Indicators. Whether at the ground-floor only, for the information of the starter regarding the position of the cars, or at all floors. Indicators are unnecessary with the automatic signals last described, except at the ground-floor, as there is at each floor an UP and DOWN signal to show the first available car in either direction.

(17) Source of power. It should be specified whether the connections will be brought to the elevator-apparatus by the purchaser or by the elevator-contractor. If by the latter, a sketch should be made showing the distance, and for the electric system the specifications should state whether the wiring is to be open, that is, on cleats, in moldings, or in conduits; the sizes of wire, and the switches, cut-outs, etc. For an hydraulic system, the size of pipe for steam-supply should be given. The sizes of water-piping should be left to the elevator-contractor and he should be held responsible for them. Also, in the case of an hydraulic system operating from street-mains, the specifications should state by whom the piping is to be done and who is to furnish the water-meter.

(18) Pumps and tanks in hydraulic plants. These should be furnished by the contractor. The specifications should state whether the capacity is to be just ample to do the work, or whether there is to be a reserve-capacity, with reserve-units, to provide against interference with the service in case of accident to a pump or tank, or for future elevators; but the sizes and design should be left to the judgment of a responsible elevator-contractor.

(19) Foundations for the machine, whether they are to be provided by the purchaser or by the contractor.

(20) Miscellaneous. Gratings underneath the overhead work, pitpans, painting in addition to the standard factory-finish and all items not mentioned above are generally furnished by the purchaser under separate contracts, but this should be clearly set forth in the elevator-specifications.

Safety-Devices for Elevators. (See, also, page 1592.) The question of safety-devices cannot be too carefully considered for all elevators, and for passenger-elevators in particular only the best and most thoroughly tested apparatus should be installed. Each car should be equipped with the mechanical device designed to grip the rails and stop the car in case it exceeds a predetermined maximum descending-speed, either from breaking of the cables or from any other causes. This safety-device should be mounted upon the car-frame beneath the platform, and should be operated by means of a speed-governor located overhead. For speeds above 150 ft per min, this gripping of the rails should be done gradually. In New York City the instantaneous stopping is not allowed above a speed of 100 ft per min. A switch for emergency-use should be placed in the car of electric elevators. The opening of this switch should stop the car immediately and independently of the regular operating-device. All electric elevator-machines should be equipped with an electric brake. This brake should be automatically applied when the car stops or when the current-supply is interrupted. The brake should be released electrically and applied by means of spring-pressure. Automatic limits should be placed at the top and bottom of the hoistway, to automatically slow down and stop the car at the limits of travel, independently of the operator.

Gearless Traction-Elevators.* Among the more recent developments of the elevator industry is the electric, gearless, traction-elevator (Figs. 1 and 2). (See, also, Fig. 5.) The designing of an efficient slow-speed motor made it practical to build a traction-machine with the driving-sheave mounted directly upon the armature-shaft, thus eliminating the use of gears to reduce to the desired car-speed. This gearless machine is used for speeds from 250 ft per min and above. The manufacturers of this type of machine claim that it is the outcome of a general tendency toward simplicity in design with efficiency in operation. The machines are generally located over the hatchway. The car is supported by cables which lead from the car directly over the driving-sheave, with overhead installation, then partially around the auxiliary idler or leading-sheave and again over the driving-sheave to the counterweight. With this arrangement a complete turn around the driving-sheave and the idler-sheave is obtained, giving sufficient tractive effort to drive the car. The machine being placed overhead, the cables can lead directly to the car and counterweights; and as this allows the cables to bend in the same direction, it is claimed by the manufacturers that it is an advantage and that the life of the cables is appreciably lengthened. Special hitches are used for connections to the car and counterweight to counteract the twisting effort due to the reaving of the cables. As soon as either the car or counterweight is obstructed, the tension in the cables is decreased and consequently the tractive effort reduced. This arrangement, it is claimed, brings either the car or counterweight to rest and prevents running by the limits of travel, and into the overhead beams, should either member land on the buffers at the bottom of the shaft. Underneath both car and counterweight are placed oil-buffers designed to bring the car or counterweight to rest at the limits of travel, from full speed. At the top and bottom of the hatchway the car is stopped automatically by a series of electric switches. The operation of these switches is so timed that the car is brought to a smooth and gradual stop. The slow-speed shunt-motor, with its control, makes a flexible system. The acceleration and retardation may be arranged to suit the particular service-requirements. For speeds below 450 ft per min, it is the practice to obtain the slow speed by passing the cables around sheaves mounted in

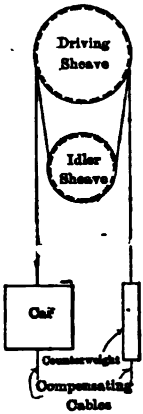

Fig. 1. Roping for 1 to 1 Traction-machine

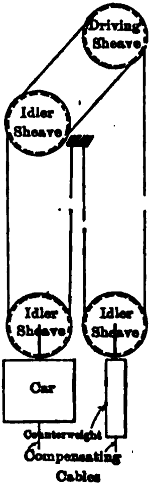

Fig. 2. Roping for 2 to 1 Traction-machine

the cross-head of the car and of the counterweight, and anchoring the ends of the cables at the top of the hoistway. These sheaves, with their ball bearings, are specially made to withstand the heavy service to which they are subjected. In addition to the above details, elevators of this type should be provided with all of the regular safety-devices used with passenger-elevators.

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* For full and valuable data relating to the relative advantages of the helical-gear elevators as compared with those of the traction-type, see papers published by the H. J. Reedy Company, Cincinnati, Ohio, and others advocating the geared machines. Editor.

Electric Elevators with Push-Button Control. One of the most ingenious and serviceable developments in the elevator-industry is that of the automatic electric elevator with push-button control. In New York City this type of elevator is permitted only in residences, but in other cities it is used in apartments, hospitals, and other places where the service is very light and intermittent, and it is desired to dispense with an attendant. In the design of these elevators it has been the aim to provide all safety-devices and appliances to make the installation absolutely safe, so that the elevators may be operated even by a child alone, without danger. In each story is located a button, similar in appearance to the ordinary signal-button, and the passenger, by pressing this, may call the car, if it is unoccupied or not in use, to any story. The car comes to the story at which it is required, and stops automatically. When it comes to rest in this story, the entrance-door to the hoistway is automatically unlocked, and it is then possible for the passenger to open the door and the car-gate, and enter the car. The hoistway-gates and the car-gate are so arranged that the machine is inoperative until both are tightly closed. The hoistway-doors can be opened from a hall, only when the car is at the landing of that particular hall. In the car is a bank of buttons corresponding to the various stories served, and also a stop-button or emergency-button. After entering the car, and closing the hatchway-door and the car-gate, the passenger can push the button in the car corresponding to the story to which he desires to go. The car will proceed to the designated story and stop automatically. Should the passenger desire, for any reason, to stop the car at any point of its travel, he can do so by pushing the stop or emergency-button. The car is in the complete control of the passenger, as, after the initial operation of calling or sending it to a landing, its further operation cannot be interfered with until after both the hatchway-door and the car-gate are opened and closed. This means that no other person can call the car until after the passenger has reached the desired landing, left the car, and closed the gate and door. In some equipments for elevators of this type, the device for releasing the door-lock is prevented from operating while the car is in motion. This is a very desirable safety-feature, as otherwise each lock

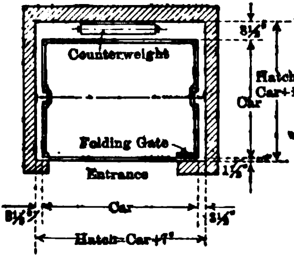

Fig. 3. Standard Hatchway and Car-platform. Side-guides

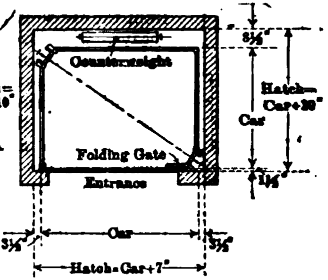

Fig. 4. Standard Hatchway and Car-platform. Corner-guides

is temporarily released as the car passes up or down the hoistway, and a person on a landing can open the door during the momentary period that it is unlocked. In some cases the gate on the car is omitted; but this is a very dangerous practice and should not be permitted. Elevators of this type are designed for operation with direct current or alternating current, and single or multiphase circuits. Single phase should be avoided, if possible, and before deciding upon this type of current, the consent of the electric power company should be obtained for placing upon their lines a motor with the heavy inrush of current required at starting.

Standard Relations of Hatchway, Platform and Car-Sizes. (See, also, page 1595.) In Figs. 3 and 4 are shown some typical elevator layouts for electric installations, with side and corner-posts and steel construction. (See, also, Fig. 7.) The clearances shown are for elevators traveling at a speed of 450 ft per min or more, and may be reduced about 1½ in for elevators of slower speed. Some of the minimum dimensions given with Figs. 3 and 4 vary slightly from those given with Fig. 7 and in Table D, page 1596, but agree in the essential requirements.

B. Electric, Passenger-Elevator Systems *

Elevator-Development. The object in view in presenting this material is not to discuss all the details of elevator-construction or the mechanical features, but to outline the results of a study in connection with the economic division of passenger-elevators and an efficient elevator-service for the traffic of the modern commercial or distinct type of office-building. The requirement of such buildings is a very ample and adequate elevator-service, not only because the monetary value of the building may otherwise be affected, but in time of necessity, as during a fire or other panic, the occupants must be readily brought to safety. During the early development of the sky-scraper the necessity for a proper elevator-service was partly overlooked, and perhaps not altogether realized, for some of the older buildings suffer from a lack of traveling-facilities, resulting in an inconvenience to the many occupants. The tenants of the upper stories are therefore obliged to wait on the up trip of the elevator, and the people occupying the lower portion of the building are left behind on the down trip.

The Extensive Use of Elevators. To fully indicate the extensive use to which the elevator has been adopted for passenger traffic in large cities, the instance of the Borough of Manhattan of New York City is given. There were in 1914 about 10 000 machines in service, twice the number that were in operation in 1904, and these were divided among the different classes of buildings approximately as follows:

5 000 elevators in office-buildings over 10 stories high.
1 500 elevators in office-buildings under 10 stories high.
500 elevators in loft-buildings.
700 elevators in residences.
800 elevators in apartment-houses.
500 elevators in department and other stores.
1 000 elevators in hotels, clubs, institutions, etc.

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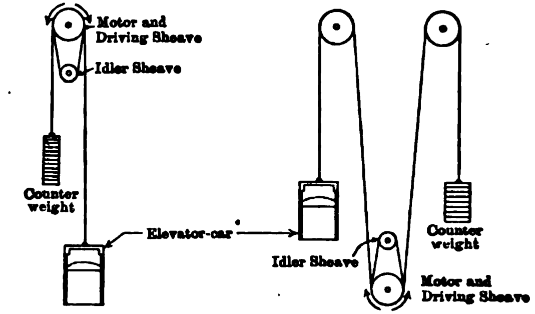
* The matter in Section B of this article on Elevators is, by permission, condensed and adapted from data contained in papers by M. W. Ehrlich, consulting engineer. The papers first appeared in the April, May and June, 1914, issues of Electrical Engineering, and afterwards were published in condensed form in Lefax, by the Standard Corporation of Philadelphia. Section B includes a brief outline of elevator-development, some economic considerations and some installation-data, and the paragraphs of this Section should be read in connection with those of Section A, page 1580, and the data compared.

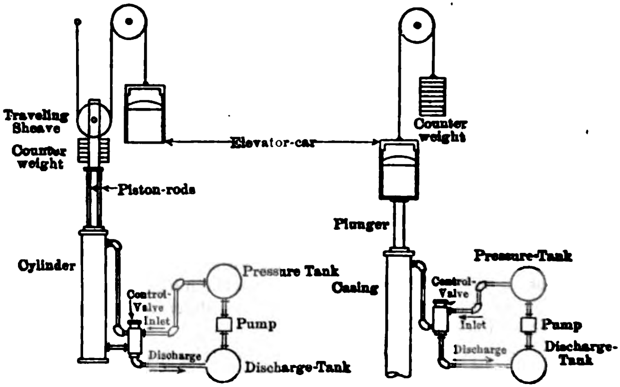
Besides these passenger-cars, the buildings requiring freight-service involved an additional 10 000 machines.

Two Common Types of Elevators. In modern elevator-practice there are but two common types of successful machines in use, the hydraulic and electric elevators. These may both be subdivided in the classification according to the mode of drive or operation and the transmission of power, thereby showing an apparent variety of elevators. The machine of the hydraulic type may be of the vertical-cylinder pattern or of the plunger-type, while the electrical apparatus may be of the drum, worm-gear or gearless traction-type. Some of the types and varieties are illustrated in Fig. 5. (See, also, Figs. 1 and 2, page 1585, and general classification on page 1579.)



GEARLESS, TRACTION, ELECTRIC
OVERHEAD-DRIVE

WORM-GEAR, ELECTRIC
BASEMENT-DRIVE



VERTICAL CYLINDER, HYDRAULIC

DIRECT-ACTING, PLUNGER

Fig. 5. Some Types and Varieties of Elevators

A Short Historical Account of the Development of the Commercial Passenger-Elevator brings one back a little more than half a century to the introduction of the first STEAM-ELEVATOR. This form of drive was soon replaced by the WATER-BALANCE type of hydraulic elevator, which, even though a faster machine, proved to be, in operation, quite dangerous. For a number of years this type enjoyed the distinction of being the only high-speed apparatus until the advent of the VERTICAL-CYLINDER HYDRAULIC ELEVATOR, about twenty years later. Running-speeds as high as 400 ft per min were readily attained, and on account of the ease in handling and the safety in operation, these elevators soon gained favor and were the only types of machines installed in the then tall buildings. The electric DRUM-MACHINE made its first appearance in New York during the year 1889, and owing to the merits of this new system, the electric machine soon established itself as a successful competitor with the hydraulic type. The only obstacle remaining was to overcome the slower speed, and this brought out the Sprague LONG-SCREW ELECTRIC ELEVATOR. Elevators of this type proved quite costly to maintain and operate, but on account of their possibilities of speed and high rise, were installed in several tall structures. These different types of elevators helped considerably in the development of the sky-scraper buildings, and as further building projects brought on an extension in height, a hitherto unknown condition of passenger-elevator service had to be met. About the year 1900 the DIRECT-ACTING PLUNGER HYDRAULIC ELEVATOR was introduced to fulfil this increasing demand of continued high rise with high speed. The inherent safety in operation and the relatively high economy allowed for no doubt as to the possibilities of the PLUNGER, but after several years, experience pointed out that the advantages of the hydraulic plunger-elevator were somewhat limited in certain directions, and only under conditions of a rise not exceeding 150 ft could the characteristics of the safe and economical plunger-elevator be maintained.

Traction and Geared Elevators. (See, also, page 1579.) Recent experiments conducted to perfect an electric elevator that would meet the growing requirements of heavy passenger traffic in the newest form of tall office-buildings have resulted in the production of what is now commercially known as the ONE-TO-ONE, or GEARLESS TRACTION-ELEVATOR. Among the earliest New York installations of this type of electric elevator may be named those in the Singer Building and Tower, and later those in the Metropolitan Building and Tower, while the latest developments include the Woolworth and the Equitable Buildings. The apparatus used in the Municipal Building is one in which the machines are an adaptation of the usual double-worm-and-gear drive between a relatively high-speed motor and a cable-drum, a double set of intermeshing spur-gears being employed between the two gear-shafts. In summarizing, it might be well to mention that the commercial or useful life of an elevator and its combined mechanisms seldom exceeds fifteen years, and that where remodeling has been resorted to, the ELECTRIC DRUM and WORM-GEAR TRACTION have usually been substituted for the HYDRAULIC TYPE in buildings not exceeding from twelve to sixteen stories in height; and that in higher structures the gearless traction-elevator or its modification in the form of an electric TWO-TO-ONE TRACTION-ELEVATOR has been resorted to.

Safety of Electric and Hydraulic Elevators. (See page 1584.) It is true, however, that both the electric and hydraulic types of elevators have been perfected to a state of high efficiency, and they may, therefore, be used with entire safety. Of the hydraulic types it may be said that the plunger-elevators are inherently safer than those which are suspended, or than even the more modern electric traction-elevators; but it cannot be denied that the many refinements and improved appliances attached to elevators of the various electric types have made the latter as reliable as hydraulic machines designed according to best practice. It is claimed that the electric traction-elevator is relatively free from the element of danger because of the improved methods of power-transmission and the peculiar form of windings used for the drive.

Comparison of Merits of Electric, Traction, and Hydraulic Plunger-Elevators. In narrowing down the question as to the merits of the ELECTRIC TRACTION-ELEVATOR and of the HYDRAULIC PLUNGER-ELEVATOR for passenger-service in tall office-buildings of to-day, it might be well to note that the new elevator-installations, almost without exception, have favored the electric. Not only is the cost of installing the traction-machine from 25 to 35% less than that of the plunger-type, but the room occupied by the driving-machinery is reduced to a minimum, and, as a matter of fact, may be placed at the head and directly over the elevator-shaft. If no local supply of electricity is available on the premises, the public source may be resorted to. The difficulty with the plunger-elevator for high-rise, high-speed work lies in the requirement for moving the mass of water and the massive plunger proper, and as this immense weight cannot be readily and smoothly stopped, the result is a sluggishness in starting and stopping. At any rate, it remains an open question as to whether the economic values attached to modern buildings would favor the installation of the plunger-elevator, with its accompanying pumping-plant, which necessarily occupies considerable floor-space. The choice, therefore, would tend to favor the HIGH-RISE, HIGH-SPEED ELECTRIC TRACTION-ELEVATOR for passenger-service. (See, also, paragraph on Electric Versus Hydraulic Elevators, page 1580.)

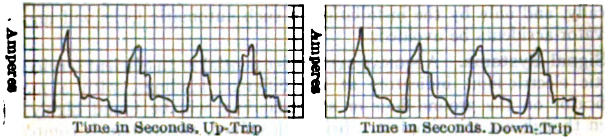
Table A. Relative Operating-Costs of Elevators

Costs	Office-building				Loft-building				Apartment-house			
	Traction electric	Worm-gear electric	Vertical-cylinder hydraulic	Direct plunger	Traction	Worm-gear	Hydraulic	Plunger	Traction	Worm-gear	Hydraulic	Plunger
Per cent of rentals	8.5	7.2	6.8	6.5	8.0	6.8	6.5	6.2	6.8	6.0	5.5	5.3
Cents per car-mile.	25	22	20	19	23.8	20	19	18	20	18	17	16
Dollars per car per annum..........	2 100	1 850	1 680	1 600	1075	900	860	810	560	510	480	450
Per cent of all operating-costs......	14.1	12.0	11.3	11.0	18.0	15.4	14.8	14.0	13.6	12.0	11.0	10 6

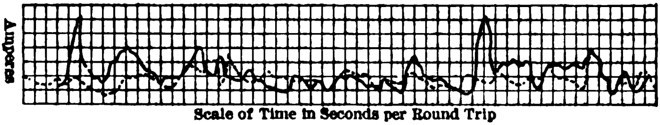
Relative Operating-Costs of Elevators. The figures given in Table A may prove of interest in pointing out the relatively higher operating-costs of the different ELECTRIC types over the VERTICAL-CYLINDER HYDRAULIC and PLUNGER-ELEVATORS. The values given represent only the cost of labor, power, repairs and supplies. By a close perusal of the amounts listed, it will be confirmed that the economies of the plunger cannot be utilized beneficially in tall office-buildings, on account of the mechanical difficulties, and in other types of smaller buildings, allowing for a low rise, the installation cost becomes exorbitant. If the relatively high first cost of this type of machine were taken into consideration, with an addition for the extra cost in building-construction necessary for the space occupied by the pump and tank-equipment, the total expenditure on the whole would show no great favor either way. In explaining the values given in Table A, it should be understood that the figures are computed on a basis of actual records of several buildings that have been brought to the writer's notice. The general method of comparing records in business buildings is to compare the costs with the total annual income or rental. The total operating-costs include the expense in the mechanical, electrical and building departments, covering all costs of labor and material for the maintenance of the different divisions of service. Therefore the annual cost of operating an elevator-system is given as a percentage of the gross rentals received, and is further stated as a percentage of the total operating-expenditure of the buildings under consideration. The average cost in cents per car-mile traversed is also given, together with the average annual cost in dollars to pay for the labor of operating and repairing, the necessary power, and the material and supplies required per single elevator.

Economic Considerations. The efficient operation of an elevator-system does not rest altogether on the economic division and disposition of the cars, as the human element becomes one of the main factors. It is self-evident, therefore, that the service of an elevator is limited not only by the different classes of passengers entering, riding and leaving the conveyance, but by the experience of the hallman or STARTER and his ability to understand the demands of the traffic and the personal peculiarities of the elevator-operators.

Time-Schedules. It is now common practice to dispatch the various machines of an elevator-system on a predetermined time-schedule, thus avoiding to a great extent any confusion or overcrowding that would otherwise arise. It has been well established that the travel of elevators under consecutive-trip schedule-operation allows for a highly efficient service, not only in the handling of the traffic, but in the demand for power, which is thereby reduced to a minimum.



(*a*) Operation of one car



(*b*) Operation of a bank of elevators

Fig. 6. Recorded Current-consumption of Gearless Traction-elevators

Power-Diagrams. The POWER-DIAGRAMS (Fig. 6) point to the effect of a poor and a proper service under different conditions. The upper curve (a) was taken under test-conditions and represents the operation of one elevator. The load in the single car is approximately equal to the designed machine-balance, both on the up and down trips, and the number of stops corresponds to the average per car per mile under actual service in office-buildings. This diagram is given mainly to allow for a proper understanding of the combined curve (b), showing the actual round-trip operation of a bank of elevators in one of the New York sky-scraper buildings at an early-morning hour. The full or solid-line curve shows an excessive power-demand due to an inconsistent SCHEDULE, the cars having been dispatched by a starter who may be identified as *X*, while the dotted or broken-line curve shows the more expert handling under the consecutive trips by starter *Y*, the same operators running the cars in each case.

Safety-Appliances. (See, also, page 1584.) To minimize the many accidents in elevator-practice, a SAFETY-LOCK is recommended, so attached that it will not permit the elevator to leave a landing until the gate has been locked. Accidents are seldom, if ever, due to the faulty behavior of the elevator proper, but sometimes the breaking of suspension-ropes, as recorded by a relatively few cases, will result in a serious accident. The most frequent cause of accidents connected with the operation of elevators, is that due directly to the negligence of the operator in handling the doors or elevator-gates, and this may be avoided by the installation of the safety-locks above recommended. So far as has been practically demonstrated, many of the safety-appliances on the older installations designed to stop a falling elevator have usually failed to act; but the improved wedge-type of JAW-SAFETY, actuated by a SPEED-GOVERNOR and attached to the more recent installations, usually acts when the elevator exceeds its normal running-speed. This generally occurs when the designed or safe-distance limit has been passed, and the jar occasioned by the final stopping of the car is not altogether a pleasant experience. The serious injuries and fatalities due to the falling of an elevator are proportionately small when compared with the entire list, and amount to about 20% of the total, whereas the loss of life caused by open and unlocked gates in elevator-practice today accounts for the remaining 80%. The only safety-device, therefore, that may be called useful, as it eliminates the personal element, is a SAFETY-LOCK. Of the several automatic devices now available for this provision of safety, all deserve merit; and while some are purely mechanical, others are actuated electrically, and only by the installation of such automatic locks will unnecessary elevator-accidents be avoided.

Signal-Systems. A SIGNAL-SYSTEM is essential to an efficient service. Automatic electric-light indicators at the different landings, with a mechanical indicator on the ground-floor or street-landing, will be found highly efficient even though not the simplest. Briefly described, the system is composed of a dynamotor supplying current for the magnets, push-buttons and lamps. At each landing one or more sets of push-buttons are arranged for both the UP and DOWN signal, and over each elevator-gate two lamps of different color, one over another, to indicate the direction of car-travel; and each elevator-car is also provided with a signal-lamp and a transfer-switch or push-button. A mechanical indicator on the main landing informs the starter as to the location of the different elevators, and thereby aids him in exercising full discretion as to when to dispatch the next car. The general system operates in a manner approximately as follows: When a push-button is pressed for either direction in any story, it actuates a magnet corresponding to that story, which in turn signals to the operator in any approaching car, thereby indicating a waiting passenger; and, according to the movement of the elevator, further contact is made with the outside signal-lamps at that story showing to the waiting person the car approaching that floor. In a properly proportioned elevator-system the transfer-switch is seldom used, but in buildings in which the travel becomes overtaxed during the rush-hours, and when an approaching car is filled to its capacity, the operator may press the transfer-button and thereby signal the car following.

Traffic-Capacity of Elevators. The TRAFFIC-CAPACITY of an elevator, or its passenger accommodations must necessarily be of such proportions as to handle the travel of the tenants of the building and also of their visitors and insure a proper working schedule. From a study of existing systems in which the elevator-service is considered adequate, it is found that the questions of BUILDING-OCCUPANCY as related to BUILDING-AREA and elevator TRAFFIC-CAPACITY may be combined into a consideration of a proper UNIT AREA for the elevator. In regard to the determination of the MAXIMUM TRAFFIC-CAPACITY of a passenger-elevator, experience shows that an average weight of 140 lb may be allowed for each passenger, and as each size of car has its corresponding load at the rated speed, the total load divided by 140 gives the maximum number of passengers an elevator can accommodate at its designed speed. In another simple computation for this result, an allowance of 2 sq ft of car is made for each passenger. The maximum capacity of an elevator may be of interest in computing the time required to empty a building in case of emergency; but when a car of proper unit area is installed, this condition is taken care of. Tests have shown that the AVERAGE PASSENGER TRAFFIC of an elevator-system bears a definite relation to the TENANCY of the building, and to the MAXIMUM TRAVEL, the result being that expressed in Formula (6).

Number of Elevators. (See, also, page 1581.) Modern practice tends to show that the NUMBER OF ELEVATORS required for any office-building is really governed by the physical aspects and conditions of that building. Wherever it is not practicable to use a car of large area, the number required will certainly be in excess of that necessary when large cars are used. It is not advisable, therefore, to base any conclusions on the number of cars to adequately satisfy a certain condition, unless the UNIT AREA OF THE CAR is considered.

Local and Express-Elevators. Another important consideration is the division so common in high-class office-buildings, namely, the proper service of LOCAL and EXPRESS-elevators.

Formulas for Elevator-Service. The formulas given below are well substantiated, and give economical service-conditions based on existing systems in the larger cities of the United States. By these formulas the number of elevators required, the division of service, and their operation may be determined.

$$E = A/24\,000 \tag{1}$$

$$f = n/2 + 2 \tag{2}$$

$$Te = (25/s + 5/100)\,n \text{ and } Tl = (25/s + l/10)\,n \tag{3}$$

$$Me = 2\,n/7\;Te \text{ and } Ml = 2\,n/7\;Tl \tag{4}$$

$$Ce = 115\,n/100\;Te \text{ and } Cl = 115\,n/100\;Tl \tag{5}$$

$$pe = 300/Te \text{ and } pl = 300/Tl \tag{6}$$

The notations in the formulas are:

E = number of elevators required
A = square feet of gross building-area served
f = story at which express-run terminates
n = total number of stories served
s = speed of elevator, in feet per minute
Tl = local round-trip time, in minutes
Te = express round-trip time, in minutes
Ml = miles traveled per hour by local
Me = miles traveled per hour by express
Cl = current consumed per hour by local, in kilowatt-hours
Ce = current consumed per hour by express, in kilowatt-hours
pl = passengers carried per hour by local, one way, up or down
pe = passengers carried per hour by express, one way, up or down

The figures in Table B represent the AVERAGE LOAD AND SPEED-COMBINATIONS for various heights of buildings, together with the usual AREA OF THE ELEVATOR-car consistent with the standard sizes manufactured, and should be used as a basis for selecting the proper unit areas in connection with Formula (1). The many factors entering into the operation of an elevator would affect the current-consumption to a considerable extent, as may be seen in Fig. 6, previously explained. But Formula (5) agrees with modern service under average operating-conditions.

Table B. Unit Area, Load and Speed-Combinations

Number of stories	Car-area, sq ft	Load, lb	Speed, ft per min
8 to 13	25	1 700	250 to 350
14 to 22	30	2 000	350 to 600
23 to 30	40	3 000	400 to 600

Table C. Elevator-Installation Data

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Building		Number of elevators required				
Number of stories	Gross area, sq ft	Total car-area, sq ft	Cars at 25 sq ft	Cars at 30 sq ft	Cars at 40 sq ft	By Formula (1
8	80 000	89	4	....	....	4
10	100 000	111	4	....	....	4
12	120 000	133	5	....	....	5
14	210 000	262	11	9	....	9
16	240 000	300	12	10	....	10
18	270 000	337	14	11	....	11
20	300 000	375	15	13	10	13
25	375 000	577	....	19	15	16
30	800 000	1 221	....	40	30	33

	8	9	10	11	12
Number of stories	Round trip time in minutes				*f*, or express-run in storie
	T_l at 350 ft per min	T_l at 500 ft per min	T_e at 500 ft per min	T_e at 600 ft per min	
8	1.3	....	....	....	....
10	1.7	....	....	....	....
12	2.0	....	....	....	....
14	2.4	2.1	....	....	....
16	2.7	2.4	1.6	....	10
18	....	2.7	1.8	....	11
20	....	3.0	2.0	1.8	12
25	....	....	2.5	2.3	15
30	....	....	3.0	2.7	17

Installation-Data. In order to facilitate the ready understanding of the various formulas given, Table C, embodying the computations, is presented. The various headings included are numbered in respective order from 1 to 12, so that an explanation of the items considered will not be confusing. Under column 1 is listed the heights of buildings, with the assumed floor-areas, extending the full height of the structure, given in column 2. In column 3 are listed the actual square feet of car-area now provided in many buildings of similar floor-space and with an adequate service. This is intended as a guide where the considerations in planning the building have included a means of accommodating the standard-sized elevators most suitable for that building and where serious attention has been given to the disposition of the cars. But, on the other hand, the values listed may also be used to advantage in proportioning the number of elevators required under any conditions, and where the physical aspect of the building does not allow for an economic disposition of the elevators. Any conservative unit area best suited to the conditions may then be allotted for each car, and the number of elevators then determined. Columns 4, 5 and 6 give the numbers of cars for various standard unit areas, while the values in column 7 are computed by Formula (1).

The Local and Express Round-Trip Time for different running-speeds is given in columns 8, 9, 10 and 11 of Table C, and the value for *f* as given in Formula (2) is given in column 12. It will be noticed that in columns 8 and 9 the time occupied in traversing the heights of buildings exceeding eighteen stories is slightly more than would actually prove economical. It might be well, therefore, to point out that the speeds of local elevators for high buildings might be increased to advantage; but whether the service is local or express, it is not advisable to exceed a speed-rate of 600 ft per min. In order to rectify this condition, under the speeds considered, the number of express-elevators must then be more than half the total number in the system, and a subdivision of express-service proper is also necessary. (See, also, Table Showing Number of Elevators Required and notes following, page 1581.)

Sizes of Hatchways and Car-Platforms. (See, also, page 1581.) The sizes of elevator-car platforms and hatchways of unit areas heretofore considered are shown in the following diagrams (Fig. 7) illustrating three typical forms of modern installations with steel guide-rails. (See, also, Figs. 3 and 4.) The gate or door-opening may be either right-hand or left-hand, as best suited to planning, structural, or other conditions. The clear inside dimensions of the necessary hatchway are given, and also the clearances required between this and the car. Some of the minimum dimensions given with Fig. 7 and in Table D vary slightly from those given with Figs. 3 and 4, page 1586, but agree in the essential requirements.

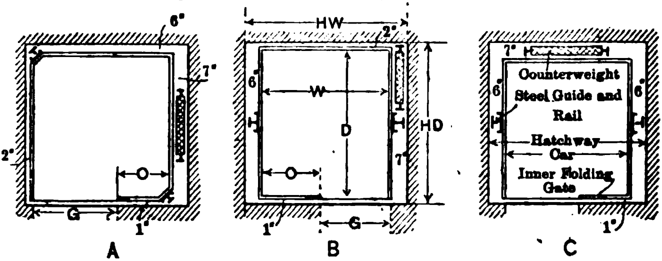


Fig. 7. Typical Layouts for Elevator-hatchways and Car-platforms

Table D. Sizes of Elevator-Car Platforms and Hatchways

Dimensions	Area of car-platform					
	25 sq ft		30 sq ft		40 sq ft	
	ft	in	ft	in	ft	in
W = inside width of car	6	0	6	3	7	0
D = inside depth of car	4	3	4	9	5	9
O = space for operator	2	3	2	3	2	3
G = gate-opening	3	9	4	0	4	9
HW = hatch-width, car A	7	0	7	3	8	0
car B	7	4	7	7	8	4
car C	7	3	7	6	8	3
HD = hatch-depth, car A	5	1	5	7	6	7
car B	4	9	5	3	6	3
car C	5	2	5	8	6	8

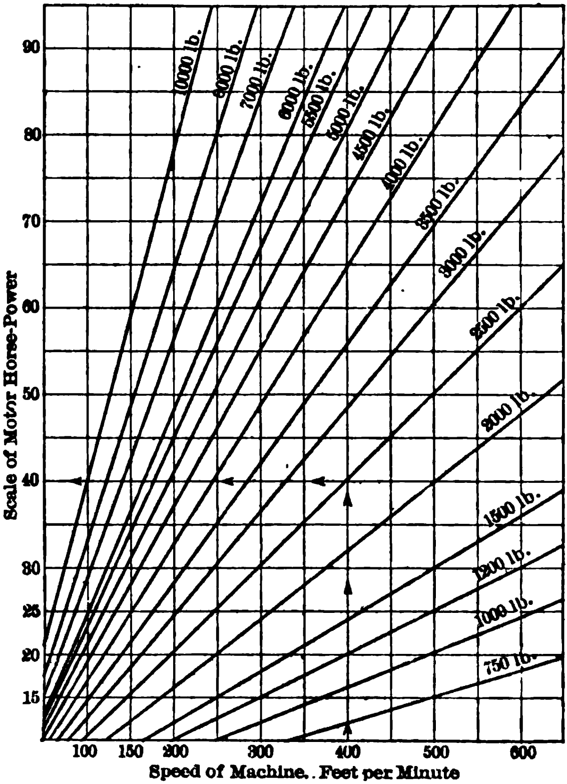


Fig. 8. Motor-sizes for Electric Elevators

Size of Motor. It is often helpful to be informed as to the SIZE OF MOTOR required for an installation, and the diagram (Fig. 8) may be used for this purpose. For sake of illustration in the use of the diagram, a speed of 400 ft per min is assumed, with a combined load of 2 500 lb. Following the line marked with an arrow from the speed of 400 ft, the point of intersection is then at 2 500 lb. From this point follow the line as indicated to the scale of motor-sizes, and the result is about 40 horse-power.

Table E. Current-Consumption

Motor-size	Starting-current	Running-current
20 horse-power	102 amperes	74 amperes
40 horse-power	202 amperes	147 amperes
60 horse-power	292 amperes	213 amperes

Current-Consumption. Table E gives the CURRENT-CONSUMPTION of motor-sizes common in elevator-practice. The figures are for direct-current motors operating at 230 volts and are based on the results of tests.

Electric Feeders. To aid in the selection of well-proportioned ELECTRIC FEEDERS for elevator-motors, Table F is given. The figures are for 230-volt, direct-current machines.

Table F. Wire and Conduit-Sizes for Electric Elevators, 2-Wire, 230-Volt, Direct-Current Systems

Motor-h.p.	Wire		Maximum run or distance for 2% drop, ft	Conduit		
	Size of each wire	Underwriters' carrying capacity, amperes		Trade size for 2 wires	Inside diameter, in	Outside diameter, in
15	No. 3	80	154	1¼	1.38	1.66
20	No. 1	100	174	1½	1.61	1.90
25	No. 0	125	186	1½	1.61	1.90
30	No. 00	150	198	2	2.06	2.37
35	No. 000	175	212	2	2.06	2.37
40	No. 0000	225	226	2	2.06	2.37
45	No. 0000	225	226	2	2.06	2.37
50	300 000 c.m.*	275	248	2½	2.46	2.87
55	300 000 c.m.*	275	248	2½	2.46	2.87
60	400 000 c.m.*	325	272	3	3.06	3.50

* Circular mils.

MAIL-CHUTES

General Description. This system of mailing letters by means of a specially constructed chute connected with the receiving-box at the bottom, has come into such general use in public buildings, office-buildings, apartment-houses and hotels, that the restrictions affecting the same and what is required in the way of preparation should be known to architects. The system is installed by the patentees, under regulations of the Post-Office Department governing its construction and location, and for this reason it is well to consult the makers* before permanently locating the apparatus on the plans. It may be placed in any building of more than one story, used by the public, where there is a free delivery and collection-service, in the discretion of the local postmaster, subject to whose approval the contracts are made.

The Chute and Receiving-Box. The chute is required to be made with a removable front and a continuous, rigid, vertical support is absolutely necessary. It must be of metal, its front must be of plate glass, and it must bear the insignia prescribed by the department; and the whole apparatus, when erected and the Government lock put on the box, passes under the exclusive care and control of the Post-Office Department, and the chutes become a part of the receiving-boxes. These boxes may be of various patterns and highly ornamented and are furnished by the makers in connection with the chutes. The work of preparing a rigid support for the chute and cutting and finishing the openings in the floors is of the utmost importance, and details showing the usual arrangements are always given.

Preparatory Work. The requirements for what the manufacturers call PREPARATORY WORK include a flat, vertical, continuous surface not less than 10½ in wide, extending from the floor of the ground-story to a point 4 ft 6 in above the finished floor in the top story, and an opening in each floor directly in front of and centered upon this surface. These openings are neatly finished, and their size and shape determined by setting in them thimbles of iron which

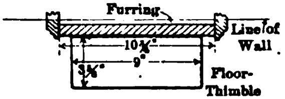


Fig. 1. Wooden Support for Mail-chute

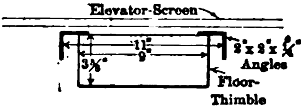


Fig. 2. Steel Support for Mail-chute

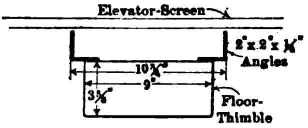


Fig. 3. Alternate Steel Support for Mail-chute

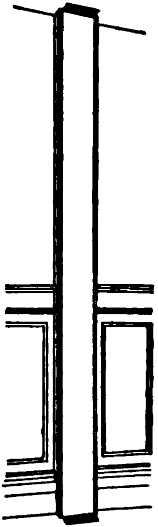


Fig. 4. Preparatory Work Complete for Mail-chute

are furnished and delivered by the patentees, as part of their contract. In ordinary installations a casing of wood, suitably molded and finished to match the trim of the building, answers every purpose. Such a casing is shown in plan, Fig. 1, with the opening finished by the iron thimble. In buildings, or sometimes in a few stories, where a more elaborate finish is desired, marble is substituted for wood, the form and construction of the casing being adapted to the material, but of course without disturbing the size and form of the front surface. Steel angles are used where the use of wood is objected to, or where it is necessary to run the chute in front of an elevator-screen, or in other locations where a solid wall is not available to support the casing. Steel square-root angles, 2 by 2 by ¼ in in section, are generally used, and set as in Fig. 2, but sometimes, where it is desirable to fill up the space between them and the elevator-screen, they are reversed, as in Fig. 3. The angles are usually bolted to the beams, and in any case must be straightened so that they are without twists or kinks, and the surface which receives the mail-chute plumb and flush in all stories. Fig. 4 gives a general view of the mail-chute casings and floor-openings ready to receive the chutes themselves. This work of preparing the building, except the cutting or leaving ready the necessary openings in the floors, is now usually included in the mail-chute contract, as it has been found for many reasons undesirable to separate it. The necessary openings in floors, and all patching around such openings, should be included in the mason's or other proper specifications.

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* The Cutler Mail Chute Company, Rochester, N. Y.

Essential Points to be remembered are (1) that no bends or offsets can be made, a vertical fall being absolutely essential, and (2) that the entire apparatus must be exposed to view and must be accessible, that is, it is not permitted to extend the work behind an elevator-screen or partition or through any part of the building except a public corridor.

REFRIGERATORS *

General Requirements. The following information is given as a guide to architects in providing for refrigerators in large residences, hotels, clubs, hospitals and other institutions. Consultation with a reliable refrigerator-builder, however, is always desirable before deciding upon spaces to be occupied by refrigerators, refrigerating-rooms, etc., as a satisfactory refrigerator cannot be adapted to a badly proportioned space. (See, also, Design of Refrigerators, under Mechanical Refrigeration, page 1611.)

Residence-Refrigerators. Care should be taken to select a refrigerator which is simple in operation and easily cleansed, as modern sanitary science has traced much illness to faulty refrigeration. Thorough insulation is an important feature in a refrigerator, as upon this depends economy in the use of ice and the securing and maintaining of the low temperature necessary to the proper preservation of food. Fig. 1 shows a kitchen-refrigerator for use of families of ordinary size. The ice-compartment is located in the middle division. The depth should not be more than 3 ft nor less than 2 ft, and the height may vary from 4 ft 6 in to 7 ft. The length of the front largely determines the capacity and should range from about 4 to 7 ft. Fig. 1 shows, also, a most satisfactory method of accomplishing the outside-icing feature which consists of a double outside icing-door complete, with frame and jamb. This is provided by the refrigerator-builder to fit the rough opening furnished by the owner in the outside wall of the building. With this method a minimum outside opening is required to furnish a maximum inside opening for ice. The DRAIN-PIPES should be as short and straight as possible and should be readily detachable for cleansing purposes. The drain should be properly trapped in the floor of the refrigerator and carried through the floor of the building, discharging over the plumber's open connection as shown in the elevation of Fig. 1.

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* Valuable data and the drawings relating to this subject were furnished the author and editor by The Jewett Refrigerator Company, Buffalo, N. Y. Practical data were furnished, also, by The Brunswick-Balke-Collender Company, New York City. There are numerous other reliable firms whose refrigerator-work has the highest reputation.

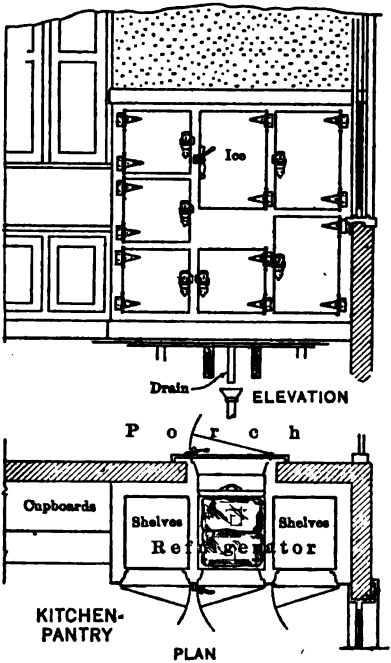

Fig. 1.* Kitchen-refrigerator for Small Family

Fig. 2 shows a refrigerator for use in a butler's pantry where economy of space is important. The ice-compartment is of galvanized steel throughout and is removable for convenience in filling as it slides on roller-bearing runways. When the ice-compartment is replaced in position the outside door closes over it. The adjoining storage-compartment is generally fitted with one removable shelf, below which is a bottle-rack for horizontally placed bottles and a space for standing bottles. The depth should be about 2 ft and the height 2 ft 8 in, under counter-top. The length of the front determines the capacity, but it should never be less than 3 ft. For a double refrigerator with a central ice-compartment and storage-compartments at either side, 5 ft is a convenient length. The exterior finish and hardware should correspond with the adjacent trim. The most sanitary and attractive interior finish for storage-compartments consists of white plate glass for the walls and ceilings and tile for the flooring. The usual complement of refrigerators for use in ordinary families consists of one adjacent to the kitchen and one in the butler's pantry. For large families the number could be the same with the capacity greater.

Refrigerators for Hotels, Clubs, Etc. MECHANICAL REFRIGERATION has largely superseded ICE as a cooling-agent where the refrigerator-equipment consists of several units, as in hotels, clubs and institutions. (See, also, Mechanical Refrigeration, page 1611.) The arrangement of refrigerators is similar to that employed where ice is used, as the refrigerating-coils are often contained in compartments corresponding to ice-compartments; the alternative method is to place the coils against walls of storage-compartments. Refrigerating-coils are generally of 1¼-in pipe, the length of coil depending upon the temperature required. Fig. 3 shows a practical layout for the working-department of a good-sized club, and illustrates the proper complement of mechanically cooled refrigerators, together with adjacent operating-equipment. No. 1, a store-room refrigerator, has the front arranged in one full-height door and is fitted with three tiers of shelves throughout. No. 2, a meat-refrigerator, is also accessible through a full-height door and is fitted with shelves and meat-racks. No, 3, a broiler and fish-refrigerator, has the front arranged in two doors, each door opening onto a series of six galvanized sheet-steel pans sliding on self-sustaining roller-bearing runways. No. 4, a serving-pantry refrigerator, is subdivided by an insulated partition into three separate and distinct compartments, those at the left and right being each accessible through two doors, while the middle compartment is accessible through one door, below which is a series of four drawers sliding on self-sustaining roller-bearing runways. The doors open onto removable shelves throughout. No. 5, an ice-cream refrigerator, occupies a position in the serving-pantry counter and has the top arranged in one lift-off cover. Its interior fittings consist of three 20-quart porcelain-lined ice-cream jars and one glacé-frame for fancy forms of ice-cream. No. 6, a pastry-refrigerator, has the front arranged in four doors, two upper doors opening onto removable shelving, and two lower doors onto pastry-pans sliding on angle-iron runways. No. 7, a bar-refrigerator, is subdivided by an insulated partition into two separate and distinct compartments, each accessible through four doors. The upper doors open onto three tiers of removable shelves for standing bottles, while the lower doors open onto five tiers of racks arranged specially for horizontal bottles. The equipment described above will also satisfactorily cover the requirements of a moderate-sized hotel.

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* The Jewett Refrigerator Company.

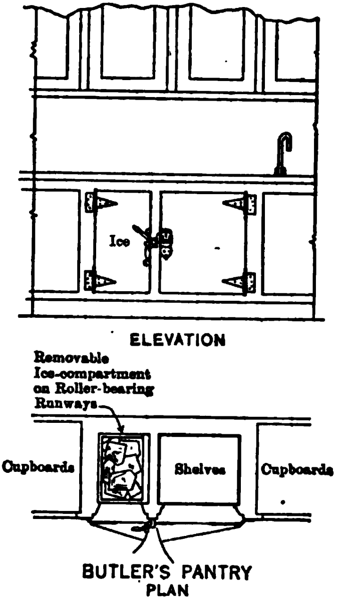

Fig. 2.* Refrigerator for Butler's Pantry

Refrigerators for Hospitals. The usual complement of refrigerators for small hospitals consists of one large storage-refrigerator, one refrigerator for the chef's use in or near the kitchen, one for milk and butter and one iron-lined chest for broken ice. For large hospitals the same number with increased capacity and with the addition of small diet-kitchen refrigerators, and possibly a mortuary-refrigerator for two or three bodies, will meet the requirements.

The Height of Large Refrigerators for hotels, clubs and institutions, to be entered through full-height doors, should be from 10 to 12 ft, if equipped with overhead ice or coil-compartments; with side ice-compartments or coils placed against walls, the height should be 7 ft 6 in or 8 ft. The smaller refrigerators,

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* The Jewett Refrigerator Company

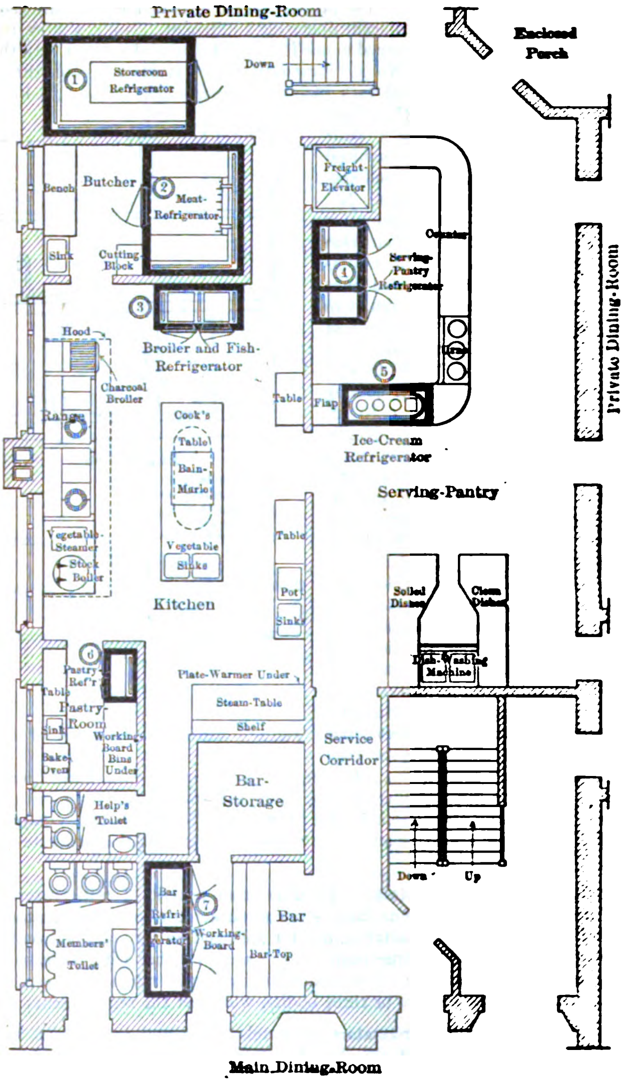

Fig. 3.* Plan of Refrigerators for Large Club-house

* The Jewett Refrigerator Company.

accessible through half-height doors, hinged covers, drawers, etc., should be placed on a 3-in sanitary cement platform finished with cove to floor of building. These refrigerators should not be higher than 6 ft 6 in unless provided with overhead ice or coil-compartments, in which case the height should be from 8 to 9 ft.

Insulation. (See, also, The Value of Good Insulation, page 1610.) Refrigerators in modern hotels, clubs, institutions, etc., are insulated with Government-standard corkboard, the large refrigerators being constructed of 4-in cork throughout, in two courses of 2 in thickness, and with all joints broken. Cork is applied to adjacent walls of a building with Portland cement, ½ in thick, and this cement is used, also, in applying the inner course of cork to the outer course in walls, partitions and ceilings. All cork in the flooring is asphalted water-tight. Interior finish may be of Portland cement throughout or of galvanized sheets on walls and ceilings and of Portland cement on floors. Or the walls and ceilings may be of fused-on porcelain or white plate glass, and the floors of tile, all depending upon the grade and character of the building to be equipped. The insulation of smaller refrigerators consists of (1) an exterior course of ⅞-in tongued and grooved lumber, (2) two courses of water-proof insulating-paper and (3) a 3-in thickness of sheet cork in two 1½-in courses, all joints being broken. To this insulation is applied the interior lining.

Mortuary-Refrigerators. Mortuary-refrigerators should be cooled by mechanical refrigeration, the coils being placed longitudinally on both sides of the mortuary-trays. Fig. 4 illustrates a mortuary-refrigerator for three bodies. This may be used as a unit in designing mortuary-refrigerators of larger capacity, or the height may be reduced to 5 ft and the bodies placed in two instead of three horizontal tiers. Mortuary-refrigerators sometimes have both fronts finished and equipped with doors so that bodies are accessible for identification or examination from both fronts.

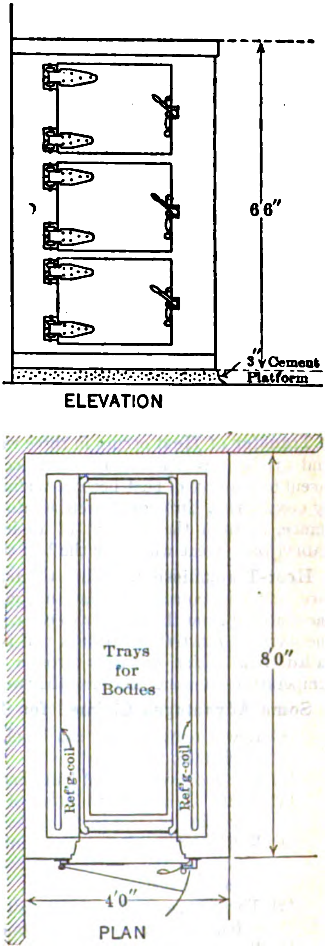

Fig. 4.* Mortuary-refrigerator

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* The Jewett Refrigerator Company.

MECHANICAL REFRIGERATION *

A Brief Description of Methods in Common Use for Producing and Applying Refrigeration, with Special Reference to Small Plants

A British Thermal Unit, (Btu), is the quantity of heat required to raise the temperature of 1 lb of water 1° F. Heat used in this way, that is, to raise the temperature of water or other substance, is said to be present in that substance as SENSIBLE HEAT, or, in other words, heat, the presence of which we can feel, or sense.

The Heat of Liquefaction, or so-called LATENT HEAT OF LIQUEFACTION of a mass of ice, is the amount of heat it will absorb in melting. One pound of ice at 32° F. will absorb 144 Btu in melting to water at 32° F. Heat coming into a cake of ice is thus absorbed in melting the ice and becomes what is known as LATENT HEAT, or heat absorbed without any rise in temperature. If the ice is at a lower temperature than 32° F., or if the water resulting from the melting rises above 32° F., additional heat will be absorbed as SENSIBLE HEAT.

The Specific Heat of a substance is the ratio of the quantity of heat required to raise the temperature of a certain weight of the substance one degree to that required to raise the same weight of water from 62° to 63° F.

The Heat of Vaporization of water or of any other liquid is the amount of heat it will absorb in vaporizing, in evaporating from a liquid to a gas, or will give out in returning from the gaseous to the liquid state.

Transfer of Heat occurs in three ways: (1) by convection, (2) by radiation and (3) by conduction. For instance, if particles of air in a refrigerator adjacent to a source of heat become warmed they circulate and distribute the heat by CONVECTION through the refrigerator-box. Heat will pass from a warm substance, as from the filament of an incandescent lamp, out into the box by RADIATION. Heat will enter the box through the walls by CONDUCTION.

Heat-Transmission. When the temperatures on opposite sides of any surface, as for instance, a wall, are unequal, heat will pass by conduction through the material from the warmer to the cooler side. The rate of this movement is the RATE OF HEAT-TRANSMISSION and is stated in terms of the quantity of heat called (Btu) which will pass through 1 sq ft of surface in 24 hours, per degree temperature-difference between the two sides of the wall.

Some Advantages Claimed for Mechanical Refrigeration.

(1) Lower temperatures can be obtained with refrigerating-machines than with ice.
(2) The inconvenience of handling ice is avoided.
(3) There is no accumulation of slime in the refrigerators as from the melting of even the best ice.
(4) Refrigerators cooled mechanically are dryer than ice-cooled boxes because the moisture is frozen out of the air and deposited on the cooling surfaces.
(5) There is generally a better air-circulation, resulting in a more uniform temperature and dryer atmosphere throughout the compartment.
(6) With proper design of refrigerator and refrigerating-machine any desired temperature can be obtained.
(7) Refrigeration produced mechanically is often cheaper than refrigeration produced by melting ice. (See page 1615.)

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* Compiled and adapted, by permission, from data included in a paper by R. F. Massa. '10, Refrigerators, pages 1599 to 1603.

Operation of Refrigerating-Machines. In almost all methods of producing cold, advantage is taken of the fact that when a liquid evaporates it usually cools both itself and its surroundings, and changes into a gas or vapor. There are several liquids which are easily made to evaporate and produce this cooling effect, and were it not for their cost, refrigeration could be very simply produced by supplying a steady stream of the liquid and allowing the vapor or gas evaporated to escape into the atmosphere. A refrigerating-machine is practically an apparatus for saving this gas which has evaporated and returning it to its liquid form to be used over again. In this process of recovery and condensation the gas gives out the heat which it has previously absorbed in evaporating. This heat is carried away by flowing water, which, in absorbing the heat, rises in temperature.

Types of Refrigerating-Machines. In the (1) COMPRESSION-TYPE of refrigerating-machines the recovery of the gas is effected by drawing it away from the point where it has been evaporated and pumping it under increased pressure into a chamber where it gives out its heat to the water-cooled walls of the chamber and returns to the liquid state ready to be used over again. In the (2) ABSORPTION-TYPE of refrigerating-machines ammonia is generally used and the recovery of the gas is effected by bringing it into contact with water with which it unites chemically. The solution thus formed is pumped into another chamber, and heat is applied to drive off the ammonia-gas which is then condensed under high pressure. It is now ready to be reevaporated and reproduce its cooling effect. In all cases of large units, and in all cases of either large or small units where exhaust-steam is available in sufficient quantities, absorption refrigerating-machines are very economical.

Liquids Used in Refrigerating-Machines. A number of liquids have been used in refrigerating-machines, the ones commonly employed being (1) AMMONIA, (2) CARBON DIOXIDE and (3) SULPHUR DIOXIDE. Various practical considerations determine which is to be used in any particular design of machine. With (1) AMMONIA the advantage is the lower working pressures, from 15 to 300 lb per sq in, which are easy to deal with. An advantage over carbon dioxide is that leaks are very easily located. Ammonia-fumes, however, are offensive and sometimes dangerous in case of a break. With (2) CARBON DIOXIDE the advantage is in its inoffensive odor. Its disadvantages are the high pressure at which it works, from 300 to 1 200 lb per sq in, the relative difficulty of holding these pressures and of finding small leaks, owing to its slight odor and chemical inactivity. With (3) SULPHUR DIOXIDE the advantage is its comparatively low working pressure, which is not above 75 lb per sq in. Its great disadvantage is that with moisture it forms an acid which rapidly corrodes the apparatus. At one time this disadvantage was fatal, since with the old-type machines, air and moisture were constantly being drawn into the system more or less rapidly and mixed with the sulphur dioxide. This difficulty has recently been overcome in some modern types of machines * in which the refrigerant is hermetically sealed in the machine and chemical action, therefore, prevented.

Rating of Refrigerating-Machines. A 1-TON REFRIGERATING-MACHINE is a machine which, if operated for 24 hours, will absorb the amount of heat which 1 ton of ice would absorb in melting. If the machine is operated a shorter time per day, a less amount of heat will of course be absorbed, and in order to maintain the temperature during the period when the machine is not running, some means must be adopted for storing cold. (See paragraph below.) Refrigerating-machines are sometimes rated in terms of ICE-MAKING CAPACITY, that is, in terms of the amount of ice the machine will make in 24 hours. This is always less than the refrigerating capacity because some refrigerating effect is required to cool the water down to 32° F. before the freezing can begin, and the ice is usually cooled several degrees below 32° F., which requires a still greater capacity. There is also some flow of heat into the apparatus. These elements vary considerably so that from some points of view ICE-MAKING CAPACITY might be considered an unsatisfactory method of rating some refrigerating-machines.

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* The Audiffren Refrigerating-Machine, a small machine intended for domestic uses and sold by the H. W. Johns-Manville Company, New York. There are many other reliable firms making refrigerating-machines of other distinct types, and the architect should look carefully into the merits and claims of each when called upon to specify them.

Applying the Cold. According to one classification there are three common systems of applying the cold. These are, (1) the DIRECT-EXPANSION SYSTEM, (2) the BRINE-SYSTEM and (3) the COLD-AIR SYSTEM.

(1) In the DIRECT-EXPANSION SYSTEM the refrigerant is evaporated in coils of pipe placed directly in the room to be cooled.

(2) In the BRINE-SYSTEM the refrigerant is used to cool brine, which is then circulated through coils of pipe in the room to be cooled.

(3) In the COLD-AIR SYSTEM a current of air is chilled by passing it over coils of pipe cooled directly by the evaporating refrigerant, or by brine, or by passing it through a spray of cold brine; and this chilled air is then passed into the room and circulated back to the cooling-coils, the whole operation being repeated indefinitely.

All of these systems have their advantages and disadvantages. While the brine-system is a little more expensive to operate in large plants, the temperature is more easily controlled than with the direct-expansion system, and in practice in small plants it is found as economical in operation in spite of its theoretical disadvantage. Furthermore, in case of any breakdown in the machine, the temperature can be held for a time by circulating the brine until it becomes too warm to be of use, whereas with direct expansion the temperature will begin to rise immediately upon the stopping of the machine. The cold-air system is not as applicable where any drying of the goods stored would be harmful and there is some risk of carrying fire in the air-passages. It is much used, nevertheless, for such service as chocolate-dipping rooms, ice-cream hardening, fur-storages, etc.

Storage of Cold. When temperatures are to be maintained while the refrigerating-machine is shut down, COLD must be STORED. In the brine-system this is effected by cooling a comparatively large body of brine which warms slowly as it is circulated. Where the brine-circulating pump as well as the machine must be stopped, so-called PRESSURE-TANKS may be placed in the piping-system in the room being cooled; the mass of brine in these tanks absorbs the heat and helps to maintain an approximately even temperature. Where the direct-expansion system is used, a part of the cooling-coils may be immersed in a tank of brine placed in the room and the remainder of the coils arranged for the direct cooling of the room. In some places the spaces available will not permit the use of brine-storage tanks. In cases of this kind smaller tanks may be used and filled with water, or a weak brine which will freeze at a temperature a little below 32° F. Since 1 lb of ice in melting will absorb 144 Btu and 1 lb of brine rising in temperature, say 20°, will absorb only from 14 to 16 Btu, the saving of space is apparent. It must be absolutely certain that the refrigerant reaches the tank first at the bottom and that the air to be cooled reaches it first at the top so that the ice in forming shall not bulge or burst the tank. If the congealing mass were to freeze from the top down the tank would be strained and finally leak, because of the expansion of the ice in freezing. Another fact to be considered is that where water, only, is frozen, a resulting high temperature may be obtained in the refrigerator, since the brine must be warmer than the ice in order to melt it, and the refrigerator just that much warmer, or warmer than an ice-cooled box. In calculating the proper sizes of tanks for storing brine, it should be remembered that, usually, the period during which the machine is shut down coincides with the period during which the demand for refrigeration in the box is the least. The amount of heat to be absorbed is usually only that entering through the insulation, as the doors are shut and no food is put in or removed.

Description of Refrigerating-Machines. As explained in the preceding paragraphs refrigerating-machines may be divided generally into two classes, (1) the COMPRESSION-TYPE and (2) the ABSORPTION-TYPE.

(1) **The Compression-Type of Refrigerating-Machines** may be subdivided as follows:

(*a*) The open type of machine, which is made both vertical and horizontal, and both single and double-acting, that is, compressing the gas at one end or at both ends of the cylinder. (*b*) The partially enclosed type of machine, in which all the moving parts of the compressor proper are enclosed within the frame of the compressor, except the fly-wheel and the main shaft which enters the frame of the machine through a stuffing-box. Such valves, also, as are required in the system are exposed. (*c*) The wholly enclosed type of machine,[*] in which all of the working parts are enclosed in a hermetically sealed container.

(*a*) One advantage of the open type of machine is that any lack of adjustment due to wear can be readily corrected; so that, with proper attention, it gives excellent results. For large installations this is considered by many to be a most efficient type of machine.

(*b*) The enclosed type of machine resulted from the effort to reduce the amount of attention required by the open machine, to cheapen its construction and to reduce the possibility of trouble from inexpert tampering. An objection to machines of this type is that when adjustments have to be made the working parts are relatively inaccessible.

(*c*) With the wholly enclosed type of machine it is claimed that the loss of the refrigerant is prevented by the hermetical sealing of the apparatus, and that the working parts, being completely enclosed, are protected from deterioration due to outside causes or tampering.

(2) **The Absorption-Type of Refrigerating-Machines** are of two kinds, differing principally in the proportioning of the parts. In the one machine high-pressure steam is used; in the other the proportions are such that low-pressure or exhaust-steam may be used. Where exhaust-steam is available machines of this type are found to be very economical, and this is true, also, for all large units whether or not exhaust-steam is used. Full descriptions of these machines with detailed plans and layouts may be obtained from the various manufacturers.

Calculations for the Capacity of a Refrigerating-Machine. Heat enters the refrigerated compartments, (1) through the walls, (2) with warm goods, (3) by the interchange of the outside air when doors are opened and by air-leaks, since the cooled air is the heavier and immediately flows out when a door is opened, (4) from lights or from the heat of the bodies of workers, and (5) from any change of state occurring in the goods, such as freezing, fermenting, etc. In large rooms these various sources of heat should be analyzed separately. In small refrigerators, as in hotels, kitchens, dwellings, etc., a rough rule, quite as accurate as a more elaborate analysis, allows a certain number of Btu per cubic foot of refrigerated space per 24 hours. This amount varies

[*] Referred to on page 1605.

with the character and location of the box, the nature of its insulation, the temperatures desired and so on. It will be seen that the insulation, while of great importance, is not by any means the only important factor in this class of boxes. For domestic refrigerators in which a temperature of from 35 to 50° F. is maintained, 300 Btu per cu ft of refrigerator per 24 hours should be allowed. For boxes in hotel or restaurant-kitchens, 600 Btu, or even 900 Btu in extreme cases and where low temperatures are required, should be allowed. For butchers' coolers or large storage-boxes in hotels, etc., from 200 to 250 Btu per cu ft per 24 hours should be allowed. A check on the above figures for the large type of box is the following:[*] "When the exact conditions under which cold-storage rooms are to be operated are known, namely, the size and shape of the rooms, the quality of the insulation, the kind and quantity of goods to be handled per day and the temperatures at which they are received and at which they are to be held, the amount of refrigeration required can be estimated very closely by the following rule: (1) Calculate the exact area of exposed surface in the walls, floor and ceiling of the room in square feet, multiply the total number of square feet by the number given in the table for the required temperature and divide the product by 288 000. (2) Multiply the amount of goods, in pounds, to be stored per day by the number of degrees of heat to be extracted by the specific heat of the goods, and divide by 288 000. This will give the amount of refrigeration, in tons per day, necessary to maintain the temperature required for the goods. (3) Add these two amounts together. The total will be the amount of refrigeration, in tons per day, required to maintain the temperature required for the goods and for the room. (4) If the goods are to be frozen, the latent heat of freezing should be added to the number of Btu to be extracted."

For rooms containing less than 1 000 cu ft	
If maintained at 0° F. multiply the exposed surface by	1 775
If maintained at 5° F. multiply the exposed surface by	710
If maintained at 10° F. multiply the exposed surface by	535
If maintained at 20° F. multiply the exposed surface by	355
If maintained at 32° F. multiply the exposed surface by	265
If maintained at 36° F. multiply the exposed surface by	180
For rooms containing from 1 000 to 10 000 cu ft	
If maintained at 0° F. multiply the exposed surface by	1 250
If maintained at 5° F. multiply the exposed surface by	600
If maintained at 10° F. multiply the exposed surface by	300
If maintained at 20° F. multiply the exposed surface by	190
If maintained at 32° F. multiply the exposed surface by	160
If maintained at 36° F. multiply the exposed surface by	125
For rooms containing more than 10 000 cu ft	
If maintained at 0° F. multiply the exposed surface by	1 100
If maintained at 5° F. multiply the exposed surface by	550
If maintained at 10° F. multiply the exposed surface by	275
If maintained at 20° F. multiply the exposed surface by	180
If maintained at 32° F. multiply the exposed surface by	140
If maintained at 36° F. multiply the exposed surface by	110

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[*] Taken from Levey's Refrigeration Memoranda, page 41.

With small machines it is necessary to allow a greater capacity of machine for a given size of box than with large machines, since, with the latter, one can always throw a large part of the machine-capacity to any given box where special need may exist; whereas to do this with the small machine would almost certainly rob some other box, if indeed there happened to be another box. It is never possible to determine with mathematical certainty exactly how much refrigeration is required for a given case. It is best to allow for this fact and to be sure the machine is amply large. Where an existing ice-cooled box is to be cooled mechanically one check upon the size of the machine required is the amount of ice used. This check is more apt than any other, however, to lead to erroneous conclusions unless the figures are properly analyzed.

Another Method of Determining the Capacity of a Refrigerating-Machine. The following is a method that gives good results, except that allowance may be made in the larger boxes and where brine-storage tanks are provided in the box for the steadying effect of the mass of cold brine:

(1) The ice-consumption for the hottest month of the year should be determined. This will give the average ice-consumption for that month.

(2) The average temperature that is maintained in the box with ice should then be accurately determined. This will usually be from 55 to 65° F. It will commonly be stated to be anywhere from 40 to 45° F., but these temperatures are seldom obtained. Even if they are, with a full ice-chamber and the box closed for long periods the average will be above these figures. Unless, therefore, there is positive assurance to the contrary, from 55 to 60° F. should be considered the average temperatures.

(3) A calculation should then be made of the heat-inflow through the insulation, with a temperature of 55° F. in the box and with the average summer temperature outside. The difference between the heat-inflow through the insulation and the total heat actually absorbed by the melting of the ice is the amount entering the box from other sources than through the insulation. This access of heat ordinarily occurs during the hours of daytime only, that is, when the box is being opened, since at night the box will remain closed. A machine of sufficient capacity to produce the temperature actually obtained with ice must, therefore, be of larger rated capacity than that indicated by the actual ice-consumption; and how much larger it should be can be determined by this method.

(4) A further fact which it is claimed should be taken into account in determining the proper size of a machine is that temperatures obtainable with ice are often unsatisfactory. If they were always satisfactory one reason for putting in cooling-machinery would be done away with. Where 55° F. is obtained with ice, from 35 to 45° F. will be required with mechanical cooling and the machine-size must be further increased in the ratio of the temperature-differences between average summer temperatures and 35° F., and average summer temperatures and 55° F.

(5) The cooling-machine if installed in accordance with these figures would handle average-weather conditions but would not be adequate for extreme hot-weather conditions, the most important conditions to be met by cooling-machinery. It is necessary, therefore, to further increase the size of the machine in the ratio of the difference in temperature between maximum summer temperature and 35° F., and average summer temperature and 35° F.

(6) A further allowance should be considered, namely, the fact that in many cases, for one reason or another, it is not possible, or else not desirable, to operate the machine except during certain periods of the day, and the machine-size must be increased as much as may be required to take care of these conditions.

(7) If the machine is not placed directly at the box to be cooled, allowance must be made for the heat-inflow into the insulated brine-mains. The amount of heat entering from this source is often of considerable importance, particularly with small machines. The table below gives heat transmissions for cork pipe-covering and some other materials.

Water and Milk-Cooling. Mechanical refrigeration as applied to cooling water and milk differs in one respect from other classes of refrigerating-work. A relatively intense quantity of cooling effect is called for in a brief interval of time. For instance, in a drinking-water system the heaviest requirements may come at the noon-hour. In a bakery, also, the demand for chilled water will be intermittent, a large quantity of water being required for the dough-mixing. In dairy-work the milk must be cooled very rapidly to check the development of bacteria which grow with incredible rapidity within the temperature-range of from 110 to 50° F. To install a large enough refrigerating-machine to produce the required cooling effect as it is needed would in most cases call for a very large machine. This is overcome by using a smaller machine and allowing it to operate for a longer time, say throughout the day, storing the refrigerating effect produced by cooling a large body of brine, or melting the ice as rapidly as may be required. For instance, if 50 cans of milk, of 40 qts each, are to be cooled from a temperature of from, say, 75 to 35° F., in 1 hour, the refrigeration required will be 50 cans times 40 qts times 2 lb per qt times (75° F. − 35° F.), which equals 320 000 Btu. Milk is treated in the calculation as having the same specific heat as water, since water forms so large a percentage of its total weight. This amount of refrigeration produced by a machine running 12 hours per day would require the machine to absorb 320 000 Btu divided by 12, or 26 000 Btu per hour. The quantity of brine necessary to store the cooling effect may be calculated closely enough for practical purposes by using the following approximate figures. The specific heat of brine is 0.75. The weight of the brine is 9 lb per gallon. The permissible temperature-range of the brine depends upon the conditions and may be from, say, 30 to 15° F., or lower. In other words, the temperature to which the brine can be permitted to rise is limited to the temperature it must produce in the room or in the substance being cooled, and the temperature to which the brine can be cooled in storing cold is limited by the decrease in economy of the refrigerating-machine at the low temperatures.

The Value of Good Insulation. (See, also, Insulation, page 1603.) The importance of good insulation cannot be too strongly emphasized. A cold-storage room or refrigerator and its contents may be cooled by ice or mechanical means, but unless the walls are adequately insulated, the demand caused by the inflow of heat through the poor insulation may be more than the ice-supply or refrigerating-machine can meet to maintain the required temperature. The almost universal standard of insulation for cold-storage rooms is a 4-in thickness of pure-cork sheet. The following table shows the heat transmitted through 1 in in thickness of each of the substances, per square foot of exposed surface per degree difference in temperature per 24 hours.

Pure-cork sheets	6.4 Btu
Hair-felt	7.3 Btu
Impregnated cork boards	8.5 Btu
Rock-wool blocks	8.0 Btu
Waterproofing lith-blocks	8.5 Btu
Spruce, clear and dry	16.0 Btu
White oak	26.0 Btu

Design of Refrigerators. Disposition of Cooling-Surfaces. (See, also, subject of Refrigerators, page 1599.) No attempt need be made to describe all of the many arrangements of refrigerated compartments that are to be found in service. The intention is to point out some of the more important things to be considered in determining upon the design of a box. It is desirable in a refrigerator to produce not only a low temperature, but a relatively dry atmosphere.

Cooling-Surface and Temperature. Securing the low temperature is merely a question of supplying sufficient cooling-surface to produce the desired results with the temperature available in the refrigerant. The amount of surface required is influenced by the arrangement of the box, that is, whether or not the air passes freely or sluggishly over the surface, whether the cooling-surface is placed on the ceiling or walls of the compartment or in a loft and, if the latter arrangement is used, whether or not the air-passages are of proper size and the circulation between the loft and the compartment sufficient.

Dryness of Atmosphere and Temperature. To secure a box of satisfactory dryness it is necessary to have a relatively low temperature in the refrigerant. The air which passes over the cooling-surfaces is practically in a saturated condition when it leaves them. If it is to be dry at the temperature required in the box, it must have been, necessarily, cooled well below the box-temperature. For instance, in a box, the temperature of which is maintained at 35° F., the brine should be run at a temperature of from about 20° to 25° F. It is further desirable to so locate the cooling-surface that frost in melting will pass out of the box quickly and not remain to be reabsorbed by the air in the box.

Arrangements of Cooling-Surfaces. There are several common arrangements of cooling-surfaces in refrigerators. Sometimes the coils are arranged overhead, but directly in the compartment to be cooled. This is one of the efficient ways in which a cooling-surface can be arranged, so far as the cooling effect alone is concerned. It is not, in general, a good arrangement, however, since frost melting from the coils drips on the goods. In another arrangement the cooling-surfaces are on the wall. This is preferable to the ceiling-arrangement, as far as the dripping is concerned. The objection to it is that goods placed close to the walls are apt to be overchilled, while goods nearer the center of the compartment are not cooled quickly enough. It also wastes floor-space, because packing goods close to the coils is not practicable on account of possible overchilling and also on account of the liability of retarding the air-circulation. The wall-arrangement for cooling-surfaces is, nevertheless, often the most practicable method. Another method involves a modified form of wall-coil arrangement in which a brine-storage tank is used to assist in maintaining the temperature when the machine is shut down. A further modification is often introduced, in which a partition or baffle-plate is used in front of the coils. The best types of box-arrangement are those in which the cooling-surface is separated from the storage-space and is so arranged as to secure an active circulation of the air over the coils and through the compartments. In all of these plans the one requirement calling for the greatest care is that the air-passages shall be as direct as possible and of ample size. The force causing the air to circulate, namely, the difference in weight due to differences in temperature and density between the column of air in the coil-compartment and that in the storage-compartment, is so extremely small that any slight interference is a serious matter. An extra turn in the passage or a slight reduction in the size of the passage will produce a marked effect. A good rule to follow is to make the passage as large as it can be made without allowing any drip to reach the storage-compartment. This will work out in many cases to show a ratio of

1 to 8 or 9 between the area of the passage and the floor-area of the compartment; but even 1 to 6 is just that much better if it can be secured. The matter of proportioning the size of the air-passages is of much less importance where the air is circulated by fans. Forced circulation is not usual, however, except in large storage-refrigerators, and no attempt will be made here to consider it. One precaution that must be taken in arranging the cooling-surface, especially in small and frequently opened boxes, is the avoidance of any undue cooling of walls or ceilings that are exposed to currents of warm air when the door is opened. Moisture from the incoming air deposits on these surfaces and causes the offensive so-called SWEATING of the box. This is most often seen on the storage-compartment side of uninsulated coil-compartment floors or partitions, and also occurs on walls or ceilings where the cooling-pipes are set very close to these surfaces. The obvious and effective cure is to insulate the partitions between coil-compartments and storage-compartments and keep cooling-surfaces well away from walls or ceilings, from 3 to 8 in, depending upon the temperature of the brine.

Incidental Notes on Refrigerators. **Drawers.** In restaurant-kitchens and elsewhere it is sometimes convenient to have a box fitted with a number of refrigerated drawers. The heat-leakage through the many joints, through slides which are invariably only partially closed, and through the poor insulation of the drawers, is very great. Where it is at all possible to do so, it is best to arrange an insulated door covering the entire drawer-space.

Anterooms. In storage-rooms of medium to large size the air-interchange due to opening doors is reduced to a minimum by arranging an anteroom or entry which, after it is entered, has its outer door closed before the door to the storage-room proper is opened. Where two rooms are side by side, it is often possible to reduce the interchange of air by treating the one room as an anteroom of the other, having but one door to the outside air.

Doors. Special note should be made as to the design of doors for refrigerated rooms or boxes. There is a common idea that a refrigerator-door should be beveled. As a matter of fact no more certain means of ensuring air-leakage could be devised. A perfectly fitted beveled door, hung accurately in place, could perhaps be made tight in the beginning. This door in service at once begins to sag, since a refrigerator-door is always heavy. It immediately becomes impossible to force it to a tight seat and continuous leakage of air begins. A refrigerator-compartment door is most readily made tight by having a flat surface on the door come up against a corresponding surface on the frame, with a soft gasket of some kind between them. There are several well made refrigerator-doors on the market at prices low enough to make it doubtful economy to attempt the home-made article.

Arrangement of Brine-Mains. In laying out mains to carry brine from the refrigerating-machine to the refrigerator, there are a few simple points to be cared for. For the convenience of the pipe-covering man, the flow and return lines should be placed far enough apart so that he can get his covering onto each pipe without cutting it to pieces, or else they should come close together so as to be covered together. A common difficulty experienced in brine-systems of refrigeration, where the cooling-coils in several compartments are fed from the same main, is that when the adjustment of the valve controlling the flow of brine through one coil is changed, it upsets the adjustment of the whole system. This is due to too small mains or too small a pump, or both. A similar action is observed when the opening of a faucet on a water-pipe checks the flow from other open faucets on the line. The ideal cross-section area of the brine-mains is as nearly as possible equal to the combined cross-section area of the coils which they serve at any one time. Even with this proportion, however, it is not possible to absolutely ensure that the lower coils will not rob the upper ones, or even drain them completely in some systems of piping. A most effective, even if somewhat expensive method of overcoming this difficulty, is by the addition of a third main. In this arrangement it is not possible for one coil to rob another to the point of draining it.

Calculations for the Necessary Amount of Cooling-Surfaces. No hard and fast rule can be given regarding the proper amount of cooling-surface for compartments of various sizes, since the design and arrangement of the cooling-surface and the freedom with which the air circulates over it greatly affect the amount required. As a general guide, however, and where the conditions are such as to permit a good circulation of the air, the following formula will give good results. It will be understood, of course, that the refrigeration required in the given room has been determined as previously indicated. The cooling-surface required, in square feet, per ton of refrigeration equals $4\,700/(T-t)$ in which T is the temperature desired in the compartment, and t the average temperature of the brine.

Approved Cold-Storage Temperatures

Articles stored	Degrees Fahrenheit
Beef	36 to 40
Lamb and mutton	32 to 36
Hogs	29 to 32
Veal	34 to 36
Meats, in pickle or brine	35 to 40
Butter, must be kept separate from other goods	0 to 38
Eggs	29 to 32
Cheese	32 to 34
Lard	38 to 40
Poultry, to freeze	5 to 10
Poultry, when frozen	25 to 28
Game, to freeze	5 to 10
Game, when frozen	25 to 28
Fish, retail fish-counters should be cooled with ice rather than mechanically	25 to 28
Oysters	33 to 45
Beer	33 to 42
Wines	40 to 45
Cider	30 to 40
Fruits	33 to 36
Vegetables	34 to 40
Canned goods	38 to 40
Flour and meal	40
Furs	25 to 32
Brine for ice-cream freezing	5 to 10
Ice-cream, air-hardening	5
Ice-cream, serving-temperature	14 to 16

Ice-Making. If the following facts of physics are kept in mind in considering methods of making ice the results obtainable may be understood or predicted:

(1) Chemically pure water will freeze solid and clear.

(2) Water containing impurities in solution tends in freezing to force these impurities out of solution. The slower the process of freezing the more completely is the purification effected.

(3) Ice forming in still water sends out long slender crystals which increase in number and size, forming a meshwork that gradually becomes a solid mass.

(4) Agitation of water during freezing aids in the separation of impurities and therefore in forming solid, clear ice.

(5) Practically all natural waters contain more or less organic or inorganic material in solution and invariably contain air in solution. These substances are, therefore, frozen out of solution and tend to cause the ice formed to be opaque, the lighter substances tending to rise and collect near the surface, and the heavier ones tending to sink.

(6) The rate of freezing of ice decreases as the thickness already formed increases, so that the time required to freeze increases as the square of the thickness to be frozen. In the formation of natural ice the freezing is from the top down and impurities frozen out of solution fall. This and the motion of the water, especially in quiet running streams, tends to make naturally frozen ice transparent. American manufacturers of ice have always tried to duplicate this clearness.

Methods of Ice-Making. The method first adopted in this country was the one in which DISTILLED WATER was used. From a sanitary point of view such ice would be theoretically ideal. Practical difficulties make it almost impossible to secure pure ice in this way. Some of these difficulties are:

(1) Removal of oil from the distilled water, this oil being picked up as the steam passes through the cylinder of the engine. It is difficult to remove organic oil which is present in the lubricant.

(2) Assurance that the filters are in proper shape, an assurance often impossible to obtain since this apparatus is ordinarily used the season through without overhauling.

(3) Possibility of contamination in the storage-tank where the distilled water is held and usually PRECOOLED to as near 32° F. as possible, before passing to the freezing-cans, thus saving time in the freezing process in the tank.

(4) Possible contamination from handling the cans and the wooden covers over them. These covers form the top of the freezing-tank in which the cans of water are immersed in cold brine for freezing and are tramped over by the ice-harvester with the consequent possibility of dirt getting into the cans.

A second system of ice-making in common use in this country is the PLATE SYSTEM. In this process the ice is formed on vertical steel plates. Natural or raw water is used and the bath is agitated by various methods. The resulting ice is very clear and dense. In this system when the ice is formed to the desired thickness, usually about 12 in, it is loosened from the freezing-plate by various thawing-arrangements in different forms of the apparatus. The ice-plates, often 9 by 16 ft by 12 in in thickness, are lifted from the tanks by overhead cranes and carried to a table where they are cut to commercial sizes. While the plate process is usually very slow on account of the fact that the freezing is from one side only, it is largely used and lends itself to great economy in steam-consumption, whereas in the old-style distilled-water ice-making plant the amount of steam required to make the ice was more than an economical engine would use and it was not possible to obtain fuel-economy. One modified form of this system, now coming into considerable favor, is arranged so that STATIONARY CANS are filled with raw water and kept agitated by compressed air bubbling up through it. When the freezing has progressed somewhat the remaining water is drawn off and replaced by fresh water, thus removing the greater part of the impurities that have been frozen out of solution. Various other modifications of these two systems of ice-making have been and are being developed. All of them depend, however, upon the series of physical facts stated in the preceding paragraphs, and the results may be analyzed by reference to them.

Relative Economy of Producing Refrigeration Mechanically and by Ice. (1) In determining the cost of REFRIGERATION BY ICE, account must be taken not only of the cost of the ice but of melting, of the uncertain ice-harvest, of the amount of ice left over at the end of the season and of that frozen together in the storage and, therefore, practically useless. Regarding the melting, it may run anywhere up to 50% of the total ice-harvest. The quantity left over at the end of the season is, of course, so variable that it is impossible to estimate it, this being purely a matter of chance. In many cases, however, it is a very large item. The loss by the ice freezing together in the storage can be reduced to a very small amount where the ice is properly packed with distance-strips between the ice-cakes. Proper packing is much more readily carried out, however, where artificial ice is stored than where natural ice is held, and a mechanically cooled ice-storage is less subject to this difficulty, since the temperature is, of course, constantly held below the melting-point of ice. (2) The total cost of REFRIGERATION PRODUCED MECHANICALLY includes the cost of power, water, oil, refrigerant (usually ammonia), labor and attendance, and interest and depreciation on the investment. The figures on these items vary between wide limits. The following figures, however, will be of interest. Care should be taken in drawing conclusions from them as to cost in prospective installations. These figures are from the annual cost of an ice-manufacturing company having a capacity of 1 500 tons per day in plants ranging in size from 50 to 100 tons per day each.

Coal	.40 cts per ton of ice produced.
Labor	50 cts per ton of ice produced.
Ammonia	10 cts per ton of ice produced.
Water	5 cts per ton of ice produced.
Waste, power, oil, etc	10 cts per ton of ice produced.
Total	$1.15 per ton of ice produced.

TOWER-CLOCKS *

Rule for Diameter of Dials. "To look well and show plainly, dials should be 1 ft in diameter for every 10 ft of elevation and should set out flush with or close to the line of the building or tower." †

Dimensions of Some Large Clock-Faces. Colgate's Factory, Jersey City, N. J. The diameter of the dial is 40 ft. The minute-hand is 20 ft long and 2 ft 11 in in extreme width, and the hour-hand is 15 ft long and 3 ft 10 in in extreme width. The minute-hand weighs 640 lb and the hour-hand 500 lb. This is the largest clock in the world.

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* For a description of the requirements of installation of tower-clocks, see page 154 of "Churches and Chapels," by F. E. Kidder.

† Seth Thomas Clock Company, New York.

Bromo-Seltzer Building, Baltimore, Md. The dials are 24 ft in diameter. The minute-hand is 12 ft 7 in and the hour-hand 9 ft 8 in from tip to tip. The minute-hand weighs 175 lb, the hour-hand 145 lb.

Daniels-Fisher Building, Denver, Colo. The dials are 15 ft 6 in in diameter. The minute-hand is 7 ft 10 in and the hour-hand 5 ft 7 in long.

Maryland Casualty Building, Baltimore, Md. The dials are 17 ft in diameter. The minute-hand is 8 ft 4 in and the hour-hand 5 ft 11 in long.

Elgin Watch Company's Factory, Elgin, Ill. The dials are 14 ft 6 in in diameter. The minute-hand is 7 ft 4 in and the hour-hand 5 ft 4 in long.

Tower-clock, Station of the Central Railroad of New Jersey, at Communipaw, N. J. The diameter of the single dial is 14 ft 3 in; the minute-hand i 7 ft long and weighs 40 lb; the hour-hand is 5 ft long and weighs 28 lb. Th motive power is furnished by a weight of 700 lb, hung from a ⅜-in steel cable.

Four-dial clock, Produce Exchange Building, New York. The diameter of each dial is 12 ft 6 in.

Four-dial clock, Chronicle Tower,* San Francisco, Cal. The diameter of ea dial is 16 ft 6 in; length of minute-hands, 8 ft; length of hour-hands, 5 ft 6 i The mechanism of the clock is 6 ft 1 in high and weighs 3 000 lb.

Pneumatic clock, City Hall and Court-House, Minneapolis, Minn. The di are 23 ft 4 in in diameter.

LIBRARY BOOK-STACKS

The Stack-Work in General. The stack-room of a library is usually off by fire-proof doors from the rest of the building. The customary pra among architects is to make the stack-work a separate contract and have general contractor turn the stack-room over to the stack-contractor with ished floors, walls and ceilings. The stacks, made entirely of incombu materials, are then built as an independent structure.

Book-Ranges. The book-ranges are usually double-faced and are pl in parallel rows with aisles between. The minimum aisle-width is about 4 in. Radial ranges waste space and are costly. Single-faced ranges relatively more expensive than double-faced ranges.

Tiers. All stacks are divided in their height into tiers by deck-floo order that all shelves may be easily reached. The regular tier-height is or 7 ft 6 in.

Deck-Floors. Deck-floors are composed of slabs of ¾-in rough glass or 1¼-in white marble, supported on steel framework. A long, na opening or deck-slit is left between the edge of each deck-floor and the f each range to allow proper ventilation of the stack-tiers. The net thi from top of deck to bottom of steel framework is from 3¼ to 3¾ in for ord spans. The deck-floors are carried by the shelf-supports.

Vertical Communication. Continuous flights of stairs of simple and construction are placed at central points. Books are moved up and by means of dumb-waiters operated by hand, for short runs, or by power controlled by push-buttons.

Shelf-Supports. The shelf-supports are made in various ways, dif with each manufacturer. In the best construction they extend the full of the shelves so as to hold up the shelves and books without the use projecting brackets. They are made of sufficient strength to carry th bined loads of books, deck-floors and superimposed stack-tiers. They rovide for a uniform shelf-adjustment at intervals of about 1 in. Compactess is important. Open-work shelf-supports promote proper lighting and entilation.

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* Destroyed in the earthquake and fire.

Shelves. In each tier of regular height there are usually six rows of adjustable shelves and one row of fixed shelves. Shelves are generally 8 or 10 in wide and 3 ft long. Other sizes are supplied if necessary. The adjustable shelves are made of solid plates of sheet steel or of parallel bars with spaces between. The fixed shelves are placed about 2 in above each floor-level. They are made of solid plates of steel to form dust-stops, fire-stops and water-stops between the tiers.

Finish. The adjustable shelves are always completely finished with baked enamel before delivery. The fixed parts, also, of the stack-construction may be finished at the shop with baked enamel, or preferably with air-drying enamel, after erection at the building, so as to permit repair.

Lighting. Electric-light wires are carried in metal conduits supported by the steel framework of the deck-floors. Lights of 16 candle-power are spaced about 6 ft apart in range-aisles and 12 ft apart in main aisles.

Heating. Indirect radiation is best for books. The lower tiers, only, of a stack should be heated, to prevent the upper tiers from becoming too warm.

Ventilation. Large stacks are usually ventilated artificially to prevent the entry of dust and outside air through open windows. In the Library of Congress, in Washington, D.C., fresh, filtered and tempered air is forced in at the bottom tier, finds its way up through the stack by means of the deck-slits and is drawn out at the top tier.

Weights. The shelves and shelf-supports [*] weigh from 7 to 10 lb per cu ft of book-range. Books weigh about 20 or 25 lb per cu ft of book-range. The steel deck-floor framing weighs from 4 to 6 lb per sq ft of gross area of deck-floor. Marble floor-slabs, 1¼ in thick, weigh about 20 lb per sq ft, and ¾-in rough, plate-glass slabs, about 10 lb per sq ft of net area.

Book-Capacities. Book-capacities per linear foot of shelf may be figured on the following basis: law-books, 5 volumes; reference books, 6 volumes; scientific books, 7 volumes; general literature, from 8 to 10 volumes. The average in the Library of Congress is 8½ volumes per linear foot. An ordinary stack-tier, 7 shelves high with double-faced ranges 16 in deep (or 8-in shelves) and aisles 32 in wide, with a reasonable allowance made for cross-aisles, stairways, etc, will contain about 22 volumes per sq ft of gross area.

Cost. The cost in the United States of library-stacks of standard construction varies from 50 cts to $1 or more per linear foot of shelving. Economy is secured by following established standards while special designs increase the cost.

CLASSICAL MOLDINGS

Moldings are so called because they are of the same shape throughout their length as though the whole had been cast in the same mold or form. The regular moldings, as found in remains of classic architecture, are eight in number, as shown in the accompanying illustration, and are known by the following names: The last two are commonly called, also, OGEE MOLDINGS. Some of these terms are derived thus: FILLET, from the French word FIL, a thread; ASTRAGAL, from ASTRAGALOS, a bone of the heel, or the curvature of the heel; BEAD, because this molding, when properly carved, resembles a string of beads; TORUS, or TORE, the Greek for rope, which it resembles when on the base of a column; SCOTIA, from SKOTIA, darkness, because of the strong shadow cast in its hollow, and which is increased by the projection of the torus above it; OVOLO, from OVUM, an egg, which this member resembles when carved, as in the Ionic capital; CAVETTO, from CAVUS, hollow; CYMATIUM, from KUMATON, a wave.

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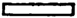
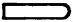
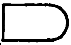
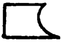
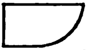
[*] As made by The Snead & Co. Iron Works, Jersey City, N. J.

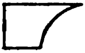

Annulet, band, cincture, fillet, listel, or square.

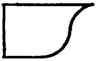

Astragal, or bead.

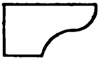

Torus, or tore.


Scotia, trochilus or mouth.


Ovolo, quarter-round, or echinus.


Cavetto, cove, or hollow.


Cymatium, or cyma-recta.


Inverted cymatium, or cyma-reversa.

Characteristics of Moldings. None of these moldings is peculiar to any one of the orders of architecture; and although each has its appropriate use, it is by no means confined to any certain position in an assemblage of moldings. The use of the fillet and also of the astragal and torus, which resemble ropes, is to bind the parts. The ovolo and cyma-reversa are strong at their upper extremities. and are therefore used to support projecting parts above them. The cyma-recta and cavetto, being weak at their upper extremities, are not used as supporters, but are placed uppermost to cover and shelter the upper parts. The scotia is introduced in the base of a column to separate the upper and lower torus, and to produce a pleasing variety and relief. The form of the bead and that of the torus are the same; the reason for giving distinct names to them is that the torus, in every order, is always considerably larger than the bead and is placed among the base-moldings, whereas the bead is never placed there, but on the capital or entablature. The torus, also, is seldom carved, whereas the bead is; and while the torus, among the Greeks, was frequently elliptical in its form, the bead retains its circular shape. While the scotia is the reverse of the torus, the cavetto is the reverse of the ovolo, and the cyma-recta and cyma-reversa are combinations of the ovolo and cavetto.

THE CLASSICAL ORDERS*

Origin of the Orders. "In the classical styles several varieties of column and entablature are in use. These are called the ORDERS. Each order comprises a COLUMN with a BASE, SHAFT and CAPITAL, with or without a PEDESTAL, with its BASE, DIE and CAP, and is crowned by an ENTABLATURE, consisting of ARCHITRAVE, FRIEZE and CORNICE. The entablature is generally about one-fourth as high as the column, and the pedestal one-third, more or less. Among the Greeks the forms used by the Doric race, which inhabited Greece itself and had colonies in Sicily and Italy, were much unlike those of the Ionic race, which inhabited the western coast of Asia Minor, and whose art was greatly influenced by that of Assyria and Persia. Besides the IONIC and DORIC styles, the Romans devised a third, which employed brackets, called MODILLIONS, in the cornice, and was much more elaborate than either of them; this they called the CORINTHIAN. They used also a simple Doric called the TUSCAN, and a cross between the Corinthian and Ionic called the COMPOSITE. These are the FIVE ORDERS. The ancient examples vary much among themselves and differ in different places, and in modern times still further varieties are found in Italy, Spain, France, Germany and England. The best known and most admired forms for the orders are those worked out by Giacomo Barozzi da Vignola in the sixteenth century from the study of ancient examples."

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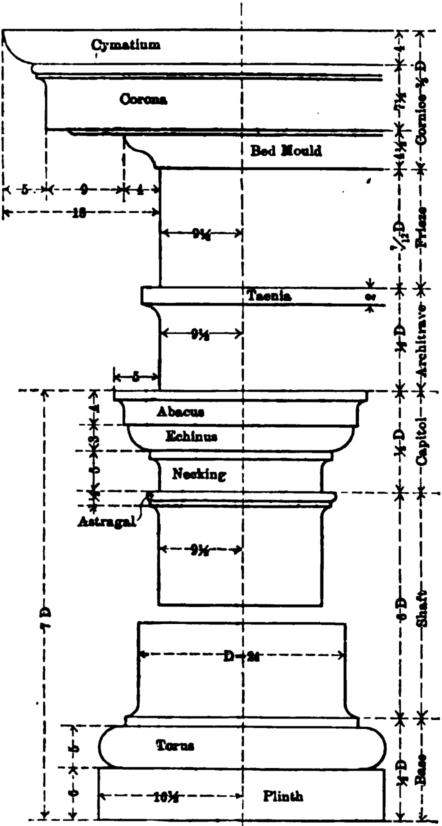
* The paragraphs in quotation-marks are taken from The American Vignola by Professor W. R. Ware, by permission of the owners of the copyright, the International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., proprietors of the International Correspondence Schools. The engravings were made especially for this book, and correspond with the original drawings prepared by Giacomo Barozzi da Vignola.



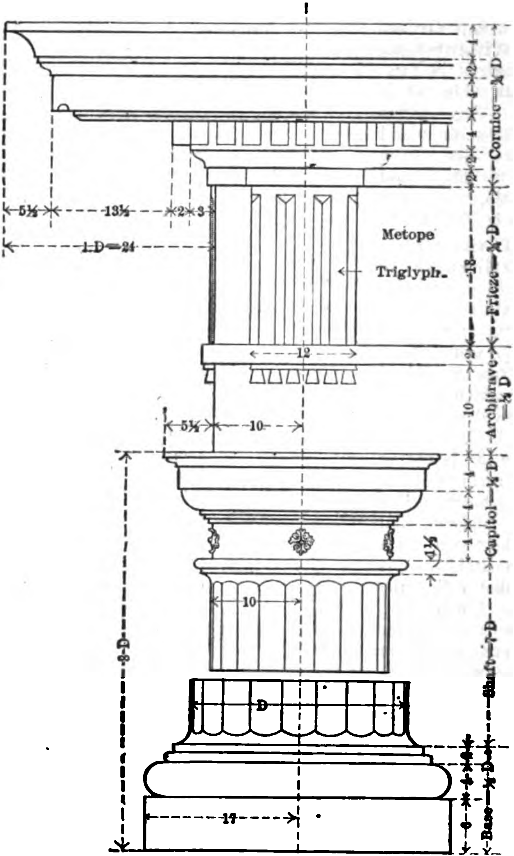
Dimensions are in 24ths of Diameter.

Fig. 1. The Tuscan Order

The Tuscan Order. "The distinguishing characteristic of the Tuscan order (Fig. 1) is simplicity. Any forms of pedestal, column and entablature that show but few moldings, and those plain, are considered to be Tuscan."

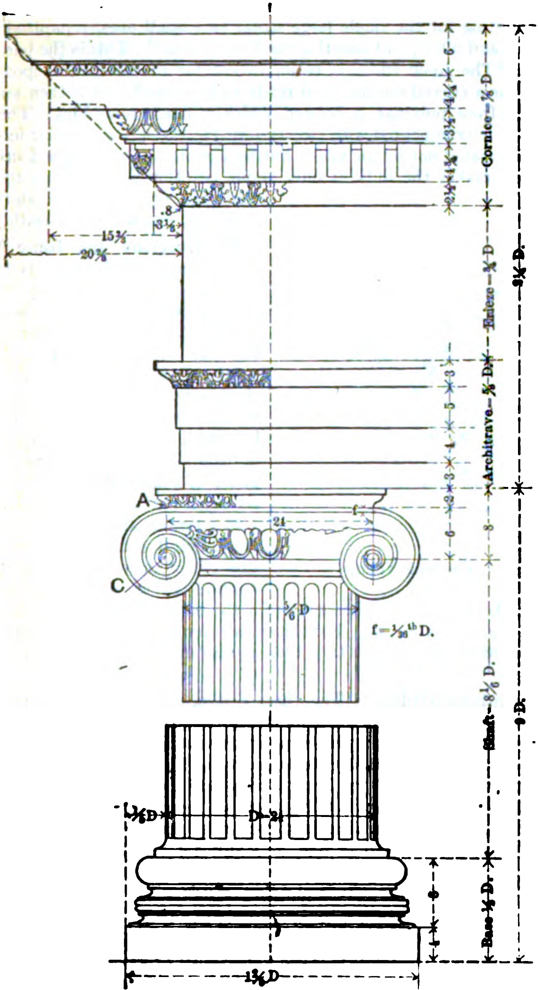
The Doric Order. "The distinguishing characteristics of the Doric order are features in the frieze and in the bed-mold above it called triglyphs and mutules, which are supposed to be derived from the ends of beams and rafters in a primitive wooden construction with large beams. Under each triglyph, and beneath the tænia which crowns the architrave, is a little fillet called the regula. Under the regula are six long drops, called guttæ, which are sometimes conical, sometimes pyramidal. There are also either eighteen or thirty-six short cylindrical guttæ under the soffit of each mutule. The guttæ are supposed to represent the heads of wooden pins, or treenails. Two different Doric cornices are in use, the mutulary with bracket and the denticulated with dentils, the principal difference being in the bed-mold." The order shown in Fig. 2 has the denticulated cornice.

The Ionic Order. "The prototypes of the Ionic order (Fig. 3) are to be found in Persia, Assyria, and Asia Minor. It is characterized by bands in the architrave and dentils in the bed-mold, both of which are held to represent small sticks laid together to form a beam or a roof. But the most conspicuous and distinctive feature is the SCROLLS which decorate the CAPITAL of the column. These have no structural significance, and are purely decorative forms derived from Assyria and Egypt. Originally the Ionic order had no FRIEZE and no ECHINUS in the capital. These were borrowed from the Doric order, and, in like manner, the dentils and bands in the Doric were borrowed from the Ionic. The Ionic frieze was introduced in order to afford a place for sculpture, and was called by the Greeks the ZOOPHOROUS, or figure-bearer. The typical IONIC BASE is considered to consist mainly of a SCOTIA, as in some Greek examples. It is common, however, to use instead what is called the ATTIC BASE, consisting of a



Dimensions are in 24ths of Diameter

Fig. 2. The Doric Order



Dimensions are in 24ths of Diameter.

Fig. 3. The Ionic Order

scotia and two fillets between two large toruses, mounted on a plinth, the whole half a diameter high. The plinth occupies the lower third, or one-sixth of a diameter. Vignola adopted for his Ionic order a modification of the Attic base, substituting for the single large scotia two small ones, separated by one or two beads and fillets, and omitting the lower torus." This is the base shown in Fig. 3. "The Ionic frieze is plain, except for the sculpture upon it. It sometimes has a curved outline, as if ready to be carved, and is then said to be pulvinated, from pulvinar, a bolster, which it much resembles. The shaft of the column is ornamented with twenty-four flutings, semicircular in section, which are separated not by an arris, but by a fillet of about one-fourth their width. This makes the flutings only about two-thirds as wide as the Doric channels, or about one-ninth of a diameter, instead of one-sixth."

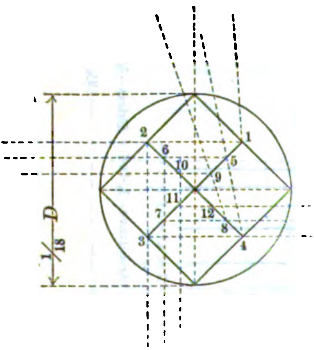
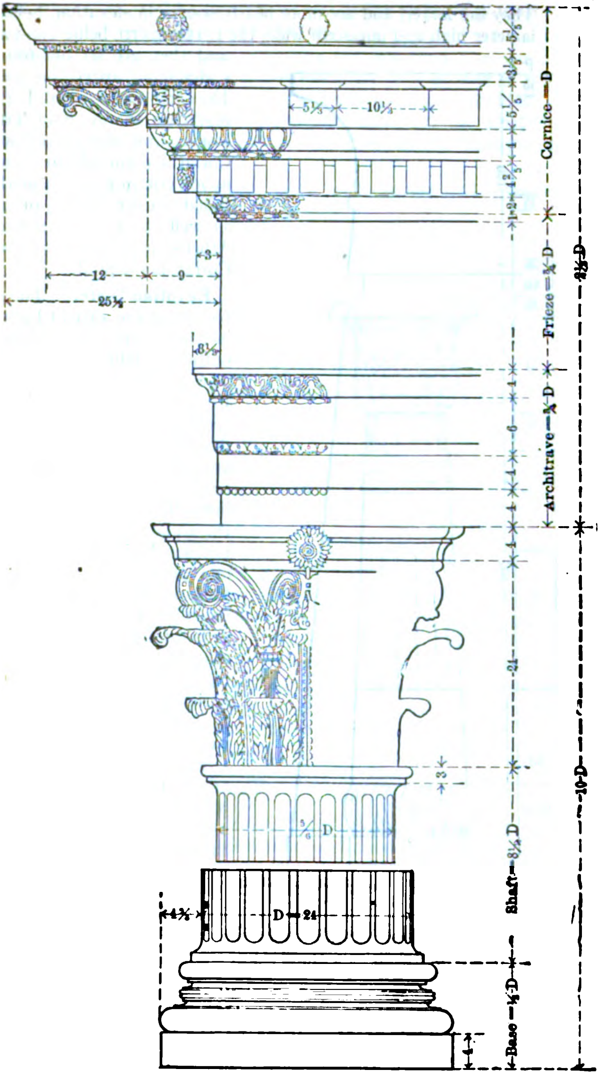


Fig. 4. The Ionic Volute

To Describe the Ionic Volute. There are several methods of doing this, the simplest being by means of centers found as shown by the diagram in Fig. 4. First locate the center of the eye ¼ *D* vertically below the point *A*, Fig. 3. Then describe a circle with a diameter equal to $\frac{1}{18}$ *D*, to form the eye. Inside of this circle inscribe a square at 45 degrees to a horizontal; then draw the axes 1–3 and 2–4, and divide each of these into six equal parts. Then with the point 1 as a center, and a radius extending to *A*, Fig. 3, draw a quarter-circle to line 1–2 produced, with 2 as a center, continue the curve until it intersects 2–3 produced, and so on. The centers for the outer curve of the volute are at the points 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, etc. For the centers for the inner curve, start with a point one-third the way from 1 to 5, then a point one-third the way from 2 to 6, and so on.

The Corinthian Order. "The three distinguishing characteristics of the Corinthian order (Fig. 5) are a tall, bell-shaped capital, a series of small brackets called modillions, which support the cornice instead of mutules, in addition to the dentils, and a general richness of detail which is enhanced by the use of the acanthus leaf in both capitals and modillions. Here, again, the Attic base is commonly used, but sometimes, especially in large columns, a base is used which resembles Vignola's Ionic base, except that it has two beads between the scotias instead of one, and also a lower torus. The shaft is fluted like the Ionic shaft, with twenty-four semicircular flutings, but these are sometimes filled with a convex molding or cable to a third of their height. Almost all the buildings erected by the Romans employ the Corinthian order."

The Composite Order. "The composite order is a heavier Corinthian, just as the Tuscan is a simplified Doric. The chief proportions are the same as in the Corinthian order, but the details are fewer and larger. It owes its name to the capital, in which the two lower rows of leaves and the caulicoli are the same as in the Corinthian. But the caulicoli carry only a stunted leaf-bud, and the upper row of leaves and the sixteen volutes are replaced by the large echinus, scrolls and astragal of a complete Ionic capital. Vignola's composite entablature differs from his Ionic chiefly in the shape and size of the



Dimensions are in 24ths of Diameter

THE CORINTHIAN ORDER

Fig. 5. The Corinthian Order

DENTILS. They are larger, and are more nearly square in elevation, being one-fifth of a diameter high and one-sixth wide, the INTERDENTIL being one-twelfth, and they are set one-fourth of a diameter apart, on centers. The composite capital is employed in the Arch of Titus in Rome, and elsewhere, with a Corinthian entablature, and the BLOCK CORNICE occurs in the so-called FRONTISPIECE of Nero, as well as in the temple at Athens, in connection with a Corinthian capital."

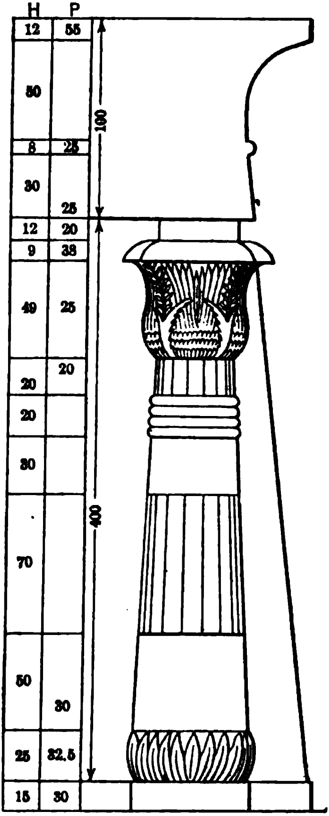


Fig. 6. An Egyptian Order. Diameter Divided into Sixty Parts

Egyptian Style.* The architecture of the ancient Egyptians is characterized by boldness of outline, solidity, and grandeur. The principal features of the EGYPTIAN STYLE of architecture are: uniformity of plan, never deviating from right lines and angles; thick walls, having the outer surface slightly deviating inwardly from the perpendicular; the whole building low; roof flat, composed of stones reaching in one piece from pier to pier, these being supported by enormous columns, very stout in proportion to their height; the shaft sometimes polygonal, having no base, but with a great variety of handsome CAPITALS, the foliage of these being of the palm, lotus and other leaves; ENTABLATURES having simply an ARCHITRAVE, crowned with a huge CAVETTO ornamented with sculpture; and the INTERCOLUMNIATION very narrow, usually 1½ diameters and seldom exceeding 2½. A great dissimilarity exists in the proportions, forms and general features of Egyptian columns. For practical use the column shown in Fig. 6 may be taken as a standard of the Egyptian style.

LIGHTNING-CONDUCTORS

Rules for the Erection of Lightning-Conductors. The following rules for the erection of lightning-conductors were issued in 1882 by the Department of Explosives of the English Home Office to the occupiers of all factories and magazines for explosives, and to those local and police authorities upon whom devolves the inspection of stores of explosives:

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* From The American House Carpenter, by R. G. Hatfield.

(1) **Material of Rod.** Copper, weighing not less than 6 oz per ft run, the electrical conductivity of which is not less than 90% of that of pure copper, either in the form of rod, tape, or rope of stout wires, no individual wire being less than No. 12, Birmingham Wire-Gauge (0.109 in) the English standard wire-gauge. Iron may be used, but should not weigh less than 2½ lb per foot of run.

(2) **Joints.** Every joint, besides being well cleaned and screwed, scarfed, or riveted, should be thoroughly soldered.

(3) **Form of Points.** The point of the upper terminal* of the conductor should not have an angle sharper than 90°. A foot below the extreme point a copper ring should be screwed and soldered on to the upper terminal, in which ring should be fixed three or four sharp copper points, each about 6 in long. It is desirable that these points should be so platinized, gilded, or nickel-plated as to resist oxidation.

(4) **Number and Height of Upper Terminals.** The number of conductors or upper terminals required will depend upon the size of the building, the material of which it is constructed, and the comparative height above ground of the several parts. No general rule can be given for this, except that it may be assumed that the space protected by the conductor is, as a rule, a cone, the radius of whose base is equal to the height of the conductor from the ground.

(5) **Curvature.** The rod should not be bent abruptly around sharp corners. In no case should the length of a curve be more than half as long again as its chord. A hole should be drilled in string-courses or other projecting masonry, when possible, to allow the rod to pass freely through it.

(6) **Insulators.** The conductor should not be kept from the building by glass or other insulators, but attached to it by fastenings of the same metal as that of the conductor itself.

(7) **Fixing.** Conductors should preferentially be taken down the side of the building which is most exposed to rain. They should be held firmly, but the holdfasts should not be driven in so tightly as to pinch the conductor or prevent contraction and expansion due to change of temperature.

(8) **Other Metalwork.** All metallic spouts, gutters, iron doors, and other masses of metal about the building should be electrically connected with the conductor.

(9) **Earth-Connection.** It is most desirable that, whenever possible, the lower extremity of the conductor should be buried in permanently damp soil. Hence, proximity to rain-water pipes and to drains or other water is desirable. It is a very good plan to bifurcate the conductor close below the surface of the ground, and to adopt two of the following methods for securing the escape of the lightning into the earth: (*a*) A strip of copper tape may be led from the bottom of the rod to a gas or water-main (not merely to a leaden pipe), if such exist near enough, and be soldered to it; (*b*) a tape may be soldered to a sheet of copper, 3 by 3 ft by 1/16 in thick, buried in permanently wet earth and surrounded by cinders or coke; (*c*) many yards of copper tape may be laid in a trench filled with coke, having not less than 18 sq ft of copper exposed.

(10) **Protection from Theft, etc.** In places where there is any likelihood of the copper being stolen or injured, it should be protected by being enclosed

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* The upper terminal is that portion of the conductor which is between the top of the edifice and the point of the conductor.

in an iron gas-pipe, reaching 10 ft (if there is room) above ground and some distance into the ground.

(11) **Painting.** Iron conductors, galvanized or not, should be painted. It is optional with copper ones.

(12) **Inspection.** When the conductor is finally fixed it should in all cases be examined and tested by a qualified person, and this should be done in the case of new buildings after all work on them is finished. Periodical examination and testing, should opportunities offer, are also very desirable, especially when iron earth-connections are employed.

Lightning-Protection for High Chimneys. The following is a description of the system of lightning-protection * for the radial-brick chimney-stack, 350 ft in height, for the plant of the St. Joseph Lead Company, Herculaneum, Mo. (See article on Radial Block Chimneys, page 1292.)

Conductor. The conductor used is of commercially pure copper, No. 11, Brown & Sharpe gauge, in the form of a cable, consisting of twenty-eight wires, seven strands, four wires to the strand, and ⅝ in in diameter, 230 552 circular mils. The vertical conductors are of continuous lengths from the top of the chimney to and into the ground. A circuit-conductor is placed 5 ft below the top of the chimney and connected to each down-conductor by a 12-in two-way splice.

Points. The air-terminals are eight in number equally spaced around the top of the chimney, and consist of solid, copper bars 1 in in diam and 10 ft in length, the upper 12 in tapering to a point and covered with a 12-in thimble of genuine platinum. Air-terminals extend 5 ft above the top of the stack and the lower end of each copper bar is set in a heavy copper T coupler, which connects the same into the circuit-conductor. Each rod is held in place by heavy anchor-fasteners, bolted from the inside of the stack. These anchors are encased in copper tubes set in the solid masonry.

Grounding. At a point below the ground-level and at the chimney-line, the conductor is carried in a downward course from the chimney, in a trench bedded in charcoal, to a point 5 ft outside the foundation-line. An additional conductor is spliced into the main cable at this point, forming a Y with branches terminating 15 ft apart. Two well-holes are bored to a depth of approximately 20 ft into permanent moisture. The end of each Y conductor is electrically soldered into perforated, copper reservoirs 4½ in in diam and 28 in in length, and filled with pea-size charcoal. The effect of the reservoir is to give the required amount of surface-contact with the earth and to insure permanent moisture through the charcoal by capillary attraction. Each main conductor is thus grounded in two places instead of in one place.

Lead Covering. To preserve the conductor system against decomposition in ozone, in which sulphuric or other acid gases may exist, all of the conductor system at the top, and to a point 75 ft below the top of the chimney is covered with lead ⅛ in in thickness. Exception is made to the platinum-covered 12-in top of each rod, which requires no lead covering. Where splices are made and anchor-fasteners set, the whole is covered with lead sleeves or hoods thoroughly wiped and hermetically sealed. Connections of point-bar T's etc., are all soldered, lead-covered and sealed. Practical experience seems to show that all lightning-conductor systems on chimneys should be lead-covered and hermetically sealed to a point, approximately 25 ft downward from the top, to protect the copper against decomposition, not necessarily as thick as on this chimney, but, say, 1/16 in, the thickness being determined by the size and usage of the stack. It has been found that in from three to five years there is a decided honeycombing of the copper, through the action of the sulphuric and other acid gases. It has often been necessary to replace points, sections of cable, etc., entirely eaten away from this cause.

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* Installed by the Ajax Conductor and Manufacturing Company, Chicago, Ill.

INTERPHONES. AUTOMATIC TELEPHONES FOR INTERCOMMUNICATING SERVICE

Description. The interphone system is an application of the telephone for interior use. It is an automatic, intercommunicating system, requiring neither switchboard nor operator, and being self-contained within the walls of the establishment for whose benefit it has been installed.

Advantages. In brief, the advantages of such a system are these: (1) the mere pressing of a button gives a person telephone-connection with any desired party, without the loss of time involved in first calling up a third party; (2) recourse to directory or information bureau is made unnecessary through the use of labels, properly inscribed, on the face of the instrument; (3) no maintenance-expense is involved, and the system, consequently, is as inexpensive to operate as an electric door-bell; (4) the wiring-arrangement is such that the system may be provided for when the original plans for a new building are being drawn up, and in this respect it does not differ much from a system of electric lights or plumbing.

The Use of Interphones in residences, schools, hospitals, factories, mills, offices, stores and clubs is constantly increasing. The same general features apply to all of these types of installations, and in practically every case it is the simplicity of the system that especially recommends it for service. The interphone usually fits in where formerly call-bells, speaking-tubes, messenger service and other inadequate methods were the rule. The interphone field of service is in the establishment whose needs call for from four to thirty-two telephone-stations. When there are more than thirty-two the installation of a private telephone-exchange, with a switchboard, is better practice.

Types of Interphones. There are several types of interphones for varying degrees of service.

(1) The most familiar instrument is a wall-interphone, of the NON-FLUSH TYPE. The telephone is of metal, with connecting buttons, labels, bells, mouthpiece, hook and receiver, all mounted on its face. This instrument is to be attached directly to the wall.

(2) The FLUSH TYPE resembles the first-mentioned type in every particular but the one implied in its title. The instrument is mounted into the wall, with its face flush with the rest of the wall-surface. These two instruments are most popular for installation in club-hallways, in stores and factories, in residences, and in all places where wall-telephones would ordinarily be used. Busy offices and stores often employ variations of types (1) and (2) and use a DESK-SET, a separate instrument taking care of the connecting buttons and labels, or a HAND-SET.

(3) The DESK-STAND telephone is of the type often used for local and long-distance service. Connected with it is a metal box containing the rows of buttons and labels, each label being opposite the button through which is secured connection with the corresponding station. The telephone in this case stands on the desk, and the key-box is conveniently close at hand, either on the desk or on the wall.

(4) Some prefer for this service the HAND-SET, with the receiver and transmitter in one piece. This is a convenient, compact instrument, well fitted for use in an office.

(5) From two to six instruments of still another type make up a PARTY-LINE INTERPHONE SYSTEM. Here there are no connecting buttons, the principle involved being the same as that of the elementary, farmers' line. This makes a convenient private-line system for a small residence, and is appropriate for a house-to-garage circuit.

Variations from Standard Types. There are systems with variations from the standard types. Many schools are using a combination of interphones of type (1) or (2) with (5). In the principal's office is an instrument of type (1) or (2) with a connecting button for each outside station, while the classroom-telephones are all of type (5). With this system the principal can at any time call up any teacher; but a teacher can call up another classroom only through the medium of this MASTER-STATION, which acts as a sort of exchange. The advantages of this arrangement for a school are obvious. In a hospital the instruments are usually placed outside of the more important operating-rooms and wards and in the offices and reception-rooms.

Wiring and Batteries. All wiring is enclosed in cables. Energy is obtained from dry cells. The only maintenance-expense connected with an interphone system is the occasional renewal of these batteries.

VACUUM-CLEANING

General Description. Vacuum-cleaners are appliances which have come into use during recent years and which are for the purpose of removing dirt and dust from rooms of buildings, cars, steamships, etc., or from furniture, carpets, curtains, or other interior fittings. The dust and dirt are removed by suction and the apparatus consists of an air-pump which is arranged to draw the air and the dirt or dust contained in it through pipe and nozzle. This nozzle is drawn or passed over the surfaces which are to be cleaned. Screens of muslin or other appropriate cloth are used to separate by filtration the dust and dirt which are borne along with the stream of air; and in some types of apparatus this process is assisted by what are called baffle-plates which are added to make the heavier particles of dust drop by their own weight to the lower part of the receptacle placed to receive them. About the year 1890 compressed air was used for the first time in railroad-cars for purposes of cleaning and dust-removal. There were serious objections to this method of cleaning, however, as it was found that the jets of compressed air blew out the dust and dirt in such a way that it was difficult to arrange for their collection and retention; the principle of suction was consequently introduced to overcome these difficulties.

Types of Vacuum-Cleaners. The machines belonging to the earliest types usually consist of a pump, the motor-power of which is either a gas-engine or an electric motor, the machines being portable. They can be moved about from one building to another as occasion demands. Cleaners of the next type introduced involve an installation in the basement or lower part of a building and a fixed and permanent position. From the central plant pipes are run to various rooms and apartments and are fitted in such rooms or apartments or in adjacent halls or corridors, with valves to which are attached the hose with the cleaning-appliances at the end. In some cases this vacuum-arrangement is combined with another for washing floors, the secondary system including a second set of pipes from a tank filled with soap and water. Compressed air is employed to spray the latter over the floor, and both dirt and water are finally removed through pipes to the street-sewers. A portable tank is used for the soap and water. Vacuum-cleaners of a third type consist of small machines which take the place of the brooms and dusters or are used in connection with them. They are now very generally used and may be driven by an electric motor, by foot, or by hand. These last-mentioned, smaller, portable cleaners are used for many other purposes than the ordinary cleaning of rooms and furniture.

Details and Specifications for Vacuum-Cleaning Installations. Complete plans and specifications for the installation of a vacuum-cleaning plant for a building may be obtained from any of the numerous manufacturers making such apparatus and taking contracts to put it in place. There are several types of machines and systems of installation and detailed descriptions would exceed the limits of space in this handbook.

WATERPROOFING FOR FOUNDATIONS *

The Waterproofing of Substructure Work is, comparatively speaking, a modern branch of engineering. It is only within recent years that it has become necessary to construct deep basements for buildings. In the past, the more important structures, such as cathedrals, capitols, state-buildings and the like, were usually built upon high ground, and water was prevented from entering the basements of such buildings by means of drainage. Waterproofing, as we now know it, was generally unnecessary. With the advent of the so-called sky-scrapers, however, requiring large mechanical plants, deep basements became an actual necessity, and as these basements are usually carried below ground-water level, and in many instances below tide-level, the question became one of utmost importance. Like almost every detail of a modern building, waterproofing is a specialty. Each building presents its own problems, and the safest plan is to leave the solution of these problems to some one expert in the knowledge of waterproofing who has made it a special study and knows how best to overcome the existing difficulties. It may be laid down as an invariable rule that, where conditions are at all serious, the owner or the general contractor will save money in the long run if he employs the services of an expert waterproofer to place his waterproofing-seal, regardless of the method he wishes to use.

Pressure-Resistance Versus Waterproofing. In waterproofing large basements where actual pressure exists, it is a question for the engineer to decide whether it is more economical to attempt to secure an absolute PRESSURE-JOB or a WATER-PROOF JOB in connection with a drainage system. As a general rule, it may be stated that where a building is generating its own power, it is more economical to use a drainage system with an open sump than to construct a pressure-cellar, the cost of pumping being much less than the interest charges on the cost of a floor-slab sufficiently strong to withstand the pressure.

Waterproofing Concrete Foundations. The three following subdivisions of this subject, discussing the causes of permeability of concrete, the addition of substances to render it more water-proof, and the treatment of its surfaces to make it less permeable, embody the conclusions of Committee D-8 of the American Society for Testing Materials.† This committee, since its organization in 1905 has, through laboratory-tests and experiments, together with examinations of work during construction and after completion, as well as the study of literature on the subject, sought to secure sufficient information to enable it to formulate definite methods for securing water-proof concrete structures. The work of the committee was complicated by reason of the facts that there seemed to be so little concordance between results of tests obtained under laboratory-conditions and in the field and that it was necessary to extend its investigations over a period of years in order to determine the permanency of the action noted. The committee reported that while it had not been able to arrive at sufficiently definite conclusions to enable it to formulate specifications for the making of concrete structures water-proof or for materials to be used in such work, it had reached certain general conclusions which might be of assistance to the constructor in securing the desired result of impermeable concrete. Early in the investigation, the work was found to subdivide naturally into three branches, and the conclusions reached will be grouped in order under these subdivisions, which are:

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* For foundations in general see Chapter II.

† This article, to the middle of page 1633, is the substance of a preprint of the Report submitted to the American Society for Testing Materials at its meeting, June 24-28, 1913, at which meeting it was formally accepted.

(1) The determination of causes of the permeability of concrete as usually made from mixtures of Portland cement, sand and stone, or other coarse aggregate, in proportions of from 1 of cement, 2 of sand and 4 of stone, to 1 of cement, 3 of sand and 6 of stone, and the best methods of avoiding these causes.

(2) The rendering of concrete more water-proof by adding to ordinary mixtures of cement, sand and stone, other substances which, either by their void-filling or repellent action, would tend to make the concrete less permeable.

(3) The treatment of exposed surfaces after the concrete or mortar has been put in place and hardened more or less, either by penetrative, void-filling or repellent liquids, making the concrete itself less permeable; or by extraneous protective coatings, preventing water from having access to the concrete.

Considering these several subdivisions separately and in the order named, the committee arrives at the following conclusions:

(1) **Causes of Permeability of Concrete.** In the laboratory and under test-conditions where properly graded and sized coarse and fine aggregates are used, in mixtures ranging from 1 of cement, 2 of sand and 4 of stone, to 1 of cement, 3 of sand and 6 of stone, impermeable concrete can invariably be produced. Even with sand of poor granulometric composition, with mixtures as rich as 1 of cement, 2 of sand and 4 of stone, permeable concrete is seldom, if ever, found and is a rare occurrence with mixtures of 1 of cement, 3 of sand and 6 of stone. But the fact remains, nevertheless, that the reverse often obtains in actual construction, permeable concretes being encountered even with mixtures of 1 of cement, 2 of sand and 4 of stone and are of frequent occurrence where the quantity of the aggregate is increased. This the committee attributes to:

(a) Defective workmanship, resulting from improper proportioning, lack of thorough mixing, separation of the coarse aggregate from the fine aggregate and cement in transporting and placing the mixed concrete, lack of density through insufficient tamping or spading, improper bonding of work-joints, etc.

(b) The use of imperfectly sized and graded aggregates.

(c) The use of excessive water, causing shrinkage-cracks and formation of laitance-seams.

(d) The lack of proper provision to take care of expansion and contraction, causing subsequent cracking.

Theoretically, none of these conditions should prevail in properly designed and supervised work, and they are avoided in the laboratory and in the field, under test-conditions, where speed of construction and cost are negligible items, instead of being governing features as they must be in actual construction. Properly graded sands and coarse aggregates are rarely, if ever, found in nature in sufficient quantities to be available for large construction, and the effect of poorly graded aggregates in producing permeable concrete is aggravated by poor and inefficient field-work. Even if the added expense of screening and remixing the aggregates could be afforded, so as to secure proper granulometric composition to give the density required to make untreated concretes impermeable, it is seemingly often a commercial impossibility on large construction to obtain workmanship even approximating that found in laboratory-work.

(2) **Addition of Foreign Substances to Cement Before or During Mixture.** The committee finds that in consequence of the conditions outlined above, substances calculated to make the concrete more impermeable, either incorporated in the cement or added to the concrete during mixing, are often used. This has resulted in the development and placing on the market of numerous patented or proprietary waterproofing-compounds, the composition of which is more or less of a trade-secret. While it has been impossible for the committee to test all of the special waterproofing-compounds being placed on the market, it has investigated a sufficient number of these, as well as the use of certain very finely divided, naturally occurring or readily obtainable commercial mineral products, such as finely ground sand, colloidal clays, hydrated lime, etc., to form a general idea of the value of the different types. The committee finds:

(a) That the majority of patented and proprietary integral compounds tested have little or no immediate or permanent effect on the permeability of concrete and that some of these even have an injurious effect on the strength of mortar and concrete in which they are incorporated.

(b) That the permanent effect of such integral waterproofing-additions, if dependent on the action of organic compounds, is very doubtful.

(c) That in view of their possible effect, not only upon the early strength, but also upon the durability of concrete after considerable periods, no integral waterproofing-material should be used unless it has been subjected to long-time practical tests under proper observation to demonstrate its value, and unless its ingredients and the proportion in which they are present are known.

(d) That in general, more desirable results are obtainable from inert compounds acting mechanically, than from active chemical compounds whose efficiency depends on change of form through chemical action after addition to the concrete.

(e) That void-filling substances are more to be relied upon than those whose value depends on repellent action.

(f) That, assuming average quality in sizing of the aggregates and reasonably good workmanship in the mixing and placing of the concretes, the addition of from 10 to 20% of very finely divided void-filling mineral substances may be expected to result in the production of concrete which, under ordinary conditions of exposure, will be found impermeable, provided the work-joints are properly bonded, and cracks do not develop on drying, or through change in volume due to atmospheric changes, or by settlement.

(3) **External Treatment.** While external treatment of concrete would not be necessary if the concrete itself, either naturally or by the addition of waterproofing-material, was impermeable to water, it has been found in practice that in large construction, no matter how carefully the concrete itself has been made, cracks are apt to develop, due to shrinkage in drying out, expansion and contraction under change of temperature and moisture-content, and through settlement. It is, therefore, often advisable in important construction to anticipate and provide for the possible occurrence of such cracks by external treatment with a protective coating. Such coating must be sufficiently elastic and cohesive to prevent the cracks extending through the coating itself. The application of merely penetrative void-filling liquid washes will not prevent the passage of

water due to cracking of the concrete. The committee has, therefore, considered surface-treatment under two heads:

(a) Penetrative void-filling liquid washes.

(b) Protective coatings, including all surface-applications intended to prevent water coming in contact with the concrete.

Penetrative Washes. While some penetrative washes may be efficient in rendering concrete water-proof for limited periods, their efficiency may decrease with time and it may be necessary to repeat such treatment. Some of these washes may be objectionable, due to discoloring the surface to which they are applied. The committee, therefore, believes that the first effort should be made to secure a concrete that is impermeable in itself and that penetrative void-filling washes should only be resorted to as a corrective measure.

Protective Coatings. While protective extraneous bituminous or asphaltic coatings are unnecessary, so far as the major portion of the surface of the concrete is concerned, provided the concrete, either in itself or through the addition of integral compounds, is made impermeable, they are valuable as a protection where cracks develop in a structure. It is therefore recommended that a combination of inert void-filling substances and extraneous waterproofing be adopted in especially difficult or important work.

Bituminous or Asphaltic Coatings. Considering the use of bituminous or asphaltic coatings, the committee finds:

(a) That such protective coatings are often subject to more or less deterioration with time, and may be attacked by injurious vapors or deleterious substances in solution in the water coming in contact with them.

(b) That the most effective method for applying such protection is either the setting of a course of impervious brick dipped in bituminous material into a solid bed of bituminous material, or the application of a sufficient number of layers of satisfactory membranous material cemented together with hot bitumen.

(c) That their durability and efficiency are very largely dependent on the care with which they are applied. Such care refers particularly to proper cleaning and preparation of the concrete to insure as dry a surface as possible before application of the protective covering, the lapping of all joints of the membranous layers, and their thorough coating with the protective material. The use of this method of protection is further desirable because proper bituminous coverings offer resistance to stray electrical currents, the possible attack from which is referred to in succeeding paragraphs.

Rich Mixtures. So far, the committee has considered only concretes of the usual proportions, namely, those ranging from 1 of cement, 2 of sand and 4 of stone, to 1 of cement, 3 of sand and 6 of stone. It has been suggested that impermeable concretes could be assured by using mixtures considerably richer in cement. While such practice would probably result in an immediate impermeable concrete, it is believed by many that the advantage is only temporary, as richer concretes are more subject to check-cracking and are less constant in volume under changes of conditions of temperature, moisture, etc. Therefore, the use of more cement in mass-concrete would cause increased cracking, unless some means of controlling the expansion and contraction is discovered. With reinforced concretes the objection is not so great, as the tendency to cracking is more or less counteracted by the reinforcement.

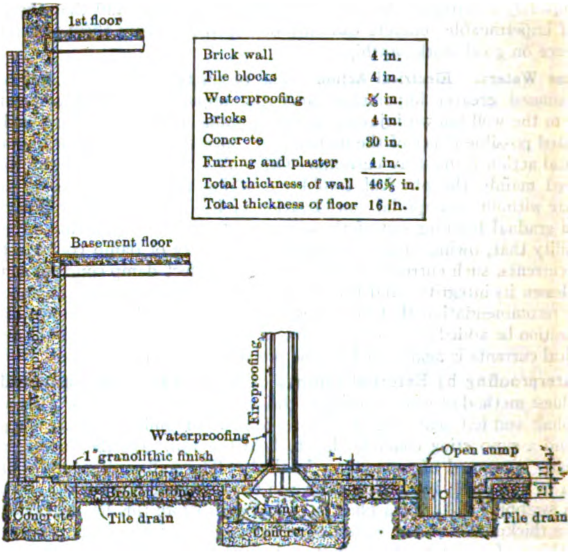
Fine Flour Mixtures. It has also been suggested that the presence in the cement of a larger percentage of very fine flour might result in the production of a denser and more impermeable concrete, through the formation of a larger amount of colloidal gels. Neither of these suggestions has been especially investigated by the committee. Both appeal to the committee, however, for the reason that they substitute active cementitious substances for the largely inactive void-filling materials previously recommended, thus increasing the strength of the concrete.

Character of Workmanship. In conclusion, the committee would point out that no addition of waterproofing-compounds or substances can be relied upon to completely counteract the effect of bad workmanship, and that the production of impermeable concrete can only be hoped for where there is determined insistence on good workmanship.

Saline Waters. Electrical Action. The production of impermeable concrete has assumed greater importance since the appointment of this committee, owing to the well-known injurious action of saline or alkaline waters and to the suggested possible effect of the moisture in concrete occasioning or aggravating electrical action from stray currents. Originally, the question of waterproofing involved mainly the physical troubles resulting from water passing through concrete without any special consideration of its effect on its durability, other than a gradual leaching out of the cement. Recent developments suggest the possibility that, owing to the increased conductivity of damp concrete to electrical currents, such currents, if present, may so affect damp concrete as to seriously lessen its integrity; and this possibility further emphasizes the importance of the recommendation that no waterproofing-compound of unknown chemical composition be added to concrete, as recent tests seem to show that the action of electrical currents is aggravated by the presence of certain solutions.

Waterproofing by External Linings of Brick, Tar, or Asphalt, and Felt. The oldest method of waterproofing is the one involving the use of a tar-and-felt or asphalt-and-felt seal (Fig. 1). This consists of building first a supporting wall and a supporting concrete slab to hold the seal. On the floors, this slab is usually composed of concrete, 4 in thick. The walls are generally of brick from 4 to 8 in thick, but occasionally 4-in terra-cotta tiles are used. Upon this base a swabbing of tar or asphalt is placed and before this has become cold or set, one thickness of paper, saturated with coal-tar, is laid. This paper receives a swabbing of coal-tar and asphalt and another layer of paper is placed, the operation being continued until there are three or more layers of paper with four or more swabbings of the tar or asphalt. For damp-proof work, three layers of paper with four swabbings of tar are usually sufficient. For waterproofing-work not less than five and usually six layers of paper with from six to seven swabbings of tar are used. The main walls of the structure are then built against the wall-waterproofing, and after these are in place, the main concrete basement-floor is laid immediately on top of the floor-seal, the idea being to form a continuous water-proof seal enveloping the entire basement below grade. The difficulties of this system consist chiefly in securing perfect laps at all points in the work, and unless extreme care is used and unless there is perfect coöperation between the waterproofer and the mason-contractor, there is apt to be a break somewhere in the seal, usually where the wall-waterproofing is supposed to be joined to the floor-work. The disadvantages of this system are due to the fact that the seal is not permanent in all soils as the subsurface water frequently contains acids which destroy the seal. Then again, the seal may be easily punctured by the mason-contractor in building his wall against it or in laying the concrete floor upon the flat work. The chief disadvantage, however, is that the waterproofing-seal is invariably buried behind a mass of masonry, either brick or concrete, which means that should there be a leak, due to either carelessness or accident, through the waterproofing-seal, it is frequently impossible to stop it. It not infrequently happens that when a leak has developed in tar-and-felt work, the actual presence of the water does not show opposite the leak.

but following some line of least resistance, appears from 50 to 100 ft, or more, away from where the actual damage causing the leak occurs. In actual waterproofing work it is seldom attempted to secure a bottle-tight job with tar and felt. Instead, some system of drainage is installed beneath the water-proof seal which is on the floors of the building, and the water is conducted through tile or other pipes to some central sump from which it is mechanically pumped to a sewer. The purpose of the waterproofing in this case, therefore, is to concentrate or drive the water to this sump. For shallow cellars and especially dampproofing-work, this tar-and-felt method is the most economical and most frequently employed.



Brick wall	4 in.
Tile blocks	4 in.
Waterproofing	⅜ in.
Bricks	4 in.
Concrete	30 in.
Furring and plaster	4 in.
Total thickness of wall	46⅜ in.
Total thickness of floor	16 in.

Fig. 1.* Felt-Waterproofing for Foundations

Waterproofing by Coating with Water-Proof Cement. For deep and difficult work a comparatively new method of waterproofing is often used (Fig. 2). This consists of placing a coating of water-proof cement upon the interior surface of the exterior walls of the building and over the upper surface of the concrete floor-slab in the basement or subbasement. Fig. 3 shows a foundation for an engine, the concrete being waterproofed as shown. The pit is made somewhat larger than the foundation, the extra space being filled in with cinders, dry bricks or terra-cotta blocks, which may be readily removed to allow access to the bed-plate bolts for which hand-holes have been cast in the concrete, thus permitting the complete removal of the engine. The figure shows a 2-in sand cushion and a 2-in layer of planks under the engine-foundation. This is not a part of the waterproofing but is put in to prevent the communication of vibration. Fig. 4 shows reinforced-concrete floors for an engine-room and boiler-room, the concrete slab being 12 in thick under the former and 24 in thick under the latter. Both floors are covered with a 1-in course of water-proof cement. The reinforcement is put in as shown and in sizes and spacing as follows:

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* Reproduced, by permission, from a pamphlet published by The Waterproofing Company, New York, and showing the greater thickness of walls and floor required for the outside-surface brick-and-felt method of waterproofing as compared with the inside-surface waterproof-cement coating. Taken from design for waterproofing in a prominent New York building. See, also, Fig. 2.

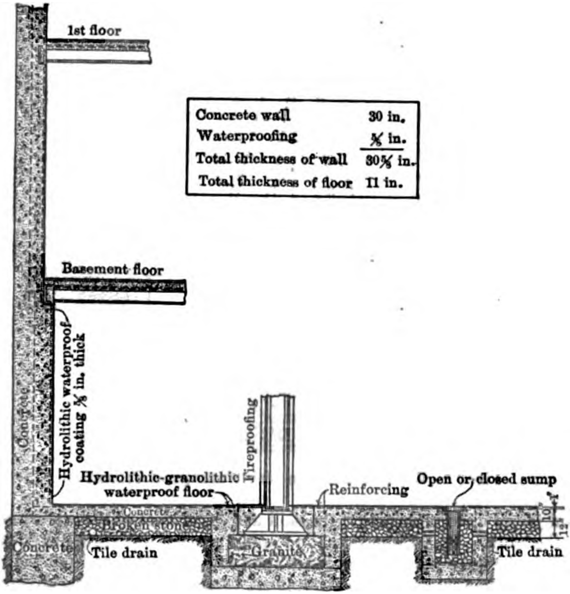

Fig. 2.* Cement Waterproofing for Foundations

12-in slab	24-in slab
Rods in two courses Lower rods, 4 in on centers, 6 in from surface Upper rods, 6 in on centers, 2 in from surface For five rods, total area of cross-section is 0.703 sq in; per square foot of surface, 2.39 lb	Rods in three courses Lowest rods, 3 in on centers, 12 in from surface Intermediate rods, 3 in on centers, 7 in from surface Upper rods, 6 in on centers, 2 in from surface For ten rods, total area of cross-section, 1.4 sq in; per square foot of surface, 4.78 lb

* From a pamphlet published by The Waterproofing Company, New York, and showing reduced total thickness of walls and floor required for the inside-surface water-proof cement method of waterproofing. Taken from design for waterproofing of the same building shown in Fig. 1. The walls and floors were put in place in the monolithic form

There are many compounds advertised to make cement or concrete water-proof. Besides these, there are water-proof cements manufactured by secret processes and applied by companies that make a specialty of waterproofing. Some of the many waterproofing-compounds have merit; but the main factors of a successful job of waterproofing are the skill and experience of the waterproofers who do the work. It is claimed that to apply cement waterproofing so as to obtain efficient results requires more skill than to apply a tar-and-felt seal; but a cement waterproofing, once properly applied, seems to possess some advantages over the older method of tar and felt. One advantage is that the waterproofing is accessible, and that if any leaks develop, they are apparent and can be readily and economically repaired by cutting out the old waterproofing and placing a new coating where the damage exists. Another advantage claimed is that cement waterproofing is generally permanent and not damaged by the ordinary

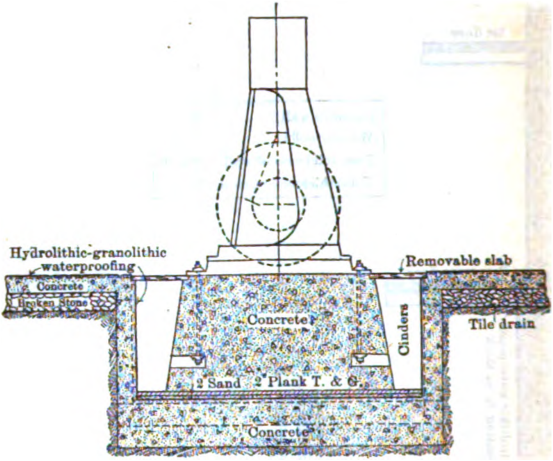

Fig. 3.* Engine-foundation with Water-proof Cement

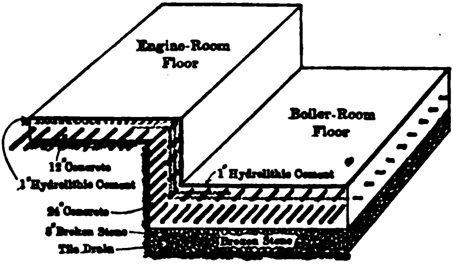

Fig. 4.* Reinforced-concrete Floor with Water-proof Cement

acids found in solution with water in soil. By the cement method the cost of the brick supporting walls and the concrete supporting slab is eliminated as is also the corresponding cost of the necessary excavation for them; and finally, the waterproofing on the floor serves the double purpose of waterproofing and wearing-surface, thus saving the cost of the cement finish usually found in basements and subbasements. One of the disadvantages of cement waterproofing is that the material is rigid and is fractured by any settlement of the building or contraction in the concrete upon which it is placed. Experience has shown, however, that settlement-cracks usually take place before the waterproofing contractor has left the building and that there is little or no trouble from these causes after his work is completed. Contraction-cracks in concrete, however, seem to develop at any time within twenty-four months after concrete has been placed. In order to prevent these cracks, users of the cement waterproofing have adopted a system of reinforcement in the concrete, and it is claimed that this reinforcement is, in the long run, an economy, as it permits of less concrete and gives a better and stronger floor or wall. On brick and stone walls no trouble is experienced from contraction and expansion. It should be remembered that this work is all below grade where contraction and expansion are reduced to a minimum, regardless of the materials used.

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* Reproduced by permission of The Waterproofing Company, New York.

Waterproofing by Adding Substances to Cement. This is another method of waterproofing now being advocated by some. If this method could always be made efficient, it would be highly advantageous. It is claimed by the manufacturers of these compounds that in order to secure a water-proof basement, for example, a certain percentage of the compound is to be mixed with the cement before it is incorporated in the concrete. The opponents of this method claim, however, that it is impossible to construct a basement in this way without incurring the danger of serious leaks at the joinings of one day's work with that of another; that leakage at these points of cleavage may be increased by the use of waterproofing-compounds; and that their principal merit is that they produce a very dense mass of concrete. It is always difficult to bond old concrete to new, and if concrete is made water-proof, or, in other words, nonabsorbent, the difficulty of joining new concrete to a nonabsorbent mass of old concrete is increased. This method is effective, however, and is to be recommended in work which can be carried on without interruption, such, for instance, as small elevator-pits or small swimming-pools, where the concrete can be started in the morning and completed by night or before any part of the work has had time to attain its initial set.

FORCE OF THE WIND

Relation Between the Pressure and Velocity of Wind. According to experiments made in 1890 or thereabouts, by C. F. Marvin, United States Signal Service, the relation between wind-pressure and velocity is given very accurately by the formula $p = 0.004\ V^2$, where p is the pressure in pounds per square foot on a flat surface normal to the direction of the wind, and V the velocity of the wind in miles per hour. Smeaton considered the pressure as equal to $0.005\ V^2$. The following table, based on Marvin's formula,* is quoted by Turneaure and Ketchum.†

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* If Marvin's formula is written $p = 0.0032\ V^2$ the values in this table will be slightly changed. See Chapter XXVII, pages 1052 and 1253, and also page 1308. The formula used by the United States Signal Service is $p = 0.004\ V^2$. The true pressure is probably somewhere between $0.005\ V^2$ and $0.004\ V^2$, near the former for very low velocities and near the latter for high velocities.

† See, also, Trautwine's Pocket-Book, page 321.

Table Showing the Force of the Wind

Miles per hour	Feet per minute	Feet per second	Force, in pounds, per square foot	Description
1	88	1.47	0.004	Hardly perceptible
2	176	2.93	0.014	Just perceptible
3	264	4.40	0.036	
4	352	5.87	0.064	Gentle breeze
5	440	7.33	0.1	
10	880	14.67	0.4	Pleasant breeze
15	1 320	22.0	0.9	
20	1 760	29.3	1.6	Brisk gale
25	2 200	26.6	2.5	
30	2 640	44.0	3.6	High wind
35	3 080	51.3	4.9	
40	3 520	58.6	6.4	Very high wind
45	3 960	66.0	8.1	
50	4 400	73.3	10.0	Storm
60	5 280	88.0	14.4	Great storm
70	6 160	102.7	19.6	
80	7 040	117.3	25.6	Hurricane
100	8 800	146.6	40.0	

COPIES OF TRACINGS

Blue-Prints from Tracings. The following directions * cover the whole ground. The sensitized paper can be procured, all prepared, at stores where artists' materials are sold, so that the process of preparing the paper by means of chemicals can then be omitted. The materials required are as follows:

(1) A board a little larger than the tracing to be copied. The drawing-board on which the drawing and tracing are made can always be used.

(2) Two or three thicknesses of flannel or other soft white cloth, which is to be smoothly tacked to the board to form a smooth surface, on which to lay the sensitized paper and tracing while printing.

(3) A plate of common double-thick window-glass, of good quality, slightly larger than the tracing to be copied. The function of the glass is to keep the tracing and sensitized paper closely and smoothly pressed together while printing.

(4) The chemicals for sensitizing the paper. These consist simply of equal parts, by weight, of citrate of iron and ammonia, and red prussiate of potash and can be obtained at any drug-store. The price should not be over 8 or 10 cts per ounce for each.

(5) A stone or yellow-glass bottle to keep the solution of the above chemicals in. If there is but little copying to do, an ordinary glass bottle will do, and the solution can be freshly made whenever it is wanted for immediate use.

(6) A shallow earthen dish in which to place the solution when using it. A common dinner-plate is as good as anything for this purpose.

(7) A soft paste-brush, about 4 in wide.

(8) Plenty of cold water in which to wash the copies after they have been exposed to the sunlight. The outlet of an ordinary sink may be closed by placing a piece of paper over it with a weight on top to keep the paper down, and the sink filled with water, if the sink is large enough to lay the copy in.

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* Taken from The Locomotive.

If it is not, it is better to make a water-tight box 5 or 6 in deep, and 6 in wider and longer than the drawing to be copied.

(9) A good quality of white book-paper.

The following directions are to be followed:

Dissolve the chemicals in cold water in these proportions: 1 oz of citrate of iron and ammonia; 1 oz of red prussiate of potash; and 8 oz of water. They may all be put into a bottle together and shaken up. Ten minutes will suffice to dissolve them.

Lay a sheet of the paper to be sensitized on a smooth table or board, pour a little of the solution into the earthen dish or plate, and apply a good even coating of it to the paper with the brush. Then tack the paper to a board by two adjacent corners, and set it in a dark place to dry. One hour is sufficient for the drying. Place the paper, with its sensitized side up, on the board on which you have smoothly tacked the white flannel cloth; lay the tracing to be copied on top of it; on top of all lay the glass plate, being careful that paper and tracing are both smooth and in perfect contact with each other, and lay the whole thing out in the sunlight. Between eleven and two o'clock in the summer-time, on a clear day, from 6 to 10 minutes will be sufficiently long to expose it; at other seasons a longer time will be required. If the location does not admit of direct sunlight, the printing may be done in the shade, or even on a cloudy day; but from 1 to 2½ hours will be required for exposure. A little experience will soon enable any one to judge of the proper time for exposure on different days. After exposure, place the print in the sink or trough of water before mentioned, and wash thoroughly, letting it soak from 3 to 5 minutes. Upon immersion in the water, the drawing, hardly visible before, will appear in clear white lines on a dark-blue ground. After washing, tack up against the wall, or other convenient place, by the corners, to dry. This finishes the operation, which is very simple and thorough. After the copy is dry, it can be written on with a common pen and a solution of common soda, which makes a white line.

Alternate Recipe for Making Blue-Prints. The following is an alternative recipe to the one given above. The paper should be prepared by floating it for one minute in a solution of ferricyanide of potassium (red prussiate of potash), 1 oz, and water, 5 oz. It should then be dried in a dark room, afterwards exposed beneath the negative until the dark shades have assumed a deep blue color, and immersed in a solution of water, 2 oz, and bichloride of mercury, 1 gr. The print should be washed, immersed in a hot solution of oxalic acid, 4 drm, and water, 4 oz, washed again and dried. Where a copy of a drawing is to be made the prepared paper is placed, sensitive side uppermost, on a flat board covered with two or three thicknesses of blanket or its equivalent. A tracing of the drawing is made, laid on the sensitized paper and held in place by a sheet of glass clamped to the board. The sensitized paper is exposed to the sunlight from 4 to 10 minutes or to a clear sky from 20 to 30 minutes and then removed, washed and dried. The only requisite as to paper is that it must stand washing. Prepared paper may be purchased.

Black-Line Copies from Tracings. The directions for making the sensitizing solution used in this process are as follows: Dissolve separately, gum arabic, 13 dr, in 17 oz water; tartaric acid, 13 dr, in 6 oz 6 dr water; persulphite of iron, 8 dr, in 6 oz 6 dr of water. Pour the third solution into the second, stir thoroughly, and then pour the resulting mixture into the first, the stirring being continued. When the mixture is complete add slowly, still stirring, 3 fl oz and 3 drm of liquid acid perchloride of iron; filter into a bottle and keep in the dark. Use a strong well-sized paper, apply a thin, smooth coat of the solution with a large brush or sponge, and then dry in a dark room with moderate heat. The paper should be yellowish in tint and will not keep long. Place the tracing, made with very black ink, in the printing-frame, the drawing being in close contact with the glass, and place over it the sensitized paper, with the prepared side in contact with the back of the tracing. After an exposure of 10 or 12 minutes, the print should show a yellow drawing on a white ground. Take the print from the frame and float for a minute, face down, in a developing bath of gallic acid, or tannin, from 31 to 46 gr; oxalic acid, 1¼ gr; and water, 34 oz. Then plunge it in clear water, rinse well and dry. The orange-yellow lines will be changed into a permanent black.

Brown-Line Copies from Tracings. The directions for making the sensitizing solution used in this process are as follows: Dissolve gelatine, 6 gr; water, 1 oz; swell in cold water, give water-bath and add tartaric acid, 8 oz; silver nitrate, 9 gr; and ammonia citrate of iron, 40 gr. Filter in a subdued light. Print in a bright light until slightly darker than ordinary printing-out paper; wash for 5 minutes; immerse in a 2½% solution of hypo until desired color is obtained; and wash and dry. Blue-prints may be turned to a rich-brown color by immersing in a solution of caustic soda the size of a bean dissolved in 5 oz of water, until the blue has changed to orange-yellow. They are then washed thoroughly, immersed in a bath of water in which has been dissolved a heaping teaspoonful of tannic acid, rinsed in clear water and dried. Paper may be sized for brown-prints by soaking it in a mixture of 90 gr of arrowroot and 5 oz of cold water, rubbed into a cream and mixed with 20 gr of glucose and 5 oz of hot water. The mixture should be boiled 2 minutes and then permitted to cool before use.

HORSE-POWER,* PULLEYS, GEARS, BELTING AND SHAFTING

Horse-Power. A horse can travel 400 yd at a walk in 4½ min, at a trot in 2 min, and at a gallop in 1 min; he occupies at a picket 3 ft by 9 ft; and his average weight is 1 000 lb. An AVERAGE HORSE carrying 225 lb can travel 25 miles in a day of 8 hr. A DRAUGHT-HORSE can draw 1 600 lb 23 miles a day, weight of carriage included. In a HORSE-MILL a horse moves at the rate of 3 ft in a second. The diameter of the track should not be less than 25 ft.

A Horse-Power, in Machinery, is estimated at 33 000 lb, raised 1 ft in a minute; but as a horse can exert that force but 6 hr a day, one MACHINERY HORSE-POWER is equivalent to that of four horses.

Rules to Determine the Size and Speed of Pulleys or Gears. The driving-pulley is called the DRIVER, and the driven pulley the DRIVEN. If the number of teeth in the gears are used instead of the diameter, in these calculations, number of teeth must be substituted wherever diameter occurs.

(1) **To Find the Diameter of the Driver,** the diameter of the driven and its revolutions, and also revolutions of driver, being given. Multiply the diameter of the driven by its revolutions, and divide the product by the revolutions of the driver; the quotient will give the diameter of the driver.

(2) **To Find the Diameter of the Driven,** the revolutions of the driven, also the diameter and revolutions of the driver, being given. Multiply the diameter of the driver by its revolutions, and divide the product by the revolutions of the driven; the quotient will give the diameter of the driven.

(3) **To Find the Revolutions of the Driver,** the diameter and revolutions of the driven, also the diameter of the driver, being given. Multiply the diameter

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* See, also, pages 1230 and 1311.

of the driven by its revolutions, and divide the product by the diameter of the driver; the quotient will give the revolutions of the driver.

(4) **To Find the Revolutions of the Driven,** the diameter and revolutions of the driver, also the diameter of the driven, being given. Multiply the diameter of the driver by its revolutions, and divide the product by the diameter of the driven; the quotient will give the revolutions of the driven.

Horse-Power Transmitted by Belting. The efficiency of belting to transmit power, or to turn a wheel or PULLEY, depends upon the width and thickness of the belt, the arc-contact with the pulley, the position of the belt, whether horizontal, vertical, or at an angle, and the velocity. The greater the velocity and the thicker the belt, the more power it will transmit. A belt running vertically or inclined will transmit less power than one running horizontally, but in figuring the horse-power capacity of belting only the velocity, width and thickness of belt are usually considered, it being assumed that the pulleys are of proper size and located so that the belt will be nearly horizontal. Belts are commonly assumed to be of LEATHER, unless otherwise designated. The term SINGLE BELT is used to designate a belt made of a single thickness of cowhide leather. A DOUBLE BELT is made by cementing and riveting together two thicknesses of leather. There is no standard thickness for either single or double belts.

Rules. Many rules have been given for determining the horse-power that belting will transmit.* Those commonly used are:

(1) For Single Belts. Multiply the width, in inches, by the velocity in feet per minute and divide by 1 000.

(2) For Double Belts. Multiply the width by the velocity and divide by 700. The answer is the number of horse-powers.

Some authorities give divisors of 800 and 733 for single belts, and 550 and 513 for double belts. For the velocity of the belt multiply the number of revolutions per minute of either pulley by the circumference of that pulley.

Notes on Belting. For continuous use a double belt is the most economical in the long run, except on very small pulleys or for very light duty. Triplex and quadruple belts are sometimes used for very heavy duty, but such belts are not commonly carried in stock. Single belts should always be used with the hair-side next the pulley. The belt-speed for maximum economy should be from 4 000 to 4 500 ft per minute. IDLER-PULLEYS work most satisfactorily when located on the slack side of the belt about one-quarter way from the driving-pulley. Belts are more durable and work more satisfactorily when made narrow and thick than when made wide and thin. As belts increase in width they should also be made thicker. For dynamo-work or electric motors the ends of the belt should be fastened together by splicing and cementing instead of by lacing. For all other cases the ends are fastened by hooks or lacing. Belts should be cleaned and greased every 5 to 6 months.

Distance from Center to Center of Shafts.* In locating shafts that are to be connected with each other by belts, care should be taken to separate them by a proper distance. This distance should be such as to allow a gentle sag to the belt when in motion.

Rule. A general rule may be stated thus: Where narrow belts are to be run over small pulleys, 15 ft is a good average, the belt having a sag of from 1½ to 2 in. The minimum distance between shafts is about 10 ft. For larger belts, working on larger pulleys, a distance of from 20 to 25 ft does well, with a sag of from 2½ to 4 in. For main belts, working on very large pulleys, the distance should be from 25 to 30 ft, the belts working well with a sag of from 4 to 5 in If too great a distance is attempted, the belt will have an unsteady flapping motion, which will destroy both the belt and the machinery.

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* For a discussion of belting, belt-dressing, care of belting, shafting, etc., see Kent's Mechanical Engineers' Pocket-Book.

Arrangement of Belts and Pulleys.* If possible to avoid it, connected shafts should never be placed one directly over the other, as in such case the belt must be kept very tight to do the work. For this purpose belts should be carefully selected of well-stretched leather. It is desirable that the angle of the belt with the floor should not exceed 45°. It is also desirable to locate the shafting and machinery so that belts will run off from each shaft in opposite directions, as this arrangement will relieve the bearings from the friction that would result if all pulled one way on the shaft. If possible, machinery should be so placed that the direction of the belt-motion will be from the top of the driving to the top of the driven pulley, so that the sag will increase the arc of contact. The pulley should be a little wider than the belt required for the work, and should have a crowning face, except where the belt is to be shifted. The motion of driving should run with and not against the laps of the belts.

Rubber Belts are cheaper than leather belts and should always be used in wet places, but for ordinary use in dry places they are not as durable as leather belts. They should always be kept free from grease or animal oils. If they slip, their inside surfaces should be moistened with boiled linseed-oil. Some fine chalk, sprinkled on over the oil, will help the belt.

Rule for Finding the Lengths of Belts. Add the diameter of the two pulleys together, multiply by 3¼, divide the product by 2, add to the quotient twice the distance between the center of the shafts, and the sum will be the required length.

The Horse-Power that Shafting will Transmit

Diameter of shaft		Revolutions per minute						
		100	150	200	250	300	350	400
in	16th	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.
0	15	1.2	1.7	2.4	3.1	3.6	4.3	5.0
1	3	2.4	3.7	4.9	6.1	7.3	8.5	9.7
1	7	4.3	6.4	8.5	10.5	12.7	14.8	16.9
1	11	6.7	10.1	13.4	16.7	20.1	23.4	26.8
1	15	10.0	15.0	20.0	25.0	30.0	35.0	40.0
2	3	14.3	21.4	28.5	35.6	42.7	49.8	57.0
2	7	19.5	29.3	39.0	48.7	58.5	68.2	78.0
2	11	26.0	39.0	52.0	65.0	78.0	87.0	104.0
2	15	33.8	50.6	67.5	84.4	101.3	118.2	135.0
3	3	43.0	64.4	85.8	107.3	128.7	150.3	171.6
3	7	53.6	79.4	107.2	134.0	158.8	187.6	214 4
3	11	65.9	97.9	121.8	164.8	195.7	230.7	243.6
3	15	80.0	120.0	160.0	200.0	240.0	280.0	320.0
4	7	113.9	170.8	227.8	284.7	341.7	398.6	455.6
4	15	156.3	234.4	312.5	390.6	468.7	546.8	625.0

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* See Kent's Mechanical Engineers' Pocket-Book.

CHAIN-BLOCKS, HOISTS, HOOKS, ETC.

General Description. These are portable hoisting-devices which enable one man to raise a very heavy load and which sustain the load at any point. In general, they resemble pulleys operated by chains. Since the invention of the differential pulley-block by T. A. Weston, about the year 1863, chain-blocks have come into very general use for economical hoisting, particularly where it is desired to hold the load at any point. Chain-blocks are of three general classes:

(1) The Differential Block. This is the original and the simplest and cheapest form of self-sustaining pulley;

(2) The Screw-Block or Worm-Geared Block. Of these, the Yale & Towne duplex block is the most efficient type;

(3) The Triplex Block. This is spur-geared.

Differential and worm-geared blocks of all kinds depend upon friction to prevent the load from running down. In the triplex block a separate device is introduced which automatically holds the load safely, and yet enables it to be lowered with slight effort and at high velocity but without acceleration or danger. This is the most efficient of all chain-blocks, and the most economical wherever quick work is wanted and economy in time and labor sought. For information as to the kind of block best adapted to any particular service, the manufacturers should be consulted. The following data on the power and efficiency of chain-blocks were supplied by the Yale & Towne Manufacturing Company.

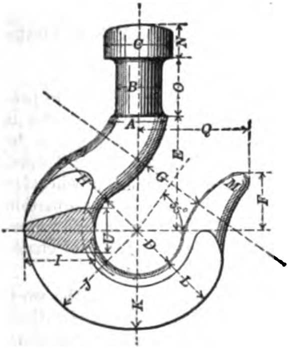
Power and Efficiency of Chain-Hoists. The table below gives the work to be done by the operator at the hand-pulling chain with each size of the various kinds of chain-blocks in lifting the stated capacity, that is, the amount of work or pulling required to lift this load ONE FOOT by stating the force exerted in pounds and the distance in feet of operating-chains to be pulled. The product of these two factors determines the efficiency of the block and the ease and speed of hoisting.

Work Done by Operator with Chain-Blocks

Capacity, tons	Triplex spur-geared, lb ft	Duplex worm-geared, lb ft	Differential lb ft
½	62× 21	68× 40	122×24
1	82× 31	87× 59	216×30
1½	110× 35	94× 80	246×36
2	120× 42	115× 93	308×42
3	114× 69	132×126	557×38
4	124× 84	142×155	....
5	110×126	145×195	....
6	130×126	145×252	....
8	135×168	160×310	....
10	140×210	160×390	....
12	130×126	....	....
16	135×168	....	....
20	140×210	....	....

These blocks have two hand-chains. The figures give the number of feet to be operated on each hand-chain. A man cannot pull more than his own weight on the operating chains, and can pull faster in proportion as the pull required is lighter. The maximum pull usually required of one man is 82 lb, and he will do more work with less fatigue if the hand-chain pull is not over

40 lb, because he can then pull the chain hand over hand a little more than twice as fast as he could when pulling twice as hard. When the hand-chain pull is less than 20 lb the speed of hoisting an equal load is diminished, because the man is tired by moving his arms too rapidly, and cannot do as much work as with a heavier pull. The best result is obtained by using a chain-block which has a capacity of double the usual load. The operator then works to the best advantage with average loads, and occasional heavy loads are easily handled without overstraining either the operator or the chain-block, which should never be used beyond its capacity for fear of stretching the chain so that it will not work smoothly.



Proportions of Hooks.* For economy of manufacture hooks of different sizes are made from some regular commercial sizes of round iron. The basis, or initial point, in each case is, therefore, the size of the iron of which the hook is to be made, and it is indicated by the dimension *A* in the diagram. The dimension *D* is arbitrarily assumed. The other dimensions, as given by the formulas, are those which, while preserving a proper bearing face on the interior of the hook for the ropes or chains which may be passed through it, give the greatest resistance to spreading and to ultimate rupture which the amount of material in the original bar admits of. The symbol Δ is used in the formulas to indicate the NOMINAL CAPACITY of the hook in tons of 2 000 lb. The formulas which determine the lines of the other parts of the hooks of the several sizes are as follows, all the measurements being expressed in inches:

$D = 0.5\,\Delta + 1.25$
$E = 0.64\,\Delta + 1.60$
$F = 0.33\,\Delta + 0.85$
$H = 1.08\,A$
$I = 1.33\,A$
$J = 1.20\,A$
$K = 1.13\,A$

$G = 0.75\,D$
$O = 0.363\,\Delta + 0.66$
$Q = 0.64\,\Delta + 1.60$
$L = 1.05\,A$
$M = 0.50\,A$
$N = 0.85\,B - 0.16$
$U = 0.866\,A$

Example. To find the dimension *D*, for a 2-ton hook. The formula is:

$$D = 0.5\,\Delta + 1.25$$

and as $\Delta = 2$, the dimension *D* by the formula is found to be 2¼ in. The dimensions *A*, are necessarily based upon the ordinary merchant sizes of round iron. The sizes which it has been found best to select are the following:

Capacities of hooks	⅛	¼	½	1	1½	3	2	4	5	6	8	10	tons
Dimension *A*	⅝	1¹⁄₁₆	¾	1¹⁄₁₆	1¼	1⅜	1¾	2	2¼	2½	2⅞	3¼	inches

The formulas which give the sections of the hook at the several points are all expressed in terms of *A*, and can therefore be readily ascertained by reference to the foregoing scale.

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* By Henry R. Towne, in his Treatise on Cranes, which includes the results of an extensive experimental and mathematical investigation.

Example. To find the dimension I, in a 2-ton hook. The formula is

$$I = 1.33\,A$$

and for a 2-ton hook, $A = 1\frac{3}{8}$ in. Therefore I, in a 2-ton hook, is found to be $1\frac{13}{16}$ in.

Manner of Failure of Hooks. Experiment has shown that hooks made according to the above formulas will give way first by the opening of the jaw, which, however, will not occur except with a load much in excess of the nominal capacity of the hook. This yielding of the hook when overloaded becomes a source of safety, as it constitutes a signal of danger which cannot easily be overlooked, and which must proceed to a considerable length before rupture occurs and the load is dropped. A comparison of these hooks with most of those in ordinary use shows that the latter are, as a rule, badly proportioned, and frequently dangerously weak.

BELLS

Dimensions and Weights of Church-Bells

Manufactured by Meneely Bell Company, Troy, N. Y.

Bells		Mountings			
Weights, lb	Medium tones	Diameters, in	Sizes of frames, outside, in	Diameters of wheels, ft	in
400	D	27	42×42	4	4
450	C♯	28	42×42	4	4
500	C	29	45×47	4	4
550	C	30	45×47	4	4
600	B	31	45×47	4	9
700	B	33	48×48	5	6
800	B♭	34	48×54	5	6
900	A	36	54×54	5	9
1 000	A	37	54×54	5	9
1 100	A	38	54×59	5	9
1 200	A♭	39	56×59	6	3
1 300	A♭	40	56×59	6	3
1 400	G	41	60×60	6	6
1 500	G	42	60×60	6	6
1 600	G	43	60×60	6	6
1 800	F♯	45	65×68	7	
2 000	F	46	65×68	7	
2 100	F	47	65×68	7	
2 300	E	49	70×72	7	6
2 500	E	50	70×72	7	6
2 800	E♭	51	74×78	8	
3 000	E♭	53	74×78	8	
3 500	D	56	74×78	8	6
4 000	C♯	58	78×81	9	
4 500	C	61	78×81	9	
5 000	C	63	84×84	9	
5 500	B	65	84×84	9	
6 000	B♭	67	84×84	9	6
6 500	B♭	68	90×90	9	6
7 000*	B♭	69	101×90	9	6

* A notable example of a 7 000-lb bell is the large bell of the peal in the tower of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Building, in New York.

The actual weights usually exceed the patterns, noted above, from 2 to 3%.

Meneely School-Bells

Bells		Mountings
Weights, lb	Diameters, in	Sizes of frames, outside, ft in ft in
100	17	2 6 × 2 8
125	18½	2 6 × 2 8
150	19½	2 6 × 2 8
200	21½	2 8 × 3 0
250	23	3 0 × 3 2
300	24½	3 0 × 3 4
350	26	3 0 × 3 4

Sizes of Rope for Bells

	Diameter, in
For bells of less than 500 lb..................	½
For bells of 500 to 800 lb....................	⅝
For bells of 800 to 1 800 lb..................	¾
For bells above 1 800 lb......................	⅞ to 1

The Largest Bells in the World *

Names and locations of bells	Date cast	Actual vibration	Key-note	Diameter, in	Sound-bow		Weight, lb
					Inches	Stroke	
Moscow, Tzar Kolokol †.	1733	74	D	272	23	0.84	443 772
Burmah, Mengoon......	....	94	F♯	203?	16?	0.80	201 600
Moscow, St. Ivan's......	1819	105	G♯	185	14.75	0.80	127 350
Pekin, Great Bell.......	....	......	....	156	......	......	120 000
Burmah, Maha Ganda..	....	125	B	155	12.5	0.80	95 000
Nishni Novgorod........	....	125	B	151	12	0.80	69 664
Moscow, Church of Redeemer...............	1879	141	C♯	136.3?	10.6	0.80	60 736
Nankin, China..........	....	......	....	112	......	......	45 000
London, St. Paul's......	1881	157	E♭	114.25	8.75	0.76	42 000
Olmutz, Bohemia........	....	157	E♭	121	9.125	0.75	40 320
Vienna, Austria.........	1711	157	E♭	118	9.5	0.80	40 200
Westminster, London....	1856	166	E	113.5	9.375	0.83	35 620
Erfurt, Saxony..........	1487	176	F	103.6	9.75	0.75	30 800
Notre Dame, Paris......	1680	166	E	103	7.5	0.73	28 670
Montreal, Canada.......	1847	176	F	103	7.8	0.76	28 560
York, England..........	1845	187	F♯	100	8	0.80	24 080
St. Peter's, Rome.......	1786	187	F♯	97.25	7.5	0.77	18 000
Great Tom, Oxford......	1680	210	G♯	84	6.125	0.73	17 024
Cologne, Germany......	1477	198	G	95	7.2	0.76	16 016
Brussels, Belgium.......	....	210	G♯	95.81	7.75	0.71	15 848
State-house, Philadelphia	1875	198	G	88	6.375	0.73	13 000
Lincoln, England.......	1834	210	G♯	82.85	6	0.73	12 096
St. Paul's, London......	1716	222	A	81	6.08	0.75	11 500
Exeter, England.........	1675	210	G♯	76	5	0.66	10 080
Old Lincoln, England...	1610	249	B	75.5	5.94	0.78	9 856
Westminster, London....	1857	249	B	72	5.75	0.79	8 960

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* John W. Nystrom, in the Journal of the Franklin Institute, Philadelphia.

† This bell is fractured and has not been rung for many years.

SYMBOLS FOR THE APOSTLES AND SAINTS

From the constant occurrence of symbols in the edifices of the Middle Ages and many of the cathedrals of the present day, the following list of symbols, as commonly attached to the apostles and saints, may be found useful:

Holy Apostles

St. Peter. Bears a key, or two keys with different wards.
St. Andrew. Leans on a cross so called from him; called by heralds the saltire.
St. John the Evangelist. With a chalice, in which is a winged serpent. When this symbol is used, the eagle, another symbol of him, is never given.
St. Bartholomew. With a flaying-knife.
St. James the Less. A fuller's staff bearing a small square banner.
St. James the Greater. A pilgrim's staff, hat and escalop-shell.
St. Thomas. An arrow, or with a long staff.
St. Simon. A long saw.
St. Jude. A club.
St. Matthias. A hatchet.
St. Philip. Leans on a spear or has a long cross in the shape of a T.
St. Matthew. A knife or dagger.
St. Mark. A winged lion.
St. Luke. A bull.
St. John. An eagle.
St. Paul. An elevated sword, or two swords in saltire.
St. John the Baptist. An Agnus Dei.
St. Stephen. With stones in his lap.

Saints

St. Agnes. A lamb at her feet.
St. Cecilia. With an organ.
St. Clement. With an anchor.
St. David. Preaching on a hill.
St. Denis. With his head in his hands.
St. George. With the dragon.
St. Nicholas. With three naked children in a tub, in the end whereof rests his pastoral staff.
St. Vincent. On the rack.

A CIRCULAR OF ADVICE ON PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE, BY THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS*

Introductory. The American Institute of Architects, seeking to maintain a high standard of practice and conduct on the part of its members as a safeguard of the important financial, technical and esthetic interests entrusted to them, offers the following advice relative to professional practice: The profession of architecture calls for men of the highest integrity, business capacity and artistic ability. The architect is entrusted with financial undertakings in which his honesty of purpose must be above suspicion; he acts as professional adviser to his client and his advice must be absolutely disinterested; he is charged with the exercise of judicial functions as between client and contractors and must act with entire impartiality; he has moral responsibilities to his professional associates and subordinates; finally, he is engaged in a profession which carries with it grave responsibility to the public. These duties and responsibilities cannot be properly discharged unless his motives, conduct and ability are such as to command respect and confidence. No set of rules can be framed which will particularize all the duties of the architect in his various relations to his clients, to contractors, to his professional brethren, and to the public. The following principles should, however, govern the conduct of members of the profession and should serve as a guide in circumstances other than those enumerated:

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* The American Institute of Architects, Document 107, Washington, D. C., May 10, 1914. Reprinted by permission. This circular relates to the principles of professional practice and the canons of ethics.

(1) **On the Architect's Status.** The architect's relation to his client is primarily that of PROFESSIONAL ADVISER; this relation continues throughout the entire course of his service. When, however, a contract has been executed between his client and a contractor by the terms of which the architect becomes the official interpreter of its conditions and the judge of its performance, an additional relation is created under which it is incumbent upon the architect to side neither with client nor contractor, but to use his powers under the contract to enforce its faithful performance by both parties. The fact that the architect's payment comes from the client does not invalidate his obligation to act with impartiality to both parties.

(2) **On Preliminary Drawings and Estimates.** The architect at the outset should impress upon the client the importance of sufficient time for the preparation of drawings and specifications. It is the duty of the architect to make or secure PRELIMINARY ESTIMATES when requested, but he should acquaint the client with their conditional character and inform him that complete and final figures can be had only from complete and final drawings and specifications. If an unconditional limit of cost be imposed before such drawings are made and estimated, the architect must be free to make such adjustments as seem to him necessary. Since the architect should assume no responsibility that may prevent him from giving his client disinterested advice, he should not, by bond or otherwise, guarantee any estimate or contract.

(3) **On Superintendence and Expert Services.** On all work except the simplest, it is to the interest of the owner to employ a SUPERINTENDENT or CLERK OF THE WORKS. In many engineering problems and in certain specialized esthetic problems, it is to his interest to have the services of special experts and the architect should so inform him. The experience and special knowledge of the architect make it to the advantage of the owner that these persons, although paid by the owner, should be selected by the architect under whose direction they are to work.

(4) **On the Architect's Charges.** The SCHEDULE OF CHARGES of the American Institute of Architects is recognized as a proper minimum of payment. The locality or the nature of the work, the quality of services to be rendered, the skill of the practitioner or other circumstances frequently justify a higher charge than that indicated by the schedule.

(5) **On Payment for Expert Service.** The architect when retained as an EXPERT, whether in connection with competitions or otherwise, should receive a compensation proportionate to the responsibility and difficulty of the service. No duty of the architect is more exacting than such service, and the honor of the profession is involved in it. Under no circumstances should experts knowingly name prices in competition with each other.

(6) **On Selection of Bidders or Contractors.** The architect should advise the client in the selection of BIDDERS and in the AWARD OF THE CONTRACT. In

advising that none but trustworthy bidders be invited and that the award be made only to contractors who are reliable and competent, the architect protects the interests of his client.

(7) **On Duties to the Contractor.** As the architect decides whether or not the intent of his plans and specifications is properly carried out, he should take special care to see that these drawings and specifications are complete and accurate, and he should never call upon the contractor to make good oversights or errors in them nor attempt to shirk responsibility by indefinite clauses in the contract or specifications.

(8) **On Engaging in the Building Trades.** The architect should not directly or indirectly engage in any of the BUILDING TRADES. If he has any financial interest in any building material or device, he should not specify or use it without the knowledge and approval of his client.

(9) **On Accepting Commissions or Favors.** The architect should not receive any COMMISSION or any substantial service from a contractor or from any interested person other than his client.

(10) **On Encouraging Good Workmanship.** The large powers with which the architect is invested should be used with judgment. While he must condemn bad work, he should commend good work. Intelligent initiative on the part of craftsmen and workmen should be recognized and encouraged and the architect should make evident his appreciation of the dignity of the ARTISAN'S FUNCTION.

(11) **On Offering Services Gratuitously.** The seeking out of a possible client and the offering to him of professional services on approval and WITHOUT COMPENSATION, unless warranted by personal or previous business relations, tends to lower the dignity and standing of the profession and is to be condemned.

(12) **On Advertising.** ADVERTISING tends to lower the dignity of the profession and is therefore condemned.

(13) **On Signing Buildings and Use of Titles.** The display of the architect's name upon a building under construction is condemned, but the unobtrusive SIGNATURE OF BUILDINGS after completion has the approval of the Institute. The use of INITIALS designating membership in the Institute is proper in connection with any professional service and is to be encouraged as helping to make known the nature of the honor they imply.

(14) **On Competitions.** An architect should not take part in a competition as a COMPETITOR or JUROR unless the competition is to be conducted according to the best practice and usage of the profession, as evidenced by its having received the approval of the Institute, nor should he continue to act as PROFESSIONAL ADVISER after it has been determined that the program cannot be so drawn as to receive such approval. When an architect has been authorized to submit sketches for a given project, no other architect should submit sketches for it until the owner has taken definite action on the first sketches, since, as far as the second architect is concerned, a competition is thus established. Except as an authorized competitor, an architect may not attempt to secure work for which a competition has been instituted. He may not attempt to influence the award in a competition in which he has submitted drawings. He may not accept the commission to do the work for which a competition has been instituted if he has acted in an advisory capacity either in drawing the program or in making the award.

(15) **On Injuring Others.** An architect should not falsely or maliciously injure, directly or indirectly, the professional reputation, prospects or business of a fellow architect.

(16) **On Undertaking the Work of Others.** An architect should not undertake a commission while the claim for compensation or damages or both, of an architect previously employed and whose employment has been terminated remains unsatisfied, unless such claim has been referred to arbitration or issue has been joined at law; or unless the architect previously employed neglects to press his claim legally; nor should he attempt to supplant a fellow architect after definite steps have been taken toward his employment.

(17) **On Duties to Students and Draughtsmen.** The architect should advise and assist those who intend making architecture their career. If the beginner must get his training solely in the office of an architect, the latter should assist him to the best of his ability by instruction and advice. An architect should urge his draughtsmen to avail themselves of educational opportunities. He should, as far as practicable, give encouragement to all worthy agencies and institutions for architectural education. While a thorough technical preparation is essential for the practice of architecture, architects cannot too strongly insist that it should rest upon a broad foundation of general culture.

(18) **On Duties to the Public and to Building Authorities.** An architect should be mindful of the public welfare and should participate in those movements for public betterment in which his special training and experience qualify him to act. He should not, even under his client's instructions, engage in or encourage any practices contrary to law or hostile to the public interest; for as he is not obliged to accept a given piece of work, he cannot, by urging that he has but followed his client's instructions, escape the condemnation attaching to his acts. An architect should support all public officials who have charge of building in the rightful performance of their legal duties. He should carefully comply with all building laws and regulations, and if any such appear to him unwise or unfair, he should endeavor to have them altered.

(19) **On Professional Qualifications.** The public has the right to expect that he who bears the TITLE OF ARCHITECT has the knowledge and ability needed for the proper invention, illustration and supervision of all building operations which he may undertake. Such qualifications alone justify the assumption of the title of architect.

The Canons of Ethics *

The Following Canons are Adopted by The American Institute of Architects as a general guide, yet the enumeration of particular duties should not be construed as a denial of the existence of others equally important although not specially mentioned. It should also be noted that the several sections indicate offenses of greatly varying degrees of gravity. It is unprofessional for an architect

(1) To engage directly or indirectly in any of the building trades.

(2) To guarantee an estimate or contract by bond or otherwise.

(3) To accept any commission or substantial service from a contractor or from any interested party other than the owner.

(4) To advertise.

(5) To take part in any competition which has not received the approval of the Institute or to continue to act as professional adviser after it has been determined that the program cannot be so drawn as to receive such approval.

(6) To attempt in any way, except as a duly authorized competitor, to secure work for which a competition is in progress.

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* Adopted, December 14-16, 1909. Revised, December 10-12, 1912.

(7) To attempt to influence, either directly or indirectly, the award of a competition in which he is a competitor.

(8) To accept the commission to do the work for which a competition has been instituted if he has acted in an advisory capacity, either in drawing the programme or in making the award.

(9) To injure falsely or maliciously, directly or indirectly, the professional reputation, prospects, or business of a fellow architect.

(10) To undertake a commission while the claim for compensation, or damages, or both, of an architect previously employed and whose employment has been terminated remains unsatisfied, until such claim has been referred to arbitration or issue has been joined at law, or unless the architect previously employed neglects to press his claim legally.

(11) To attempt to supplant a fellow architect after definite steps have been taken toward his employment, that is, by submitting sketches for a project for which another architect has been authorized to submit sketches.

(12) To compete knowingly with a fellow architect for employment on the basis of professional charges.

Professional Practice of Architects. Schedule of Proper Minimum Charges *

(1) The architect's professional services consist of the necessary conferences, the preparation of preliminary studies, working drawings, specifications, large scale and full-size detail drawings, and of the general direction and supervision of the work, for which, except as hereinafter mentioned, the minimum charge, based upon the total cost † of the work complete, is 6%.

(2) On residential work, alterations to existing buildings, monuments, furniture, decorative and cabinetwork and landscape-architecture, it is proper to make a higher charge than above indicated.

(3) The architect is entitled to compensation for articles purchased under his direction, even though not designed by him.

(4) If an operation is conducted under separate contracts, rather than under a general contract, it is proper to charge a special fee in addition to the charges mentioned elsewhere in this schedule.

(5) Where the architect is not otherwise retained, consultation-fees for professional advice are to be paid in proportion to the importance of the question involved and services rendered.

(6) Where heating, ventilating, mechanical, structural, electrical and sanitary problems are of such a nature as to require the services of a specialist, the owner is to pay for such services. Chemical and mechanical tests and surveys, when required, are to be paid for by the owner.

(7) Necessary traveling expenses are to be paid by the owner.

(8) If, after a definite scheme has been approved, changes in drawings, specifications, or other documents are required by the owner; or if the architect is put to extra labor or expense by the delinquency or insolvency of a contractor, the architect shall be paid for such additional services and expense.

(9) Payments to the Architect are due as his work progresses in the following order: Upon completion of the preliminary studies, one-fifth of the entire fee;

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* As revised at the Washington, D. C., Convention, December 15–17, 1908. Reprinted by permission.

† The total cost is to be interpreted as the cost of all materials and labor necessary to complete the work, plus contractors' profits and expenses, as such cost would be if all materials were new and all labor fully paid, at market prices current when the work was ordered.

upon completion of the specifications and general working drawings (exclusive of details), two-fifths additional, the remainder being due from time to time in proportion to the amount of service rendered. Until an actual estimate is received, charges are based upon the proposed cost of the work and payments received are on account of the entire fee.

(10) In case of the abandonment * or suspension of the work, the basis of settlement is to be as follows: For preliminary studies, a fee in accordance with the character and magnitude of the work; for preliminary studies, specifications and general working drawings (exclusive of details), three-fifths of the fee for complete services.

(11) The supervision of an architect (as distinguished from the continuous personal superintendence which may be secured by the employment of a clerk of the works or superintendent of construction) means such inspection by the architect or his deputy, of work in studios and shops or a building or other work in process of erection, completion or alteration, as he finds necessary to ascertain whether it is being executed in general conformity with his drawings and specifications or directions. He has authority to reject any part of the work which does not so conform and to order its removal and reconstruction. He has authority to act in emergencies that may arise in the course of construction, to order necessary changes, and to define the intent and meaning of the drawings and specifications. On operations where a clerk of the works or superintendent of construction is required, the architect shall employ such assistance at the owner's expense.

(12) Drawings and specifications, as instruments of service, are the property of the architect.

ARCHITECTURAL COMPETITIONS †

This Circular of Advice furnishes information as to the best methods of conducting architectural competitions and states the conditions which are prerequisite to participation in them by members of The American Institute of Architects. It does not apply to competitions for work to be erected elsewhere than in the United States, its territories and possessions.

The Attitude of The American Institute of Architects to Competitions. Since its foundation, more than fifty years ago (1857), The American Institute of Architects has given much attention to the conduct of ARCHITECTURAL COMPETITIONS. These contests, instituted when the direct selection of an architect could not be made, were for many years conducted without proper regulation and often in disregard of the interests both of the owner and of the competitors. The owner, totally unfamiliar with the intricacies of the subject, assumed, without skilled assistance, to prepare the programme, laying down, or more frequently ignoring, rules to govern procedure. With the growth of the country, the increase in expenditures for public and private buildings, and the increase in the number of architects, all the evils of ill-regulated competitions became more marked. Programmes varied from loose and careless forms, difficult to understand and often open to the suspicion that only the initiated knew what they meant, to over-elaborate ones necessitating useless study of details and needless drawings. Those instituting the competition often had no legal authority to pay any competitors, still less to employ the winner. There was great economic waste, the total cost of participation exceeding the total net profit accruing to the profession from work secured through competitions. Architects have learned that the outcome of a competition, unless governed by well-defined agreements, is largely a matter of chance. The owner has, to be sure, a choice of designs, but he is no more likely to make the wisest selection or to obtain the best building than if he selects his architect directly, guided by the results previously achieved by the men he is considering. When a competition is necessary or desirable it should be of such form as to establish equitable relations between the owner and the competitors. To insure this:

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* The editor is advised (February, 1915) by the chairman of the Committee on Schedule of Charges of The American Institute of Architects, that in case of the abandonment of the work, or in case the architect should be discharged for any reason, or should not superintend the work, this charge for full-size details is to be an addition to the sum named as compensation for working drawings and specifications.

† The American Institute of Architects, Document 114. Reprinted by permission. Authorized by the 43d annual convention at Washington, D. C., December 14–16, 1909; issued March 30, 1910; amended June 10, 1910, and January 3, 1911; ratified by the 44th annual convention at San Francisco, January 16–21, 1911; reaffirmed by the 45th annual convention at Washington, D. C.; amended January 3, 1912, as authorized by the convention; amended December 9, 1912, and ratified by the 46th annual convention at Washington, D. C., December 10–12, 1912; amended December 2, 1913, and ratified by the 47th annual convention at New Orleans, La., December 3–5, 1913; amended and ratified by the 48th annual convention at Washington, D. C., December 2–4, 1914.

(1) The REQUIREMENTS should be clear and definite, and the statement of them, since it must be in technical terms, should be drawn by one familiar with such terms.

(2) The COMPETENCY of all competing should be assured. The drawings submitted in a competition are evidence, only in part, of the ability of the architect to execute the building. The owner, for his own protection, should admit to the competition only those to whom he would be willing to entrust the work; that is, to men of known honesty and competence.

(3) The AGREEMENT between the owner and the competitors should be definite, as becomes a plain statement of business relations.

(4) The JUDGMENT should be based on knowledge, and since ideas presented in the form of drawings are intelligible only to a trained mind, judgment should not be rendered until the owner has received competent technical advice as to the merits of those ideas.

To sum up: To insure the best results, a competition should have (1) a clear programme, (2) competent competitors, (3) a business agreement, (4) a fair judgment.

Fifteen years ago (1900) many competitions had none of these provisions and few had all of them. The commonest form of competition was one that was open to all, had a programme prepared by a layman, was judged by the owner without professional assistance, contained no agreement, and made no provision to eliminate the incompetent. All this demanded correction. The Institute, seeking a means of reform, perceived at once that its relation to the owner could be only an ADVISORY one. It might advise him how to hold a competition, but it could go no further. To architects in general the Institute could scarcely presume to offer even its advice, but being a professional body charged with maintaining ethical standards among its own members, its duty was to see that they did not take part in competitions that fell below a reasonable standard.

It was, therefore, voted in convention of the Institute that members should be free to take part in competitions only when their terms had received the APPROVAL OF THE INSTITUTE. Thereupon the Institute fully stated the principles which should govern competitions and defined the conditions prerequisite to the giving of its approval. These are contained in the CIRCULAR OF ADVICE here following, which is intended as a guide to all who are interested in competitions. Committees of the Institute throughout the country are authorized to give its approval to competitions when properly conducted, but unless a programme has received such approval members of the Institute do not accept a position as competitor or juror, nor does a member continue to act as professional adviser after it becomes evident that the owner will not permit his programme to be brought into harmony with the principles approved by the Institute.

The position thus taken by the Institute is by no means an arbitrary one, since it governs the action of none but its own members. To the owner its service has been of great value in giving him information and useful advice and in saving him from the delays, cost and disappointment incident to the amateur conduct of a competition. The owner who disregards the standard set by the Institute finds it increasingly difficult to get men of standing in the profession to enter. He who raises his programme to that standard has no difficulty in securing the services of architects of the greatest ability. Even in the few years since the Institute first made its firm stand against the abuses of competitions, the effect of that action has been far greater than could have been foreseen. It has not altogether eliminated ill-regulated competitions, but it has greatly reduced their number, and it is safe to say that no competition of prime importance is now conducted except in accordance with the principles stated in the following CIRCULAR OF ADVICE:

A Circular of Advice and Information Relative to the Conduct of Architectural Competitions

Competitions are instituted to enable the OWNER * to choose an ARCHITECT through comparison of the designs submitted. The American Institute of Architects, believing that the interests of both owner and competitors are best served by fair and equitable agreements between them, issues this circular as a STATEMENT OF THE PRINCIPLES which should underlie such agreements. The Institute does not assume to dictate the owner's course in conducting competitions, but aims to assist him by advising the adoption of such methods as experience has proved to be just and wise. So important, however, does the adoption of such methods appear to architects that members of the Institute do not take part in competitions except under conditions based on this circular and specifically set forth in Articles (16) and (18).

(1) **On Competitions in General.** A competition exists when two or more architects prepare sketches at the same time for the same project, but no architect who prepares drawings for comparison in problems of an altruistic or educational nature, where the problem does not involve a definite proposed building operation, shall be held as having taken part in a competition, within the meaning of this circular of advice.

(2) **On the Employment of a Professional Adviser.** No competition shall be instituted without the aid of a competent ADVISER. He should be an architect of the highest standing and his selection should be the owner's first step. He must be chosen with the greatest care, as the success of the competition will depend largely upon his experience and ability. The EXPERT'S ADVICE is of great value to the owner, for example, in so drawing the programme as to safeguard him against the employment of an architect who submits a design largely exceeding in cost of execution the sum at his disposal, and in helping him to avoid the disappointment, embarrassment and litigation which so often result from competitions conducted without expert technical advice. The DUTIES

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* The person, corporation or other entity instituting a competition, whether acting directly or through representatives, is herein called the OWNER.

OF THE EXPERT are to advise those who hold the competition as to its form and terms, to draw up the programme, to advise in choosing the competitors, to answer their questions, and to conduct the competition.

(3) On the Forms of Competition. The following forms of competition are recognized:

LIMITED. In this form, participation is limited to a certain number of architects whose names should be stated in the programme and to any one of whom the owner is willing to entrust the work. In a LIMITED COMPETITION the competitors may be chosen (a) from among architects whose ability is so evident that no formal inquiry into their qualifications is needed, or (b) from among architects who make application accompanied by evidence of their education and experience. The limited form has the advantage that the owner and the professional adviser may meet competitors and discuss the terms of the competition with them before the issuance of the programme. Form (a) is the simplest and most direct form of competition.

OPEN. The Institute believes that a competition OPEN TO ALL who wish to participate without regard to their qualifications is detrimental to the interests alike of owner and of architects. It will, therefore, give its approval to that form only when conducted in two stages, since by that means alone it is possible to insure anonymity of submission while safeguarding the owner's interests against the selection as winner of a person lacking the qualifications set forth in Article (4) hereof. In this form there is a FIRST STAGE open to all, in which the competitive drawings are of the slightest nature, involving only the fundamental ideas of the solution. These drawings are accompanied by evidence of the competitor's education and experience. From the first stage a small number who have thus demonstrated their competence to design the work and to carry it successfully into execution are chosen to take part in a FINAL and strictly ANONYMOUS STAGE involving competitive drawings of the type indicated in Article (8) hereof.

(4) On the Qualification of Competitors. The interests of the owner may be seriously prejudiced by admitting to a limited competition or to the second stage of an open competition any architect who has not established to the satisfaction of the owner his competence to design and execute the work. It is sometimes urged that by admitting all who wish to take part some unknown but brilliant designer may be found. If the object of a competition were a set of sketches, such reasoning might be valid. But sketches give no evidence that their author has the matured artistic ability to fulfil their promise, or that he has the technical knowledge necessary to control the design of the highly complex structure and equipment of a modern building, or that he has executive ability for large affairs, or the force to compel the proper execution of contracts. Attempts have often been made to defend the owner's interests by associating an architect of ability with one lacking in experience. These have generally resulted in failure. As the owner should feel bound, not only legally, but in point of honor, to retain as his architect the competitor to whom the award is made, it is essential that the competitors in a limited competition, or in the second stage of an open competition, should be selected with the greatest care in consultation with the professional adviser, and that there should be included among them only architects in whose ability and integrity the owner has absolute confidence, and to any one of whom he is willing to entrust the work.

(5) On the Number of Competitors. Experience has demonstrated that the admission of MANY COMPETITORS is detrimental to the success of a competition. When there are many, each knows that he has but a slight chance of success, and he is therefore less aroused to his best effort than when there are but a few. As the owner is interested only in the best result, he is ill-advised to sacrifice quality for quantity.

(6) **On Anonymity of Competitors.** Absolute and effective ANONYMITY is a necessary condition of a fair and unbiased competition. The SIGNING OF DRAWINGS should not be permitted nor should they bear any motto, device or distinguishing mark. Drawings and the accompanying sealed envelopes containing their authors' names should be numbered upon receipt, the envelopes remaining unopened until after the award.

(7) **On the Cost of the Proposed Work.** No statement of the intended COST OF THE WORK should be made unless it has been ascertained that the work as described in the programme can be properly executed within the sum named. In general it is wiser to limit the cubic contents of the building than to state a limit of cost. The programme should neither require nor permit competitors to furnish their own or builders' estimates of the cost of executing the work in accordance with their designs. Such estimates are singularly unreliable. If the cubage be properly limited they are unnecessary.

(8) **On the Jury of Award.** To insure a wise and just award and to protect the interests of both the owner and the competitors, the competitive drawings should be submitted to a JURY so chosen as to secure expert knowledge and freedom from personal bias. Such a jury thoroughly understands and can explain the intent of the drawings. It discovers from them their authors' skill in design, arrangement and construction. Because of its trained judgment its advice as to the merits of the designs submitted is of the highest value to the owner. The jury must consist of at least three members, one of whom must, and a majority of whom should, be PRACTICING ARCHITECTS. One or more members of the jury may be chosen by the competitors. It is the DUTY OF THE JURY to study carefully the programme and all conditions relating to the problem and the competition before examining the designs submitted; to refuse to make or recommend an award in favor of the author of any design that does not fulfil the conditions distinctly stated as mandatory in the programme; to give ample time to the careful study of the designs; and to render a decision only after mature consideration. The jury should see to it that a copy of its report reaches every competitor. The professional adviser should not be a member of the jury, as his judgment is apt to be influenced by his previous study of the problem.

(9) **On the Competitive Drawings.** The purpose of an architectural competition is not to secure fully developed plans, but such evidence of skill in treating the essential elements of the problem as will assist in the SELECTION OF AN ARCHITECT. The drawings should, therefore, be as few in number and as simple in character as will express the general design of the building. A jury of experts does not need elaborate drawings.

(10) **On the Programme.** The programme should contain rules for the conduct of the competition, instructions for competitors and the jury, and the agreement between the owner and the competitors. Uniform conditions for all competitors are fundamental to the proper conduct of competitions. Lengthy programmes and detailed instructions as to the desired accommodations should be avoided as they confuse the problem and hamper the competitors. The problem should be stated broadly. Its solutions should be left to the competitors. A distinction should be clearly drawn between the MANDATORY and the ADVISORY provisions of the programme, that is, between those which, if not met, preclude an award in favor of the author of a design so failing, and those which are merely optional or of a suggestive character. The mandatory requirements should be set forth in such a way that they cannot fail to be recognized as such.

They should be as few as possible, and should relate only to matters which cannot be left to the discretion of the competitors. It is difficult to summarize briefly the programme, but it should at least:

(a) Name the owner of the structure forming the subject of the competition, and state whether the owner institutes the competition personally or through representatives; if the latter, name the representatives, state how their authority is derived, and define its scope.

(b) State the kind of competition to be instituted, and in limited competitions name the competitors; or in open competitions, if the competition is limited geographically or otherwise, state the limits.

(c) Fix a time and place for the receipt of the designs. The time should not be altered except with the unanimous consent of the competitors.

(d) Furnish exact information as to the site.

(e) State the desired accommodation, avoiding detail.

(f) State the cost if it be fixed or, better, limit the cubic contents.

(g) Fix uniform requirements for the drawings, giving the number, the scale or scales, and the method of rendering.

(h) Forbid the submission of more than one design by any one competitor.

(i) Provide a method for insuring anonymity of submission.

(j) Name the members of the jury or provide for their selection. Define their powers and duties. If for legal reasons the jury may not make the final award, state such reasons and in whom such power is vested.

(k) Provide that no award shall be made in favor of any design until the jury shall have certified that it does not violate any mandatory requirement of the programme.

(l) Provide that during the competition there shall be no communication relative to it between any competitor and the owner, his representatives, or any member of the jury, and that any communication with the professional adviser shall be in writing. Provide also that any information, whether in answer to such communications or not, shall be given in writing simultaneously to all competitors. Set a date after which no questions will be answered.

(m) State the number and amount of payments to competitors.

(n) Provide that the professional adviser shall send a report of the competition to each competitor, including therein the report of the jury.

(o) Provide that no drawing shall be exhibited or made public until after the award of the jury.

(p) Provide for the return of unsuccessful drawings to their respective authors within a reasonable time.

(q) Provide that nothing original in any of the unsuccessful designs shall be used without consent of, and compensation to, the author of the design in which it appears.

(r) Include the contract between the owner and the competitors.

(s) Include the contract between the owner and the architect receiving the award.

(11) On the Agreement. An owner who institutes a competition assumes a moral obligation to retain one of the competitors as his architect. In order that architects invited to compete may determine whether they will take part it is essential that they should know the terms upon which the winner will be employed; and it is of the utmost importance to the owner that those terms should be so clearly defined that no disagreement as to their meaning can arise after the award is made. Unless they be so defined, delay is likely to occur and disagreements to arise at a time when a complete understanding between owner and architect is most important for the welfare of the work. Therefore, there must be included in the programme a form which guarantees the appointment of one of the competitors as architect and provides an agreement operative upon that appointment, defining his employment in terms consonant with the best practice. This must conform in all fundamental respects to the typical form of agreement appended to this circular.

(12) **On Payments to Unsuccessful Competitors.** In a limited competition and in the second stage of an open competition each competitor, except the winner, should be paid for his services.

(13) **On Legality of Procedure.** It is highly important that each step taken in connection with a competition and every provision of the programme should be in consonance with law. Those charged with holding the competition should know and state their authority. If they are not empowered to bind their principal by contracts with the competitors, they should seek and receive such authority before issuing an invitation. If authority cannot legally be granted to the jury to make the award, that fact should be stated, and the body named in which such authority is vested.

(14) **On the Conduct of the Owner.** In order to maintain absolute impartiality toward all competitors, the owner, his representatives and all connected with the enterprise should, as soon as a professional adviser has been appointed, refrain from holding any communication in regard to the matter with any architect except the adviser or the jurors. The meeting with competitors described in Article (3) is of course an exception.

(15) **On the Conduct of Architects.** An architect should not attempt in any way, except as a duly authorized competitor, to secure work for which a competition is in progress, nor should he attempt to influence, either directly or indirectly, the award in a competition in which he is a competitor. An architect should not accept the commission to do the work for which a competition has been instituted if he has acted in an advisory capacity, either in drawing the programme or making the award. An architect should not submit in competition a design which has not been produced in his own office or under his own direction. No competitor should enter into association with another architect, except with the consent of the owner. If such associates should win the competition, their association should continue until the completion of the work thus won. During the competition, no competitor should hold any communication relative to it with the owner, his representatives or any member of the jury, nor should he hold any communication with the professional adviser, except it be in writing. When an architect has been authorized to submit sketches for a given project, no other architect should submit sketches for it until the owner has taken definite action on the first sketches, since, as far as the second architect is concerned, a competition is thus established.

(16) **On the Participation of Members of the Institute.** Members of The American Institute of Architects do not take part as competitors or jurors in any competition the programme of which has not received the formal approval of the Institute, nor does a member continue to act as professional adviser after it has been determined that the programme cannot be so drawn as to receive such approval.

(17) **Committees.** In order that the advice of the Institute may be given to those who seek it and that its approval may be given to programmes in consonance with its principles, the Institute maintains the following committees:

(a) The STANDING COMMITTEE ON COMPETITIONS, representing the Institute in its relation to competitions generally. This committee advises the subcommittees and directs their work and they report to it.

(b) A SUBCOMMITTEE for the territory of each chapter, representing the Institute in its relation to competitions for work to be erected within such territory.

The president of the chapter is EX-OFFICIO chairman of the subcommittee, the other members of which he appoints. The subcommittees derive their authority from the Institute and not from the chapters. An appeal from the decision of a subcommittee may be made to the standing committee. The standing committee may approve, modify or annul the decision of a subcommittee.

(18) The Institute's Approval of the Programme. The approval of the Institute is not given to a programme unless it meets the following essential conditions:

(a) That there be a professional adviser.

(b) That the competition be of one of the forms described in Article (3).

(c) That the programme contain an AGREEMENT and CONDITIONS OF CONTRACT between architect and owner in conformity with those printed in the Appendix of this circular, that it include no provision at variance therewith, that it contain terms of payments in accord with good practice, and that it specifically set forth the nature of expert engineering services for which the architect will be reimbursed.

(d) That the programme make provision for a jury of at least three persons.

(e) That the programme conform in all particulars to the spirit of this circular.

When the programme meets the above essential conditions, the approval of the Institute may be given to it by the subcommittee for the territory in which the work is to be erected, or if there be no subcommittee for that territory, then by the standing committee on competitions. If, for legal or other reasons, the standing committee deem that deviations from the essential conditions are justified, it may give the approval of the Institute to a programme containing such deviations. Power to give approval in such cases is, however, vested only in the standing committee. The professional adviser, when duly authorized in writing by the proper committee, may print the Institute's approval as a part of the programme or otherwise communicate it to those invited to compete.

Typical Form of Agreement between Owner and Competitors

In consideration of the submission of drawings in this competition (here insert the name of the owner or of the body duly authorized to enter into contracts on behalf of the owner), hereinafter called the OWNER, agrees with the competitors jointly and severally that the owner will, within .... days of the date set for the submission of drawings, make an award of the commission to design and supervise the work forming the subject of this competition to one of those competitors who submit drawings in consonance with the mandatory requirements of this programme, and will thereupon pay him, on account of his services as architect, one-tenth of his total estimated fee as stated below. And further, in consideration of the submission of drawings as aforesaid and the mutual promises enumerated in the subjoined CONDITIONS OF CONTRACT BETWEEN ARCHITECT AND OWNER, the owner agrees and each competitor agrees, if the award be made in his favor, immediately to enter into a contract containing all the CONDITIONS here following, and until such contract is executed to be bound by the said CONDITIONS.

Conditions of Contract between Architect and Owner

ARTICLE I. DUTIES OF THE ARCHITECT

(1) **Design.** The architect is to design the entire building and its immediate surroundings and is to design or direct the design of its constructive, engineering and decorative work and its fixed equipment and, if further retained, its movable furniture and the treatment of the remainder of its grounds.

(2) **Drawings and Specifications.** The architect is to make such revision of his competitive scheme as may be necessary to complete the preliminary studies; and he is to provide drawings and specifications necessary for the conduct of the work. All such instruments of service are and remain the property of the architect.

(3) **Administration.** The architect is to prepare or advise as to all forms connected with the making of proposals and contracts, to issue all certificates of payment, to keep proper accounts and generally to discharge the necessary administrative duties connected with the work.

(4) **Supervision.** The architect is to supervise the execution of all the work committed to his control.

ARTICLE II. DUTIES OF THE OWNER

(1) **Payments.** The owner is to pay the architect for his services a sum equal to .... per cent * upon the cost of the work. (The times and amounts of payments should be here stated.) †

(2) **Reimbursements.** The owner is to reimburse the architect, from time to time, the amount of expenses necessarily incurred by him or his deputies while traveling in the discharge of duties connected with the work.

(3) **Service of Engineers.** The owner is to reimburse the architect the cost of the services of such engineers for heating, mechanical and electrical work as are specifically provided for in each programme. The selection of such engineers and their compensation shall be subject to the approval of the owner.

(4) **Information, Clerk of the Works, etc.** The owner is to give all information as to his requirements; to pay for all necessary surveys, borings and tests, and for the continuous services of a clerk of the works, whose competence is approved by the architect.

Standard Form of Competition-Programme ‡

The following standard form of COMPETITION-PROGRAMME, prepared by The American Institute of Architects, contains those provisions which the Institute considers essential to the fair and equitable conduct of a competition. The Institute in no way assumes or attempts to dictate an OWNER'S course in conducting a competition; it claims only the right to control its own members, and having found by experience the danger to the interests of both OWNER and COMPETITOR from a competition in which such provisions are lacking, it permits no member to take part in any competition which does not meet those essential conditions, and the programme of which has not been specifically approved. A competition should be of such form as to establish equitable relations between the OWNER and the COMPETITOR. To insure this, the requirements should be clear and definite; the competency of the COMPETITORS should be assured; the agreement between the OWNER and COMPETITORS should be definite, as becomes a plain statement of business relations; and the judgment should be based on expert knowledge. The following programme will, if adhered to, be duly approved by the Institute SUBCOMMITTEES ON COMPETITIONS for the various chapters of the Institute, and by the STANDING COMMITTEE ON COMPETITIONS of the Institute.

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* The percentage inserted should be in accord with good practice.

† Good practice has established the payments on account as follows: Upon completion of the preliminary studies one-fifth of the total estimated fee less the previous payment; upon completion of contract-drawings and specifications two-fifths additional of such fee; for other drawings, for supervision and for administration, the remainder of the fee, from time to time, in proportion to the progress of the work.

‡ The American Institute of Architects, Document 115, Washington, D. C., February, 1915. Reprinted by permission.

Programme of Competition for

....
(Insert name of proposed building)

NOTE. Throughout this programme the word OWNER is used to indicate either the owner in person, or those to whom he has delegated his powers.

PART I

(1) **Proposed Building.** The..
(Insert name of owner)
proposes to erect a new..
(Insert name of building)
on the site at...
(Insert location)

(2) **Authority.** The..
(Insert name of owner)
has (delegated to...)
(Insert name or names of individuals)
authority to select an ARCHITECT to prepare the plans for, and supervise the erection of the building.

NOTE. If authority for the erection of the proposed building is granted by act of legislature, ordinance, etc., it is desirable to make clear the source of such authority.

(3) **Architectural Adviser.** The OWNER has appointed as his expert PROFESSIONAL ADVISER..
(Insert name and address of adviser)
to prepare this programme and to act as his ADVISER in the conduct of this competition.

NOTE. No competition shall be instituted without the aid of a competent adviser. He should be an architect of the highest standing and his selection should be the OWNER'S first step. He should be chosen with the greatest care, as the success of the competition will depend largely upon his experience and ability. The duties of the expert are to advise those who hold the competition in regard to its form and terms, to draw up the programme, to advise in choosing the COMPETITORS, to answer inquiries from COMPETITORS and in general to direct the competition.

(4) **Competitors.** Participation in this competition is limited
(A), to the following ARCHITECTS:...
(Insert names of invited competitors)

or
and (B) To such Architects as shall have made application on or before.....

....

(Insert date)

accompanied by evidence of their education and experience, satisfactory to the Owner and the Professional Adviser. It is agreed that the names of all those admitted to the competition shall be made public on or before..........

....

(Insert date)

The Owner agrees that he will admit no one as a Competitor to whom he is not willing to award the commission to erect the building, in case of his success in the competition.

(5) **Jury of Award.** The Owner agrees that there will be a Jury of Award (A) which will consist of the following members:..........................

....

(Insert names of jury)

Or (B) which will consist of...............members.. Of these, the Owner

(Insert number)

has appointed the following:..

....and

(Insert names of those so selected)

the Competitors will select the remaining members of the Jury.

NOTE. To insure a just and wise award and to protect the interests of both the Owner and the Competitors, the drawings should be submitted to a Jury chosen to secure expert knowledge and freedom from personal bias. The Jury shall consist of at least three members, one of whom must, and the majority of whom should, be practicing architects, for example, a layman and an architect selected by the Owner or the Building Committee, and an architect selected by the Competitors. For work of great importance it is desirable to increase the size of the Jury, adding to it architects and specially qualified laymen. Some of the advantages of a Jury so constituted are that it thoroughly understands and can explain the intent of the drawings, and discovers from them their author's skill in design, arrangement and construction. Because of its expert knowledge, its judgment on the merits of the designs submitted is of the highest value to the Owner. The adoption of the recommendation that the architectural members of the Jury be in the majority, is not necessarily a cause of expense, for the reason that in order to insure the proper conduct of competitions, many architects of standing are willing, if the occasion warrants, to serve as Jurors without payment, other than actual expenses. It is customary and desirable that the Competitors should elect one or more of the architectural members of the Jury. It is not advisable that the Professional Adviser, who has drawn up the programme, be permitted to vote as a member of the Jury, although he may with advantage take part in the deliberations of the Jury.

(6) **Authority of Jury.** The Owner agrees that the Jury above named, or selected as above provided, will have authority to make the award and that its decision in the matter shall be final. Moreover, this Jury will make an award to one of those taking part in this competition, unless no design is submitted which fulfils the mandatory requirements of this programme. The Owner further agrees to employ as architect for the work as more fully set forth hereinafter, the author of the design selected by the Jury as its first choice.

NOTE. If, under the law, authority to make the award cannot be delegated to the Jury, the following form should be substituted for Section (6):

The Owner agrees that the Jury above named or selected as above provided, will select the design which appears to it to be the most meritorious and make a written report to the Owner, designating it by number. The Owner will then consider this design and the report of the JURY and will thereupon, without learning the identity of the COMPETITORS, select as the winner of the competition the author of the design selected by the JURY, unless in his judgment there be cause to depart from such selection, in which case he will, still without learning the identity of the COMPETITORS, select one of the other designs submitted in competition. The OWNER further agrees that he will pay to the author of the design designated as most meritorious by the JURY, in case he should not be appointed ARCHITECT of the building, a prize of $..............................

(State amount of prize)

The opening of the envelope containing the name of the author of the design selected by the OWNER will automatically close the contract between him and the OWNER, printed as Part III hereof.

(7) Examination of Designs and Award. The PROFESSIONAL ADVISER will examine the designs to ascertain whether they comply with the mandatory requirements of the programme, and will report to the JURY any instance of failure to comply with these mandatory requirements. The OWNER further agrees that the JURY will satisfy itself of the accuracy of the report of the PROFESSIONAL ADVISER, and will place out of competition and make no award to any design which does not comply with these mandatory requirements. The JURY will carefully study the programme and any modifications thereof, which may have been made through communications (see Section (12)), and will then consider the remaining designs, holding at least two sessions on separate days, and considering at each session all the drawings in competition, and will make the award, and the classification of prize-winners, if prizes are given, by secret ballot, and by majority vote, before opening the envelopes which contain the names of the COMPETITORS. In making the award the JURY will thereby affirm that it has made no effort to learn the identity of the various COMPETITORS, and that it has remained in ignorance of such identity until after the award was made. The opening of the envelope containing the name of the author of the selected design, will automatically close the contract between him and the OWNER, printed as Part III hereof.

(8) Report of the Jury. The JURY will make a full report which will state its reasons for the selection of the winning design and its reason for the classification of the designs placed next in order of merit, and a copy of this report, accompanied by the names of prize-winners, if prizes are given, will be sent by the PROFESSIONAL ADVISER to each COMPETITOR. Immediately upon the opening of the envelopes, the PROFESSIONAL ADVISER will notify all COMPETITORS, by wire, of the result of the competition.

(9) Compensation to Competitors. The OWNER agrees to pay to the successful COMPETITOR within ten days of the judgment, on account of his fee for services as ARCHITECT, one-tenth of his total estimated fee.

In full discharge of his obligation to them (in case prizes or fees are offered), the OWNER agrees:

(A) To pay the following prizes to those ranked by the JURY next to the successful design: To the design placed second $........, to the design placed third $........, to the design placed fourth $........, to the design placed fifth $........, etc., within ten days of the judgment, or

(B) To pay to each of the COMPETITORS invited to take part in this competition, other than the successful COMPETITOR, a fee of $........ within ten days of the judgment.

(10) Exhibition of Drawings. It is agreed that no drawings shall be exhibited or made public until after the award of the JURY. There will be a public exhibition of all drawings after the judgment, and all drawings, except those of the successful COMPETITOR, will be returned to their authors at the close thereof.

(11) **Use of Features of Unsuccessful Designs.** Nothing original in the unsuccessful designs shall be used without consent of, or compensation to, the author of the design in which it appears. In case the OWNER desires to make use of any individual feature of an unsuccessful design, the same may be obtained by adequate compensation to the designer, the amount of such compensation to be determined in consultation with the author and the PROFESSIONAL ADVISER.

(12) **Communications. (Mandatory.)** If any COMPETITOR desires information of any kind whatever in regard to the competition, or the programme, he shall ask for this information by anonymous letter addressed to the PROFESSIONAL ADVISER, and in no other way, and a copy of this letter and the answer thereto will be sent simultaneously to each COMPETITOR, but no request received after ....

(Insert date)

will be answered.

(13) **Anonymity of Drawings. (Mandatory.)** The drawings to be submitted shall bear no name or mark which could serve as a means of identification, nor shall any such name or mark appear upon the wrapper of the drawings, nor shall any COMPETITOR directly or indirectly reveal the identity of his designs, or hold communication regarding the competition with the OWNER or with any member of the BUILDING COMMITTEE or of the JURY, or with the PROFESSIONAL ADVISER, except as provided for under COMMUNICATIONS. It is understood that in submitting a design, each COMPETITOR thereby affirms that he has complied with the foregoing provisions in regard to anonymity and agrees that any violation of them renders null and void this agreement and any agreement arising from it. With each set of drawings must be enclosed a plain, opaque, sealed envelope without any superscription or mark of any kind, same containing the name and address of the COMPETITOR. These envelopes shall be opened by the PROFESSIONAL ADVISER after the final selection has been made, and preferably in the presence of the JURY.

(14) **Delivery of Drawings. (Mandatory.)** The drawings submitted in this competition shall be securely wrapped, addressed to the PROFESSIONAL ADVISER at ....
....in plain lettering and

(Insert address for delivery of drawings)

with no other lettering thereon, and delivered at this address not later than

....

(Insert date and hour)

In case drawings are sent by express, they may be delivered to an express company at the above date and hour, in which case the express company's receipt, bearing date and hour, shall be mailed immediately to the PROFESSIONAL ADVISER as evidence of delivery.

PART II

(15) **Site.** The site of the building is as follows......................

(Insert description of site, and provide topographical map giving dimensions, grades, etc.)

NOTE. The site should be carefully described and a survey of the property should be attached and included as part of the programme. Conditions pertaining to the site and to neighboring buildings frequently become determining factors in a design. Photographs showing surrounding buildings and landscape-conditions may with advantage be included.

(16) **Cost. (Mandatory.)** For the purpose of this competition the cost of the building shall be figured at.........cts per cu ft, and the total thereof

(Insert number)

figured on this basis shall not exceed...............................

(Insert limit of cost)

(17) **Cubage. (Mandatory.)** Cubage shall be so computed as to show as exactly as possible the actual volume of the building, calculated from the finished level or levels of the lowest floor to the highest points of the roofs, and contained within the outside surfaces of the walls. Pilasters, cornices, balconies and other similar projections shall not be included. Porticos with engaged columns and similar projections shall be taken as solids and figured to the outer face of the columns. When columns are free-standing, one-half of the volume of the porticos shall be taken. There shall also be included in the cubage the actual volume of all parapets, towers, lanterns, dormers, vaults, and other features adding to the bulk of the building, also the actual volume of exterior steps above grade. Light-wells of an area of less than 400 sq ft shall not be deducted. In calculating cubage, account shall be taken of variations in the exterior wall-surface, as for example, the projection of a basement-story beyond the general line of the building. A figured diagram showing method adopted in cubing shall accompany each set of drawings.

(18) **Drawings. (Mandatory.)** The drawings submitted shall be made according to the following list, at the scale given, and rendered as noted; and no other drawings than these shall be submitted:

....

(Insert list, scale and method of rendering)

NOTE. The drawings submitted should be the least number necessary to set forth clearly the solution of the problem, and the scale of these drawings the smallest compatible with the requirement that the intention of each COMPETITOR be made clear to an expert JURY. Where the number and scale of drawings is reduced to the minimum, and simple methods of rendering imposed, the COMPETITORS are enabled to devote their time and energy to the study of the problem, which is the serious business of a competition, instead of upon draughtsmanship and rendering, which when carried beyond a certain point, are of no value whatever in determining the fitness of the COMPETITORS to handle the work of erecting the building, for which the competition is being held.

PART III

Agreement between Owner and Competitors

In consideration of the submission of drawings in this competition, and the mutual promises enumerated in the subjoined CONDITIONS OF CONTRACT BETWEEN ARCHITECT AND OWNER the OWNER agrees, and each COMPETITOR agrees if the award be made in his favor, immediately to enter into a contract containing all the CONDITIONS here following, and until such contract is executed, to be bound by the said CONDITIONS.

Conditions of Contract between Architect and Owner

Duties of the Architect

(1) **Design.** The ARCHITECT is to design the entire building and its immediate surroundings and is to design or direct the design of its constructive, engineering and decorative work and its fixed equipment and, if further retained, its movable furniture and the treatment of the remainder of its groun

(2) **Drawings and Specifications.** The ARCHITECT is to make such revision of his competitive scheme as may be necessary to complete the preliminary studies; and he is to provide drawings and specifications necessary for the conduct of the work. All such instruments of service are and remain the property of the ARCHITECT.

(3) **Administration.** The ARCHITECT is to prepare or advise as to all forms connected with the making of proposals and contracts, to issue all certificates of payment, to keep proper accounts and generally to discharge the necessary administrative duties connected with the work.

(4) **Supervision.** The ARCHITECT is to supervise the execution of all the work committed to his control.

Duties of the Owner

(5) **Payments.** The OWNER is to pay the ARCHITECT for his services a sum equal to........per cent upon the cost of the work.

NOTE. The percentage inserted should be in accord with good practice. The times and amounts of payments should be here stated. Good practice has established the payments on account as follows: Upon completion of the preliminary studies one-fifth of the total estimated fee less the previous payment; upon completion of contract-drawings and specifications two-fifths additional of such fee; for other drawings, for supervision and for administration, the remainder of the fee, from time to time, as the work progresses.

(6) **Reimbursements.** The OWNER is to reimburse the architect from time to time, the amount of expenses necessarily incurred by him or his deputies while traveling in the discharge of duties connected with the work.

(7) **Service of Engineers.** The OWNER is to reimburse the ARCHITECT, the cost of the services of ENGINEERS for....................................
(Insert nature of work for which the OWNER agrees that ENGINEERS shall be employed at his expense)

The selection of such ENGINEERS and their compensation shall be subject to the approval of the OWNER.

(8) **Information, Clerk of the Works, Etc.** The OWNER is to give all information as to his requirements; to pay for all necessary surveys, borings and tests, and for the continuous services of a clerk of the works whose competence is approved by the ARCHITECT.

PART IV

Requirements of the Building

NOTE. For the same reason that elaborate drawings are undesirable, it is advisable to avoid lengthy and detailed instructions as to the desired accommodations, as they confuse the problem and hamper the COMPETITORS; and the OWNER loses thereby the benefit he might gain in allowing the COMPETITORS freedom to develop solutions which they would not otherwise be at liberty to suggest. It should be borne in mind that either the cost of the building, as determined by its cubical contents, should be fixed, or the requirements of the OWNER in regard to the design, materials of construction, dimensions of rooms, etc., should be fixed, but not both. If, on the one hand, the cubical contents and cost is fixed, it should be stated that the requirements of the OWNER must be adhered to as closely as possible by COMPETITORS; if, on the other hand, the requirements of the OWNER are definitely fixed, it may be stated that the cubical contents of each design, while not limited, will be taken into consideration in making the award. In case the sizes of certain rooms, etc., are definitely fixed, the word MANDATORY should be placed at the head of the paragraph referring to these rooms.

Here should follow a list of rooms required, together with sizes and other data which apply to the building under consideration.

THE STANDARD DOCUMENTS OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS*

Introductory Notes. This introductory paragraph is from an article† by R. Clipston Sturgis, President of The American Institute of Architects. "For many years builders and owners have commonly used an agreement recognized as inadequate and imperfect, and one apt to lead to serious misunderstandings, if not to legal difficulties. Architects entrusted with important work and its accompanying responsibilities have endeavored to have agreements drawn which would adequately safeguard the interests involved. When, some nine years ago (1907), the Institute attempted to prepare a new standard agreement, it found already in use a considerable number of forms prepared by architects, differing in detail but agreeing in one main point. This one point was that the contract and the conditions of the contract should be treated as two branches of the same agreement, not as one document, nor yet as two. The contract was to be as brief as possible, stating simply what the obligation was. The conditions of the contract, complicated and involved, yet essential to the contract, were of necessity comparatively lengthy. The most difficult part of the work, surveying the field and breaking out the way, was done by the Committees on Contracts and Specifications during the years 1906 to 1911, and resulted in the first edition of the STANDARD DOCUMENTS, published in 1911. At that time some thought the problem solved; others thought it but an important step forward; which latter proved to be the fact. These first documents, excellent as they were as text-books, were not suitable for everyday use. The Institute again took up the problem, this time with the definite aim to produce a document which should entirely replace the uniform agreement when the contract for its publication expired in May, 1915. This has been done and the carefully studied AGREEMENT and CONDITIONS OF THE CONTRACT presented to the convention in December, 1914, have been further studied and improved and are now (1915) on the market for general use. In the final study between January and May, 1915, the Institute had the advantages of coöperation with representatives of many of the building trades and the advice of counsel representing the Institute and counsel representing the building trades. The document, like its predecessor, will now come to the test of actual use. It will prove to be imperfect and revised sections will be necessary, but it is believed to be in the main a fair and comprehensive agreement and one that is practical and fit for general use. Architects everywhere are urged to use and test this form, and criticism from owners and builders will be gladly received and considered. In addition to this most important document the committee has prepared and the Institute has published a form of BOND, A LETTER OF ACCEPTANCE by a contractor of a sub-contractor's bid, and an AGREEMENT between a contractor and sub-contractor. Many architects who have done work on which a bond has been required have been surprised at the ease with which the obligations of the bond could be evaded. In most cases, because someone, architect, contractor, or owner, had invalidated the bond. The new form of bond is prepared for insuring, as far as possible, that the bonding company shall discharge its obligations and protect the owner who pays for this protection. The LETTER FROM CONTRACTOR TO SUB-CONTRACTOR is intended to provide a simple form whereby the mutual obligations of the two shall be clearly defined. The AGREEMENT BETWEEN CONTRACTOR AND SUB-CONTRACTOR accomplishes the same purpose in a somewhat more formal way."

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* Published by permission of The American Institute of Architects.

† Published in the Journal of The American Institute of Architects, June, 1915.

The Development of the Standard Documents. In the year 1887 The American Institute of Architects, the Western Association of Architects and the National Association of Builders, thinking it desirable to establish better practice in the matter of building contracts, undertook the preparation of a form of contract satisfactory to all. Under the name of THE UNIFORM CONTRACT this form attained wide acceptance and has been long in use. About the year 1907, feeling that practice had advanced to a point no longer fully reflected by the UNIFORM CONTRACT, the Institute undertook a general study of the subject with a view to developing a form of contract clear in thought, equitable, applicable to work of almost all classes, binding in law and a standard of good practice. The work was entrusted to the Standing Committee on Contracts and Specifications, who spent four years on it, studying the UNIFORM CONTRACT and forms in use by some thirty well-known architects, and submitted various drafts for criticism to the chapters of the Institute and to engineers, contractors and architects throughout the country. The documents were prepared under the advice of Francis Fisher Kane, counsel for the Institute, and Ernest Eidlitz, and with the able and careful criticism of Professor Samuel Williston of the Harvard Law School, and with the assistance of James W. Pryor, in their editing. The Institute gave its approval to the work in 1911. The Standing Committee on Contracts and Specifications, during the preparation of the first edition of the STANDARD FORMS, consisted of Grosvenor Atterbury, Chairman; Allen B. Pond, Secretary; Frank Miles Day, William A. Boring, Frank C. Baldwin, Frank W. Ferguson, Alfred Stone and G. L. Heins. Criticisms of the first edition of the DOCUMENTS were invited by the Institute and during the year 1913 a group of architects and builders in Boston, known as the Joint Committee of the Boston Society of Architects, and of the Master Builders' Association, gave much sincere study to the subject. At the same time the National Association of Builders' Exchange offered a detailed criticism of the documents.

In 1914 the Institute instructed its Standing Committee on Contracts and Specifications to undertake a general revision with a view to making the CONDITIONS simpler in wording and more equitable. The committee was empowered to hold conferences with organizations so desiring. Subcommittees for the territory of the several chapters of the Institute were appointed and collaborated with the standing committee. The Boston group presented its ideas in the form of an entirely new draft which proved of high value and its Chairman, W. Stanley Parker, was present with the Standing Committee at nearly all its meetings. The Committee had a joint meeting with representatives of the National Association of Builders' Exchanges and thereafter the counsel of the Association, W. B. King, and the counsel of the Institute, Louis Barcroft Runk, collaborated most effectively with the committee. The GENERAL CONDITIONS were entirely rewritten and in response to the strong desire of contractors and subcontractors, the principle of GENERAL ARBITRATION, subject to limitations in the documents, was adopted, and provisions relative to the RELATIONS OF THE CONTRACTOR AND HIS SUBCONTRACTORS were included in the documents. After much study, conference and criticism, a draft of the second edition was issued by authority of the Institute, April 1, 1915. During the revision of the documents, the Standing Committee on Contracts and Specifications consisted of Frank Miles Day, Chairman; Allen B. Pond, Sullivan W. Jones, Clarence A. Martin, Norman M. Isham, Octavius Morgan, Thomas Nolan, A. O. Elzner, M. B. Medary, Jr., Jos. Evans Sperry, Frank W. Ferguson and Samuel Stone.

The Construction of the Standard Documents. An AGREEMENT, and DRAWINGS and SPECIFICATIONS are the necessary parts of a building contract. Many conditions of a general character may be placed at will in the AGREEMENT or in the SPECIFICATIONS. It is, however, wise to assemble them in a single document and, since they have as much bearing on the DRAWINGS as on the SPECIFICATIONS, and even more on the business relations of the contracting parties, they are properly called the GENERAL CONDITIONS OF THE CONTRACT. As the AGREEMENT, GENERAL CONDITIONS, DRAWINGS and SPECIFICATIONS are the constituent elements of the CONTRACT and are acknowledged as such in the AGREEMENT, they are correctly termed the CONTRACT DOCUMENTS. Statements made in any one of them are just as binding as if made in the AGREEMENT. The Institute's forms, although intended for use in actual practice, should also be regarded as a code of reference representing the judgment of the Institute as to what constitutes good practice and as such they may be drawn upon by architects in improving their own forms. Although the forms are suited for use in connection with a single or general contract, they are equally applicable to an operation conducted under separate contracts.

Titles of the Standard Documents and Approval of Same. The new CONTRACT DOCUMENTS of The American Institute of Architects are now on sale* by dealers in office and drafting-supplies in all the large cities of the country, and replace the old UNIFORM CONTRACT which is to be discontinued. The following are the titles of the STANDARD DOCUMENTS: A. 1. FORM OF AGREEMENT AND A. 2. GENERAL CONDITIONS OF THE CONTRACT. B. BOND OF SURETYSHIP. C. FORM OF SUBCONTRACT. D. LETTER OF ACCEPTANCE OF SUBCONTRACTOR'S PROPOSAL. A cover in heavy paper with valuabe EXPLANATORY NOTES is sent without charge with each complete set of the documents or with each copy of the FORM OF AGREEMENT and GENERAL CONDITIONS OF THE CONTRACT. These documents have received the full approval of the Institute, through its convention, board of directors and officers. They are the outcome of nine years of continuous work by a Standing Committee on Contracts and Specifications. This committee, comprising some of the ablest American architects, was assisted by the Institute's forty Chapters; advised by eminent legal specialists in contract law and aided by representatives of the Building and Trade Associations of the United States. The forms have been officially approved by the National Association of Builders' Exchanges, the National Association of Master Plumbers, and the National Association of Steam and Hot Water Fitters.

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* **Notice to Architects, Builders and Contractors.** The CONTRACT FORMS may be obtained singly or in lots from the usual dealers. If your dealer cannot supply you send your order and his name to The Secretary, A. I. A., The Octagon, Washington, D. C. . All orders must include the necessary remittance irrespective of A. I. A. membership and irrespective of commercial standing of purchaser. The Institute has adopted these CASH TERMS, from which no exception will be made to anybody, in order to reduce cost of accountancy and thereby reduce expense to the user. Remittances may be by check, money-order, cash, or stamps. All prices are f. o. b. Washington, D. C. If small lots are to be sent by parcel-post instead of express, add 1 ct for AGREEMENT and GENERAL CONDITIONS, and ¼ ct apiece for each of the other forms according to quantity ordered; otherwise shipment will be made by express, collect.

Prices for Single Copies: Agreement and General Conditions in cover, $0.10; Bond of Suretyship, $0.02; Form of Subcontract, $0.02; Letter of Acceptance of Subcontractor's Proposal, $0.02; Complete set in cover, $0.15. A Trial set will be delivered upon receipt of nine 2-cent stamps.

Prices for Quantities and Discounts to Architects, Builders and Contractors. Orders for quantities are subject to the following discounts (which are also given by all dealers):

5% on lots of 100 (one kind or assorted); 10% on lots of 500 (one kind or assorted); 15% on lots of 1 000 (one kind or assorted). As these DOCUMENTS are printed on large sheets and in large quantities, they cannot be supplied with any individual names or printing different from the standard forms. The Institute does not wish to encourage the use of the AGREEMENT with general conditions other than those endorsed by it, but on request will sell the AGREEMENT separate from the STANDARD GENERAL CONDITIONS at 2 cts each.

A. 1. THE STANDARD FORM OF AGREEMENT BETWEEN CONTRACTOR AND OWNER*

ISSUED BY THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS

This form has been approved by the National Association of Builders' Exchanges, The National Association of Master Plumbers, and the National Association of Master Steam and Hot Water Fitters.

SECOND EDITION, COPYRIGHT 1915, BY THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS, THE OCTAGON, WASHINGTON, D. C. THIS FORM IS TO BE USED ONLY WITH THE STANDARD GENERAL CONDITIONS OF THE CONTRACT

THIS AGREEMENT, made the ....
day of................in the year Nineteen Hundred and..................
by and between......................(Two blank lines)†...................
hereinafter called the Contractor, and...........(Two blank lines).............
....hereinafter called the Owner
WITNESSETH, that the Contractor and the Owner for the considerations hereinafter named agree as follows:

Article 1. The Contractor agrees to provide all the materials and to perform all the work shown on the Drawings and described in the Specifications entitled

(Here insert the caption descriptive of the work as used in the Proposal, General Conditions, Specifications, and upon the Drawings.)

..............................(Five blank lines)................................
prepared by......................(Two blank lines).....................
acting as, and in these Contract Documents entitled the Architect, and to do everything required by the General Conditions of the Contract, the Specifications and the Drawings.

Article 2. The Contractor agrees that the work under this Contract shall be substantially completed..

(Here insert the date or dates of completion, and stipulations as to liquidated damages if any.)

..........................(Eight blank lines).................................

Article 3. The Owner agrees to pay the Contractor in current funds for the performance of the Contract

....
....($..................) subject to additions and deductions as provided in the General Conditions of the Contract and to make payments on account thereof as provided therein, as follows:

(Here insert provisions as to the method and times of payments.)

..............................(Nine blank lines)................................

Article 4. The Contractor and the Owner agree that the General Conditions of the Contract, the Specifications and the Drawings, together with this Agreement, form the Contract, and that they are as fully a part of the Contract as if hereto attached or herein repeated; and that the following is an exact enumeration of the Specifications and Drawings:

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† Dotted lines, as indicated, are in the standard documents and are omitted here to save space.

..........................(Thirty-five blank lines)..............................

The Contractor and the Owner for themselves, their successors, executors, administrators and assigns, hereby agree to the full performance of the covenants herein contained.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF they have hereunto set their hands and seals, the day and year first above written.

In Presence of

(Repeated for Owner's witnesses) .. } as to..... (Repeated for Owner).....(SEAL)
....

A. 2. THE GENERAL CONDITIONS OF THE CONTRACT *

STANDARD FORM OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS

This form has been approved by the National Association of Builders' Exchanges, The National Association of Master Plumbers, and the National Association of Master Steam and Hot Water Fitters.

SECOND EDITION, COPYRIGHT 1915, BY THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS, THE OCTAGON, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Index to the Articles of the General Conditions

1. Definitions.
2. Documents.
3. Details and Instructions.
4. Copies Furnished.
5. Shop Drawings.
6. Drawings on the Work.
7. Ownership of Drawings.
8. Samples.
9. The Architect's Status.
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11. Foreman, Supervision.
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18. Emergencies.
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36. Owner's Right to Do Work.
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39. Damages.
40. Mutual Responsibility of Contractors.
41. Separate Contracts.
42. Assignment.
43. Subcontracts.
44. Relations of Contractor and Subcontractor.
45. Arbitration.

Art. 1. Principles and Definitions.

(a) The Contract Documents consist of the Agreement, the General Conditions of the Contract, the Drawings and Specifications. These form the Contract.

(b) The Owner, the Contractor and the Architect are those named as such in the Agreement. They are treated throughout the Contract Documents as if each were of the singular number and masculine gender.

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* Published by permission of The American Institute of Architects.

(c) The Contractor shall, as in Article 43, be responsible to the Owner for the acts and omissions of his subcontractors and of all persons directly or indirectly employed by him or them in connection with the work.

(d) The term Subcontractor includes only those having a direct contract with the Contractor and it includes one who furnishes material even though he does no work.

(e) The term "person" or "anyone" as employed herein shall be taken to include a firm or corporation.

(f) Written notice shall be deemed to have been duly served if delivered in person to the individual or to a member of the firm or to an officer of the corporation for whom it is intended, or if delivered at or mailed to the last business address known to him who gives the notice.

(g) The term "work" of the Contractor or Subcontractor includes labor or materials or both.

(h) When the words "approved," "satisfactory," "equal to," "proper," "as directed," etc., are used, approval, etc., by the Architect, is understood.

(j) All time-limits stated in the Contract Documents are of the essence of the contract.

(k) The law of the place of building shall govern the construction of this contract.

Art. 2. Execution, Correlation and Intent of Documents. The Contract Documents shall be signed in duplicate by the Owner and Contractor. In case of failure to sign the General Conditions, Drawings or Specifications the Architect shall identify them. Even though the signatures of the Owner and the Contractor may have been attested by witnesses they may be proved by any competent evidence. The Contract Documents are complementary, and what is called for by any one shall be as binding as if called for by all. The intention of the documents is to include all labor and materials reasonably necessary for the proper execution of the work. It is not intended, however, that materials or work not covered by or properly inferable from any heading, branch, class or trade of the specifications shall be supplied unless distinctly so noted on the drawings. Materials or work described in words which so applied have a well known technical or trade meaning shall be held to refer to such recognized standards.

Art. 3. Detail Drawings and Instructions. The Architect shall furnish, with reasonable promptness, additional instructions, by means of drawings or otherwise, necessary for the proper execution of the work. All such drawings and instructions shall be consistent with the Contract Documents, true developments thereof, and reasonably inferable therefrom. The work shall be executed in conformity therewith and the Contractor shall do no work without proper drawings and instructions. The Contractor and the Architect, if either so requests, shall jointly prepare a schedule, subject to change from time to time in accordance with the progress of the work, fixing the latest dates at which the various detail drawings will be required, and the Architect shall furnish them in accordance with that schedule. Under like conditions, a schedule shall be prepared, fixing dates for the submission of shop drawings, for the beginning of manufacture and installation of materials and for the completion of the various parts of the work.

Art. 4. Copies Furnished. Unless otherwise provided in the Contract Documents the Architect will furnish to the Contractor, free of charge, all copies of drawings and specifications reasonably necessary for the execution of the work.

Art. 5. Shop Drawings. The Contractor shall submit two copies of all shop or setting drawings and schedules required for the work of the various trades and the Architect shall pass upon them with reasonable promptness. The Contractor shall make any corrections required by the Architect, file with him two corrected copies and furnish such copies as may be needed. The Architect's approval of such drawings or schedules shall not relieve the Contractor from responsibility for deviations from drawings or specifications, unless he has in writing called the Architect's attention to such deviations at the time of submission, nor shall it relieve him from responsibility for errors of any sort in shop drawings or schedules.

Art. 6. Drawings and Specifications on the Work. The Contractor shall keep one copy of all drawings and specifications on the work, in good order, available to the Architect and to his representatives.

Art. 7. Ownership of Drawings and Models. All drawings, specifications and copies thereof furnished by the Architect are his property. They are not to be used on other work and, with the exception of the signed contract-set, are to be returned to him on request, at the completion of the work. All models are the property of the Owner.

Art. 8. Samples. The Contractor shall furnish for approval all samples as directed. The work shall be in strict accordance with approved samples.

Art. 9. The Architect's Status. The Architect shall have general supervision and direction of the work. He is not the agent of the Owner, except as provided in the contract documents and when in special instances he is authorized by the Owner so to act, and in such instances he shall, upon request, show the Contractor written authority. He has authority to stop the work whenever such stoppage may be necessary to insure the proper execution of the Contract. In case of the termination of the employment of the Architect, the Owner shall appoint a capable and reputable Architect, whose status under the contract shall be that of the former Architect.

Art. 10. The Architect's Decisions. The Architect shall, within a reasonable time, make decisions on all claims of the Owner or Contractor and on all other matters relating to the execution and progress of the work or the interpretation of the contract documents. Except as may be otherwise expressly provided in or appended to these General Conditions or as particularly set forth in the specifications, all the Architect's decisions are subject to arbitration.

Art. 11. Foreman, Supervision. The Contractor shall keep on the work a competent general foreman and any necessary assistants, all satisfactory to the Architect. The general foreman shall not be changed except with the consent of the Architect. The foreman shall represent the Contractor in his absence and all directions given to him shall be as binding as if given to the Contractor. On written request such directions shall be confirmed in writing to the Contractor. The Contractor shall give efficient supervision to the work, using his best skill and attention. He shall carefully study and compare all drawings, specifications and other instructions and shall at once report to the Architect any error, inconsistency, or omission which he may discover.

Art. 12. Materials, Labor, Appliances. Unless otherwise stipulated, the Contractor shall provide and pay for all materials, labor, water, tools, equipment, light and power necessary for the execution of the work. Unless otherwise specified, all materials shall be new and both workmanship and materials shall be of good quality. The Contractor shall, if required, furnish satisfactory evidence as to the kind and quality of materials. The Contractor shall not employ on the work any unfit person or anyone not skilled in the work assigned to him.

Art. 13. Inspection of Work. The Owner, the Architect and their representatives shall at all times have access to the work wherever it is in preparation or progress and the Contractor shall provide proper facilities for such access and for inspection. If the specifications, the Architect's instructions, laws, ordinances or any public authority require any work to be specially tested or approved, the Contractor shall give the Architect timely notice of its readiness for inspection and the Architect shall promptly inspect it. If any such work should be covered up without approval or consent, it must, if required by the Architect, be uncovered for examination at the Contractor's expense. Reexamination of questioned work may be ordered by the Architect and, if found not in accordance with the Contract, all expense of reexamination and replacement shall be borne by the Contractor, otherwise it shall be allowed as extra work.

Art. 14. **Correction of Work Before Final Payment.** The Contractor shall promptly remove from the premises all materials, whether worked or unworked, and take down and remove all portions of the work condemned by the Architect as failing to conform to the Contract; and the Contractor shall promptly replace and re-execute his own work in accordance with the Contract and without expense to the Owner and shall bear the expense of making good all work of other contractors destroyed or damaged by such removal or replacement. If the Contractor does not remove such condemned work and materials within a reasonable time, fixed by written notice, the Owner may remove them and may store the material at the expense of the Contractor. If the Contractor does not pay the expense of such removal within five days thereafter, the Owner may, upon ten-days' written notice, sell such materials at auction or at private sale and shall account for the net proceeds thereof, after deducting all the costs and expenses that should have been borne by the Contractor.

Art. 15. **Deductions for Uncorrected Work.** If the Architect deems it inexpedient to correct work injured or not done in accordance with the Contract, the difference in value together with a fair allowance for damage shall be deducted, if acceptable to the Owner.

Art. 16. **Correction of Work After Final Payment.** Neither the final certificate nor payment nor any provision in the Contract Documents shall relieve the Contractor of responsibility for negligence or faulty materials or workmanship within the extent and period provided by law, and upon written notice he shall remedy any defects due thereto and pay for any damage to other work resulting therefrom. All questions arising under this Article shall be decided under Articles 10 and 45.

Art. 17. **Protection of Work and Property.** The Contractor shall continuously maintain adequate protection of all his work from damage and shall protect the Owner's and adjacent property from injury arising in connection with this Contract. He shall make good any such damage or injury, except such as may be directly due to errors in the contract documents.

Art. 18. **Emergencies.** In an emergency affecting the safety of life or of the structure or of adjoining property, not considered by the Contractor as within the provisions of Article 17, then the Contractor, without special instruction or authorization from the Architect or Owner, is hereby permitted to act, at his discretion, to prevent such threatened loss or injury and he shall so act, without appeal, if so instructed or authorized. Any compensation claimed to be due to him therefor shall be determined under Articles 10 and 45 regardless of the limitations in Article 25 and in the second paragraph of Article 24.

Art. 19. **Damage to Persons.** In addition to the liability imposed by law upon the Contractor on account of bodily injury or death suffered through the Contractor's negligence, which liability is not impaired or otherwise affected hereby, the Contractor hereby assumes, in cases not embraced within such legal liability, the obligation to save the owner harmless and indemnify him from every expense, liability or payment (voluntary payments excepted), by reason of any injury to any person or persons, including death, suffered through any act or omission of the Contractor or any Subcontractor, or anyone directly or indirectly employed by either of them, in the prosecution of any work included in this contract.

Art. 20. Liability Insurance. The Contractor shall maintain such insurance as will protect him from claims under workmen's compensation acts and from any other claims for damages for personal injury, including death, which may arise from operations under this contract. Certificates of such insurance shall be filed with the Owner, if he so require, and shall be subject to his approval for adequacy of protection. The Owner shall be responsible for his own contingent liability.

Art. 21. Fire Insurance. The Owner shall effect and maintain fire insurance upon the entire structure on which the work of this contract is to be done and upon all materials, tools and appliances in or adjacent thereto and intended for use thereon, to at least eighty per cent of the insurable value thereof. The loss, if any, is to be made adjustable with and payable to the Owner as Trustee for whom it may concern. All policies shall be open to inspection by the Contractor. If the Owner fails to show them on request or if he fails to effect or maintain insurance as above, the Contractor may insure his own interest and charge the cost thereof to the Owner. If the Contractor is damaged by failure of the Owner to maintain such insurance, he may recover under Art. 39. If required in writing by any party in interest, the Owner as Trustee shall, upon the occurrence of loss, give bond for the proper performance of his duties. He shall deposit any money received from insurance in an account separate from all his other funds and he shall distribute it in accordance with such agreement as the parties in interest may reach, or under an award of arbitrators appointed, one by the Owner, another by joint action of the other parties in interest, all other procedure being in accordance with Art. 45. If after loss no special agreement is made, replacement of injured work shall be ordered under Art. 24. The Trustee shall have power to adjust and settle any loss with the insurers unless one of the contractors interested shall object in writing within three working days of the occurrence of loss and thereupon arbitrators shall be chosen as above. The Trustee shall in that case make settlement with the insurers in accordance with the directions of such arbitrators, who shall also, if distribution by arbitration is required, direct such distribution.

Art. 22. Guaranty Bonds. The Owner shall have the right to require the Contractor to give bond covering the faithful performance of the contract and the payment of all obligations arising thereunder, in such form as the Owner may prescribe and with such sureties as he may approve. If such bond is required by instructions given previous to the receipt of bids, the premium shall be paid by the Contractor; if subsequent thereto, it shall be paid by the Owner.

Art. 23. Cash Allowances. The Contractor shall include in the contract price all allowances named in the Contract Documents and shall cause the work so covered to be done by such contractors and for such sums as the Architect may direct, the contract sum being adjusted in conformity therewith. The Contractor, in making up his bid, shall add such sums for expenses and profit on account of cash allowances, as he deems proper, and no demand for expenses or profit other than those included in the contract sum shall be allowed. The Contractor shall not be required to employ for any such work a Subcontractor against whom he has a reasonable objection.

Art. 24. Changes in the Work. The owner, without invalidating the contract, may make changes by altering, adding to or deducting from the work, the contract sum being adjusted accordingly. All such work shall be executed under the conditions of the original contract except that any claim for extension of time caused thereby shall be adjusted at the time of ordering such change. Except as provided in Articles 9 and 18, no change shall be made unless in pursuance of a written order from the Owner signed or countersigned by the Architect and no claim for an addition to the contract sum shall be valid unless so ordered.

The value of any such change shall be determined in one or more of the following ways:

(a) By Estimate and Acceptance in a lump sum.

(b) By Unit Prices named in the contract or subsequently agreed upon.

(c) By Cost and Percentage or by Cost and a fixed fee.

(d) If none of the above methods is agreed upon, the Contractor, provided he receive an order in writing signed by the Owner and countersigned by the Architect, shall proceed with the work, no appeal to arbitration being allowed from such order to proceed.

In cases (c) and (d), the Contractor shall keep and present in such form as the Architect may direct, a correct account of the net cost of labor and materials, together with vouchers. In any case, the Architect shall certify to the amount, including a reasonable profit, due to the Contractor. Pending final determination of value, payments on account of changes shall be made on the Architect's certificate.

Art. 25. Claims for Extras. If the Contractor claims that any instructions, by drawings or otherwise, involve extra cost under this contract, he shall give the Architect written notice thereof before proceeding to execute the work and, in any event, within two weeks of receiving such instructions, and the procedure shall then be as provided in the last paragraph of Art. 24. No such claim shall be valid unless so made.

Art. 26. Applications for Payments. The Contractor shall submit to the Architect an application for each payment and, if required, receipts or other vouchers from Subcontractors showing his payments to them for materials and labor as required by Article 44. If payments are made on valuation of work done, such application shall be submitted at least ten days before each payment falls due. If required, the Contractor shall before the first application submit to the Architect a schedule of values of the various parts of the work, aggregating the total sum of the contract, divided so as to facilitate payments to subcontractors in accordance with Article 44 (e) made out in such form as the Architect may direct and, if required, supported by evidence as to its correctness. This schedule, when approved by the Architect, shall be used as a basis for certificates of payment, unless it be found to be in error. In applying for payments, the Contractor shall submit a statement based upon this schedule and, if required, itemized in such form as the Architect may direct, showing his right to the payment claimed.

Art. 27. Certificates and Payments. If the Contractor has made application as above, the Architect shall, not later than the date when each payment falls due, issue to the Contractor a certificate for such amount as he decides to be properly due. No certificate issued nor payment made to the Contractor, nor partial or entire use or occupancy of the work by the Owner shall be an acceptance of any work or materials not in accordance with this contract. The making and acceptance of the final payment shall constitute a waiver of all claims by the Owner, otherwise than under Articles 16 and 29 of these conditions or under requirement of the specifications, and of all claims by the Contractor, except those previously made and still unsettled. Should the Owner fail to pay the sum named in any certificate of the Architect or in any award by arbitration, upon demand when due, the Contractor shall receive, in addition to the sum named in the certificate, interest thereon at the legal rate in force at the place of building.

Art. 28. Payments Withheld. The Architect may withhold or, on account of subsequently discovered evidence, nullify the whole or a part of any certificate for payment to protect the Owner from loss on account of:

(a) Defective work not remedied.

(b) Claims filed or reasonable evidence indicating probable filing of claims.

(c) Failure of the Contractor to make payments properly to subcontractors or for material or labor.

(d) A reasonable doubt that the contract can be completed for the balance then unpaid.

When all the above grounds are removed certificates shall at once be issued for amounts withheld because of them.

Art. 29. Liens. Neither the final payment nor any part of the retained percentage shall become due until the Contractor, if required, shall deliver to the Owner a complete release of all liens arising out of this contract, or receipts in full in lieu thereof and, if required in either case, an affidavit that the releases and receipts include all the labor and material for which a lien might be filed; but the Contractor may, if any subcontractor refuses to furnish a release or receipt in full, furnish a bond satisfactory to the Owner, to indemnify him against any claim by lien or otherwise. If any lien or claim remain unsatisfied after all payments are made, the Contractor shall refund to the Owner all moneys that the latter may be compelled to pay in discharging such lien or claim, including all costs and a reasonable attorney's fee.

Art. 30. Permits and Regulations. The Contractor shall obtain and pay for all permits and licenses, but not permanent easements, and shall give all notices, pay all fees, and comply with all laws, ordinances, rules and regulations bearing on the work. If the drawings and specifications are at variance therewith, the Contractor shall notify the Architect in writing before the work is performed and the value of any necessary changes shall be adjusted under Art. 24. If any of the Contractor's work shall be done contrary to such laws, ordinances, rules, and regulations, without such notice, he shall bear all costs arising therefrom.

Art. 31. Royalties and Patents. The Contractor shall pay all royalties and license fees and shall defend all suits or claims whatsoever for infringement of any patent rights and shall save the Owner harmless from loss on account thereof.

Art. 32. Use of Premises. The Contractor shall confine his apparatus, the storage of materials and the operations of his workmen to limits indicated by law, ordinances, permits, or directions of the Architect and shall not encumber the premises with his materials. The Contractor shall not load or permit any part of the structure to be loaded with a weight that will endanger its safety. The Contractor shall enforce the Architect's instructions regarding signs, advertisements, fires and smoking.

Art. 33. Cleaning Up. The Contractor shall at all times keep the premises free from accumulations of waste material or rubbish caused by his employees or work and at the completion of the work he shall remove all his rubbish from and about the building and all his tools, scaffolding and surplus materials, and shall leave his work clean and ready for use. In case of dispute the Owner may remove the rubbish and charge the cost to the several contractors as the Architect shall determine to be just.

Art. 34. Cutting, Patching and Digging. The Contractor shall do all cutting, fitting, or patching of his work that may be required to make its several parts come together properly and fit it to receive or be received by work of other contractors shown upon, or reasonably implied by, the Drawings and Specifications for the completed structure, and he shall make good after them, as the Architect may direct. Any cost caused by defective or ill-timed work shall be borne by the party responsible therefor. The Contractor shall not endanger any work by cutting, digging, or otherwise and shall not cut or alter the work of any other contractor, save with the consent of the Architect.

Art. 35. Delays. If the Contractor is delayed in the completion of the work by any act or neglect of the Owner or the Architect, or of any employee of either, or by any other contractor employed by the Owner, or by changes ordered in the work, or by strikes, lockouts, fire, unavoidable casualties, or any causes beyond the Contractor's control, or by delay authorized by the Architect pending arbitration, or by any cause which the Architect shall decide to justify the delay, then the time of completion shall be extended for such reasonable time as the Architect may decide. No such extension shall be made for delay occurring more than seven days before claim therefor is made in writing to the Architect. In the case of a continuing cause of delay, only one claim is necessary. If no schedule is made under Art. 3, no claim for delay shall be allowed on account of failure to furnish drawings until two weeks after demand for such drawings and not then unless such claim be reasonable.

Art. 36. Owner's Right to Do Work. If the Contractor should neglect to prosecute the work properly or fail to perform any provision of this contract, the Owner, after three-days' written notice to the Contractor, may, without prejudice to any other remedy he may have, make good such deficiencies and may deduct the cost thereof from the payment then or thereafter due the Contractor; provided, however, that the Architect shall approve both such action and the amount charged to the Contractor.

Art. 37. Owner's Right to Terminate Contract. If the Contractor should be adjudged a bankrupt, or if he should make a general assignment for the benefit of his creditors, or if a receiver should be appointed on account of his insolvency, or if he should, except in cases recited in Article 35, persistently or repeatedly refuse or fail to supply enough properly skilled workmen or proper materials, or if he should fail to make prompt payment to subcontractors or for material or labor, or persistently disregard laws, ordinances or the instructions of the Architect, or otherwise be guilty of a substantial violation of any provision of the contract, then the Owner, upon the certificate of the Architect that sufficient cause exists to justify such action, may, without prejudice to any other right or remedy and after giving the Contractor seven-days' written notice, terminate the employment of the Contractor and take possession of the premises and of all materials, tools and appliances thereon and finish the work by whatever method he may deem expedient. In such case the Contractor shall not be entitled to receive any further payment until the work is finished. If the unpaid balance of the contract price shall exceed the expense of finishing the work, including compensation to the Architect for his additional services, such excess shall be paid to the Contractor. If such expense shall exceed such unpaid balance, the Contractor shall pay the difference to the Owner. The expense incurred by the Owner as herein provided, and the damage incurred through the Contractor's default, shall be certified by the Architect.

Art. 38. Contractor's Right to Stop Work or Terminate Contract. If the work should be stopped under an order of any court, for a period of three months, through no act or fault of the Contractor or of anyone employed by him, or if the Owner should fail to pay to the Contractor, within seven days of its maturity and presentation, any sum certified by the Architect or awarded by arbitrators, then the Contractor may, upon three-days' written notice to the Owner and the Architect, stop work or terminate this contract and recover from the Owner payment for all work executed and any loss sustained upon any plant or material and reasonable profit and damages.

Art. 39. Damages. If either party to this contract should suffer damage by delay or otherwise, except as provided in Art. 40, because of any act or neglect of the other party or of anyone employed by him, then he shall be reimbursed by the other party for such damage. Claims under this clause shall be made in writing to the party liable within a reasonable time of the first observance of such damage and not later than the time of final payment, except in case of claims under Article 16, and shall be adjusted by agreement or arbitration.

Art. 40. Mutual Responsibility of Contractors. Should the Contractor (see Art. 1 (c)) cause damage to any other person (see Art. 1 (e)) employed on the work, the Contractor agrees, upon due notice, to settle with such person by agreement or arbitration, if such person will so settle. If such person sues the Owner on account of any damage alleged to have been so sustained, the Owner shall notify the Contractor, who shall, at his own expense, defend such proceedings and, if any judgment against the Owner arise therefrom, the Contractor shall pay or satisfy it and pay all costs incurred by the Owner. The Contractor, if damaged by any person held to the Owner by stipulations such as the above, agrees to settle with such person by agreement or arbitration and in no case to sue the Owner on account of such damage.

Art. 41. Separate Contracts. The Owner reserves the right to let other contracts in connection with this work. The Contractor shall afford other contractors reasonable opportunity for the introduction and storage of their materials and the execution of their work and shall properly connect and coordinate his work with theirs. If any part of the Contractor's work depends for proper execution or results upon the work of any other contractor, the Contractor shall inspect and promptly report to the Architect any defects in such work that render it unsuitable for such proper execution and results. His failure so to inspect and report shall constitute an acceptance of the other contractor's work as fit and proper for the reception of his work, except as to defects which may develop in the other contractor's work after the execution of his work. To insure the proper execution of his subsequent work the Contractor shall measure work already in place and shall at once report to the Architect any discrepancy between the executed work and the drawings.

Art. 42. Assignment. Neither party to the Contract shall assign the contract without the written consent of the other, nor shall the Contractor assign any moneys due or to become due to him hereunder, without the previous written consent of the Owner.

Art. 43. Subcontracts. The Contractor shall notify the Architect in writing of the names of subcontractors proposed for the principal parts of the work and for such others as the Architect may direct and shall not employ any that the Architect may within a reasonable time object to as incompetent or unfit. The Contractor may in his discretion or shall, if so required, submit with his proposal, a list of subcontractors. If the change of any name on such list is required or permitted after signature of agreement, the contract price shall be increased or diminished by the difference between the two bids. The Architect shall, on request, furnish to any subcontractor, wherever practicable, evidence of the amounts certified to on his account. The Contractor agrees to be fully responsible to the Owner for the acts or omissions of his subcontractors and of anyone employed either directly or indirectly by him or them, and this contractual obligation shall be in addition to the liability imposed by law upon the Contractor for bodily injuries or death through negligence in the cases covered by Article 19 hereof. Nothing contained in the Contract Documents shall create any contractual relation between any subcontractor and the Owner.

Art. 44. Relations of Contractor and Subcontractor. The Contractor agrees to bind every subcontractor and every subcontractor agrees to be bound, by the terms of the General Conditions, Drawings and Specifications, as far as applicable to his work, including the following provisions of this Article, unless specifically noted to the contrary in a subcontract approved in writing as adequate by the Owner or Architect.

The Subcontractor agrees:

(a) To be bound to the Contractor by the terms of the General Conditions, Drawings and Specifications and to assume toward him all the obligations and responsibilities that he, by those documents, assumes toward the Owner.

(b) To submit to the Contractor applications for payment in such reasonable time as to enable the Contractor to apply for payment under Article 26 of the General Conditions.

(c) To make all claims for extras, for extensions of time and for damages for delays or otherwise, to the Contractor in the manner provided in the General Conditions for like claims by the Contractor upon the Owner, except that the time for making claims for extra cost as under Article 25 of the General Conditions is one week.

The Contractor agrees:

(d) To be bound to the Subcontractor by all the obligations that the Owner assumes to the Contractor under the General Conditions, Drawings and Specifications and by all the provisions thereof affording remedies and redress to the Contractor from the Owner.

(e) To pay the Subcontractor, upon the issuance of certificates, if issued under the schedule of values described in Article 26 of the General Conditions, the amount allowed to the Contractor on account of the Subcontractor's work to the extent of the Subcontractor's interest therein.

(f) To pay the Subcontractor, upon the issuance of certificates, if issued otherwise than as in (e), so that at all times his total payments shall be as large in proportion to the value of the work done by him as the total amount certified to the Contractor is to the value of the work done by him.

(g) To pay the Subcontractor to such extent as may be provided by the Contract Documents or the subcontract, if either of these provides for earlier or larger payments than the above.

(h) To pay the Subcontractor on demand for his work or materials as far as executed and fixed in place, less the retained percentage, at the time the certificate should issue, even though the Architect fails to issue it for any cause not the fault of the Subcontractor.

(j) To pay the Subcontractor a just share of any fire-insurance money received by him, the Contractor, under Article 21 of the General Conditions.

(k) To make no demand for liquidated damages or penalty for delay in any sum in excess of such amount as may be specifically named in the subcontract.

(l) That no claim for services rendered or materials furnished by the Contractor to the Subcontractor shall be valid unless written notice thereof is given by the Contractor to the Subcontractor during the first ten days of the calendar month following that in which the claim originated.

(m) To give the Subcontractor an opportunity to be present and to submit evidence in any arbitration involving his rights.

(n) To name as arbitrator under Article 45 of the General Conditions the person nominated by the Subcontractor, if the sole cause of dispute is the work, materials, rights, or responsibilities of the Subcontractor; or, if of the Subcontractor and any other subcontractor jointly, to name as such arbitrator the person upon whom they agree.

The Contractor and the Subcontractor agree that:

(o) In the matter of arbitration, their rights and obligations and all procedure shall be analogous to those set forth in Article 45 of the General Conditions.

Nothing in this Article shall create any obligation on the part of the Owner to pay to or to see to the payment of any sums to any Subcontractor.

Art. 45. Arbitration. Subject to the provisions of Article 10, all questions in dispute under this contract shall be submitted to arbitration at the choice of either party to the dispute. The general procedure shall conform to the laws of the State in which the work lies and wherever permitted by law the decision of the arbitrators may be filed in court to carry it into effect. The demand for arbitration shall be filed in writing with the Architect, in the case of an appeal from his decision, within ten days of its receipt and in any other case within a reasonable time after cause thereof and in no case later than the time of final payment, except as to questions arising under Article 16. If the Architect fails to make a decision within a reasonable time, an appeal to arbitration may be taken as if his decision had been rendered against the party appealing. The parties may agree upon one arbitrator; otherwise there shall be three, one named in writing by each party and the third chosen by these two arbitrators or, if they fail to select a third within ten days he shall be chosen by the presiding officer of the nearest Bar Association. Should the party demanding arbitration fail to name an arbitrator within ten days of his demand, his right to arbitration shall lapse. Should the other party fail to choose an arbitrator within such ten days, the Architect shall appoint such arbitrator. Should either party refuse or neglect to supply the arbitrators with any papers or information demanded in writing, the arbitrators are empowered by both parties to take *ex-parte* proceedings. The arbitrators shall act with promptness. The decision of any two shall be binding on all parties to the dispute. The decision of the arbitrators upon any question subject to arbitration under this contract shall be a condition precedent to any right of legal action. The arbitrators, if they deem that the case demands it, are authorized to award to the party whose contention is sustained such sums as they shall deem proper for the time, expense and trouble incident to the appeal and, if the appeal was taken without reasonable cause, damages for delay. The arbitrators shall fix their own compensation, unless otherwise provided by agreement and shall assess the costs and charges of the arbitration upon either or both parties. The award of the arbitrators must be in writing and, if in writing, shall not be open to objection on account of the form of the proceedings or the award.

B. THE STANDARD FORM OF BOND*

ISSUED BY THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS

This form has been approved by the National Association of Builders' Exchanges, The National Association of Master Plumbers, and the National Association of Master Steam and Hot Water Fitters.

SECOND EDITION, COPYRIGHT 1915 BY THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS, THE OCTAGON, WASHINGTON, D. C.

KNOW ALL MEN: That we...

(Here insert the name and address or legal title of the Contractor.)

..............................(Two blank lines)†..............................

hereinafter called the Principal, and.......................................

(Here insert the name and address or legal title of one or more sureties.)

........................(Two blank lines)........................ and

........................(Two blank lines)........................ and

hereinafter called the Surety or Sureties are held and firmly bound unto........

(Here insert the name and address or legal title of the Owner.)

..........................(Two blank lines)..............................

hereinafter called the Owner, in the sum of.................................

........................(Two blank lines)..........($.................)

for the payment whereof the Principal and the Surety or Sureties bind themselves, their heirs, executors, administrators, successors and assigns, jointly and severally, firmly, by these presents.

Whereas, the Principal has, by means of a written Agreement, dated.........

..............................entered into a contract with the Owner for

.... Two blank lines)..........................

a copy of which Agreement is by reference made a part hereof;

Now, Therefore, the Condition of this Obligation is such that if the Principal shall faithfully perform the Contract on his part, and satisfy all claims and demands, incurred for the same, and shall fully indemnify and save harmless the Owner from all cost and damage which he may suffer by reason of failure so to do, and shall fully reimburse and repay the Owner all outlay and expense which the Owner may incur in making good any such default, and shall pay all persons who have contracts directly with the Principal for labor or materials, then this obligation shall be null and void; otherwise it shall remain in full force and effect.

Provided, however, that no suit, action or proceeding by reason of any default whatever shall be brought on this Bond after..................months from the day on which the final payment under the Contract falls due.

And Provided, that any alterations which may be made in the terms of the Contract, or in the work to be done under it, or the giving by the Owner of any extension of time for the performance of the Contract, or any other forbearance on the part of either the Owner or the Principal to the other shall not in any way release the Principal and the Surety or Sureties, or either or any of them, their heirs, executors, administrators, successors, or assigns from their liability hereunder, notice to the Surety or Sureties of any such alteration, extension, or forbearance being hereby waived.

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* Published by permission of The American Institute of Architects.

† Dotted lines, as indicated, are in the standard documents and are omitted here to save space.

Signed and Sealed this..............day of...........................19..
In Presence of

.... } ....(SEAL)
(Repeated three times) } as to (Repeated three times)
.... } ....

C. THE STANDARD FORM OF SUBCONTRACT *

FOR USE IN CONNECTION WITH THE GENERAL CONDITIONS OF THE CONTRACT AS ISSUED BY THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS

This form has been approved by the National Association of Builders' Exchanges, The National Association of Master Plumbers, and the National Association of Master Steam and Hot Water Fitters.

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THIS AGREEMENT, made this................day of............19.. by and between..hereinafter called the Subcontractor and.. hereinafter called the Contractor.

WITNESSETH, That the Subcontractor and Contractor for the considerations hereinafter named agree as follows:

Section 1. The Subcontractor agrees to furnish all material and perform all work as described in Section 2 hereof for....(Here name the kind of building.)....
...................................(Blank lines)...................................
for...................(Here insert the name of the Owner.)......................
...................................(Blank lines)...................................
hereinafter called the Owner, at.......(Here insert the location of the work.)......
...................................(Blank lines)...................................
in accordance with the General Conditions of the Contract between the Owner and the Contractor, and in accordance with the Drawings and the Specifications prepared by..........................hereinafter called the Architect, all of which General Conditions, Drawings and Specifications signed by the parties thereto or identified by the Architect, form a part of a Contract between the Contractor and the Owner dated................19.. and hereby become a part of this Contract.

Section 2. The Subcontractor and the Contractor agree that the materials to be furnished and work to be done by the Subcontractor are (Here insert a precise description of the work, preferably by reference to the numbers of the Drawings and the pages of the Specifications.).......................................
...................................(Blank lines)...................................

Section 3. The Subcontractor agrees to complete the several portions and the whole of the work herein sublet by the time or times following:............
.....(Here insert the date or dates and if there be liquidated damages state them.).....
...................................(Blank lines)...................................

Section 4. The Contractor agrees to pay the Subcontractor for the performance of his work the sum of..........(Blank line)............($..........) in current funds, subject to additions and deductions for changes as may be agreed upon, and to make payments on account thereof in accordance with Section 5 hereof.

Section 5. The Contractor and Subcontractor agree to be bound by the terms of the General Conditions, Drawings and Specifications as far as applicable to this subcontract, including the provisions of Article 44 of the General Co ditions of the Contract, as follows*:

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Section 6...

..............................(One page of blank lines)........................

Finally. The Subcontractor and Contractor, for themselves, their heir successors, executors, administrators and assigns, do hereby agree to the f performance of the covenants herein contained.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF they have hereunto set their hands the day a date first above written.

In Presence of

....

Subcontractor.

....

Contractor.

D. STANDARD FORM OF ACCEPTANCE OF SUBCONTRACTOR'S PROPOSAL†

FOR USE IN CONNECTION WITH THE STANDARD DOCUMENTS OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS

This form has been approved by the National Association of Builders' Exchanges, T National Association of Master Plumbers, and the National Association of Master Stea and Hot Water Fitters.

COPYRIGHT 1915 BY THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS, THE OCTAGON, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Dear Sir: Having entered into a contract with (Here insert the name and ad dress or corporate title of the Owner.)..

..............................(Blank line)..............................

for the erection of (Here insert the kind of work and the place at which it is to be erected.)..

..............................(Blank line)..............................

in accordance with plans and specifications prepared by (Here insert the na and address of the Architect.)..

..............................(Blank line)..............................

and in accordance with the General Conditions of the Contract prefixed to th specifications, the undersigned hereby accepts your proposal of (Here insert date

....

to provide all the materials and do all the work of (Here insert the kind of wor to be done, as plumbing, roofing, etc., accurately describing by number, page, etc., th drawings and specifications governing such work.)..............................

..............................(Blank lines)..............................

The Undersigned agrees to pay you in current funds for the faithful performance of the subcontract established by this acceptance of your proposal the s of ....($.........

Our relations in respect of this subcontract are to be governed by the pla and specifications named above, by the General Conditions of the Contract as far as applicable to the work thus sublet and especially by Article 44 of thos conditions printed on the reverse hereof.‡

Very truly yours,

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* Article 44 of the General Conditions of the Contract is here repeated in full. See page 1680.

† Published by permission of The American Institute of Architects.

‡ Article 44 of the General Conditions of the Contract is printed in full on the reverse side of the Institute's standard form. See page 1680.

The Subcontractor entering into this agreement should be sure that not merely the above Article 44, but the full text of the General Conditions of the Contract as signed by the Owner and Contractor is known to him, since such full text, though not herein repeated, is binding on him.

ARCHITECTS' LICENSE LAW.* STATE OF ILLINOIS

An Act to Provide for the Licensing of Architects and Regulating the Practice of Architecture as a Profession

Appointment of a State Board of Examiners of Architects

SECTION 1. Be it enacted by the People of the State of Illinois, represented in General Assembly. That within thirty days after the passage of this act the Governor of this state shall, by the advice and consent of the Senate, appoint a State Board of Examiners of Architects, to be composed of five members, one of whom shall be a member of the faculty of the Illinois State University, and the other four shall be architects residing in the State of Illinois, who have been engaged in the practice of architecture at least ten years. Two of the said practicing architects appointed as examiners shall be designated to hold office for two years from the date of the passage of this act, and the other two, together with the member of the faculty aforesaid, shall hold office for four years from the passage of this act; and thereafter upon the expiration of the term of office of the person so appointed, the Governor of the state shall appoint a successor to each person whose term of office shall expire, to hold office for four years, and said person so appointed shall have the above specified qualifications. In case appointment of a successor is not made before the expiration of the term of any member, such member shall hold office until his successor is appointed and duly qualified. Any vacancy occurring in membership of the board shall be filled by the Governor of the state for the unexpired term of such membership. [Sections 2 and 3 relate to the organization of the board, salaries, etc.]

Examinations. Applicants for License to Pay an Examination Fee of $15 and a License Fee of $25

SECTION 4. Provisions shall be made by the board hereby constituted for holding examinations at least twice in each year, of applicants for license to practice architecture, and any person over twenty-one years of age, upon payment of a fee of fifteen dollars ($15) to the secretary of the board, shall be entitled to an examination for determining his or her qualifications. All examinations shall be made directly by said board, or a committee of two members delegated by the board, and due notice of the time and place of the holding of such examinations shall be published, as in the case provided for the publication of the rules and regulations thereof. The examination shall have special reference to the construction of buildings, and a test of the knowledge of the candidate of the strength of materials and of his or her ability to make practical application of such knowledge in the ordinary professional work of an architect, and in the duties of a supervisor of mechanical work on buildings, and should also seek to determine his or her knowledge of the laws of sanitation as applied to buildings. If the result of the examination of any applicant shall be satisfactory to a majority of the board, under its rules, the secretary shall, upon an order of the board, issue to the applicant a certificate to that effect, and upon payment to the secretary of the board by the candidate of a fee of twenty-five dollars ($25), he shall thereupon issue to the person therein named a license to practice architecture in the state in accordance with the provisions of this act, which license shall contain the full name, birth-place and age of the applicant, and be signed by the president and secretary, and sealed with the seal of the board. All papers received by the secretary in relation to applications for license shall be kept on file in his office, and a proper index and record thereof shall be kept by him.*

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* Enacted by the Fortieth General Assembly at the Regular Biennial Session, Approved June 3, 1897, and In Force July 1, 1897; with Amendments Adopted by the Forty-first General Assembly and Approved April 19, 1899; and by the Forty-fourth General Assembly, Approved May 16, 1905, and by the Forty-seventh General Assembly, Approved May 26, 1911.

Architects Who are Entitled to License Without an Examination

SECTION 5. Any person who shall, by affidavit, show to the satisfaction of the State Board of Examiners of Architects that he or she was engaged in the practice of the profession of architecture on the date of the passage of this act shall be entitled to a license without an examination, provided such application shall be made within six months after passage of this act. Such license, when granted, shall set forth the fact that the person to whom the same was issued was practicing architecture in this state at the time of the passage of this act; and is therefore entitled to a license to practice architecture without an examination by the board of examiners, and the secretary of the board shall, upon the payment to him of the fee of twenty-five dollars ($25), issue to the person named in said affidavit, a license to practice architecture in this state, in accordance with the provisions of this act. In the case of a copartnership of architects, each member whose name appears must be licensed to practice architecture. No stock-company or corporation shall be licensed to practice architecture, but the same may employ licensed architects. Each licensed architect shall have his or her license recorded in the office of the county clerk in each and every county in this state in which the holder thereof shall practice, and he or she shall pay to the clerk the same fee that is charged for the recording of notarial commissions. A failure to have his or her license so recorded shall be deemed sufficient cause for revocation of such license.

County Clerks to Keep Record of Licenses Recorded

SECTION 6. Each county clerk shall keep in a book, provided for the purpose, a complete list of all licenses recorded by him under the provisions of this act, together with the date of the issuance of each license.

Licensed Architects to Have a Seal

SECTION 7. Every licensed architect shall have a seal, the impression of which must contain the name of the architect, his or her place of business, and the words, "Licensed Architect," "State of Illinois," with which he shall stamp all drawings and specifications issued from his office for use in this state.

Penalty for Practicing Architecture without a License

SECTION 8. After six months from the passage of this act it shall be unlawful and it shall be a misdemeanor punishable by a fine of not less than ten dollars ($10) nor more than two hundred dollars ($200) for each and every offense, for any person to practice architecture without a license in this state, or to advertise, or put out any sign or card, or other device which might indicate to the public that he or she is entitled to practice as an architect.*

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* As amended May 26, 1911. This amendment repealed the authority heretofore given to the Board to return examination fees to those persons who had failed to pass the Class examinations.

Persons Who are to be Regarded as Architects

SECTION 9. Any person who shall be engaged in the planning or supervision of the erection, enlargement, or alteration of buildings for others, and to be constructed by other persons than himself, shall be regarded as an architect within the provisions of this act, and shall be held to comply with the same; but nothing contained in this act shall prevent the draughtsmen, students, clerks of works or superintendents, and other employees of those lawfully practicing as architects, under license as herein provided for, from acting under the instruction, control or supervision of their employers; or shall prevent the employment of superintendents of buildings paid by the owners from acting, if under the control and direction of a licensed architect who has prepared the drawing and specifications for the building. The term building in this act shall be understood to be a structure, consisting of foundations, walls, and roof, with or without the other parts; but nothing contained in this act shall be construed to prevent any person, mechanic, or builder from making plans and specifications for, or supervising the erection, enlargement or alteration of any building that is to be constructed by himself or employees; nor shall a civil engineer be considered as an architect unless he plans, designs and supervises the erection of buildings, in which case he shall be subject to all the provisions of this act, and be considered as an architect.

License Revoked

SECTION 10. Architects' license issued in accordance with the provisions of this act shall remain in full force until revoked for cause, as hereinafter provided. Any license so granted may be revoked by unanimous vote of the State Board of Examiners of Architects for gross incompetency, or recklessness in the construction of buildings, or for dishonest practices on the part of the holder thereof; but before any license shall be revoked such holder shall be entitled to at least twenty-days' notice of the charge against him, and of the time and place of the meeting of the board for the hearing and determining of such charge. And on the cancelation of such license it shall be the duty of the secretary of the board to give notice of such cancelation to the county clerk of each county in the state in which the license has been recorded, whereupon the clerks of the counties shall mark the license recorded in his office "canceled." After the expiration of six months from the revocation of a license, the person whose license was revoked may have a new license issued to him by the secretary upon certificate of the Board of Examiners, issued by them upon satisfactory evidence of proper reasons for his reinstatement, and upon payment to the secretary of the fee of five dollars ($5).

For the purpose of carrying out the provisions of this Act relating to the revocation of licenses, the board and each member thereof shall have the power to administer oaths, and said board shall have the power to secure by its subpœna both the attendance and testimony of witnesses, and the production of books and papers relevant to any investigations by the board for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of this Act, relating to the revocation of licenses. Witnesses shall be entitled to the same fees as witnesses in a court of record to be paid in like manner. The accused shall be enltited to the subpœna of the board for his witnesses, and to be heard in person or by counsel in open public trial. Any circuit court of this state or any judge thereof, either in term-time or vacation, upon application of such board, may in its discretion by order duly entered by such court or judge thereof, require the attendance of witnesses, the production of books and papers and giving of testimony before such board, and upon refusal or neglect to so appear and testify and produce such books and papers as commanded by such order of court or of any judge thereof, may compel, by an attachment for contempt of court or otherwise, the attendance of such witnesses, the production of such books and papers and the giving of such testimony before such board, in the same manner as production of evidence may be compelled before said court. Every person, who, having taken an oath or made affirmation before said board, shall wilfully swear of [or] affirm falsely, shall be guilty of perjury and upon conviction shall be punished accordingly.*

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* As amended May 16, 1905.

Renewal of Licenses

SECTION 11. Every licensed architect in this state who desires to continue the practice of his profession shall annually, during the time he shall continue in such practice, pay to the secretary of the board during the month of July a fee of five dollars ($5), and the secretary shall thereupon issue to such licensed architect a certificate of renewal of his license for the term of one year. Any licensed architect who shall fail to have his license renewed during the month of July in each and every year shall have his license revoked; and it shall be the duty of the secretary of the board to give notice of such revocation to the county clerk in each county in the state, whereupon the clerks of the counties shall make an entry of such revocation accordingly. But the failure to renew said license in apt time shall not deprive such architect of the right to renewal thereafter; and the secretary of the board shall give like notice of such renewal; but the fee to be paid upon the renewal of license after the month of July shall be ten dollars ($10), to cover the additional expense incurred by the board on account of such notices.†

Report of Proceedings to be Filed with the Auditor of Public Accounts

SECTION 12. Within the first week of December, after the organization of the board, and annually thereafter, the secretary of the board shall file with the auditor of the state a full report of the proceedings of the board, attested by the affidavits of the president and secretary, subject to the approval of the state auditor.

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA OFFERING COURSES IN ARCHITECTURE. TRAVELING-FELLOWSHIPS AND SCHOLARSHIPS.‡

Academy of Architecture and Industrial Science, St. Louis, Mo. H. Maack, Principal. This is a private school founded by Mr. Maack in 1885, and designed more particularly to meet the wants of building tradesmen, offering them such instruction as is necessary to attain the highest proficiency in their trade and a thorough understanding of the plans and details of complicated buildings. There is also a special course for those desiring to fit themselves for positions as draughtsmen in architects' offices. Tuition for the regular course is $50 for a three-month term, or $300 for the full course of eight terms, or $100 for the year. There are several special courses which may be commenced at any time and for which the tuition varies.

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* As amended May 26, 1911. This amendment to the second paragraph more clearly defines the authority of the board in conducting the trials of architects.

† As amended April 19, 1899.

‡ For convenience, these institutions are arranged in alphabetical order without regard to the character of the courses of instruction in architectural subjects. The status of these courses varies with reference to the requirements of admission, the number of years necessary to complete the work, the proficiency demanded, the certificates or degrees conferred, the graduate or advanced work included, etc. They range from academies and trade schools to institutions conferring the highest degrees and offering the most advanced graduate work.

American Academy in Rome, Fellowship in Architecture. ROMAN PRIZE. The fellowship is awarded annually and is of the value of $1 000 a year for three years. The award is made on competitions which are open only to unmarried male citizens of the United States, who comply with the regulations of the Academy. Candidates are required to be (1) graduates of one of the architectural schools included in the accepted list of the Academy; or (2) graduates of a college or university of high standing who hold certificates of at least two years' study in one of such architectural schools; or (3) Americans who are pupils of the first class of the School of Fine Arts at Paris, and who have obtained at least three values in that class. There is no age-limit. Information as to the terms and conditions of the competitions may be obtained from the Secretary of the Academy, 101 Park Avenue, New York City.

American School of Correspondence, Chicago, Ill. Correspondence-courses in Architecture, Architectural Engineering, Contracting and Building, Reinforced Concrete, Architectural Design, and Structural Draughting. Bulletin sent on application.

Armour Institute of Technology, Chicago, Ill. Walter Francis Shattuck, Professor of Architecture. Full four-year course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Architecture. Applicants for admission must have completed the regular four-year high-school course. A HOME TRAVELING SCHOLARSHIP, four prizes and a medal are awarded annually. Tuition $175 per year.

Beaux-Arts Architects, Society of. Wendell P. Blagden, Chairman, Committee on Education, 437 Fifth Avenue, New York City. The course established in 1893 now consists of a series of thirty-five competitions for the study of architectural design and the styles of architecture, open to draughtsmen and students in architectural schools in the United States and Canada, and modeled on the system of instruction adopted by the École des Beaux Arts in Paris. The course is free, except for the annual fee of $2 for registration of each student. There are no restrictions as to the age, nationality or sex of the students. No preliminary examinations are given but new students are expected to have a knowledge of the five orders of architecture. Bronze medals are presented for excellence in design and money-prizes are offered in special prizes for decoration, group-planning of buildings, etc. The competitions are conducted by the Committee on Education. The PARIS PRIZE is conducted by the Annual Paris Prize Committee. (See following paragraph.) The students of the Society of Beaux Arts Architects are classified according to the number of "values" credited in Class B and Class A competitions from the time of commencing the course. Certificates are presented to all students of Class A completing the course as defined in the circular of information, which will be furnished on request by the chairman of the committee on education. During the season of 1913–1914 the work was carried on by ninety-six local representatives of the committee on education in seventy-eight different cities and over one thousand students were registered.

THE PARIS PRIZE OF THE SOCIETY OF BEAUX ARTS ARCHITECTS. Conducted by The Annual Paris Prize Committee, William Emerson, Chairman, 281 Fifth

Avenue, New York City. A scholarship offered to the winner of the final competition, who fulfills the requirements as stated in the circular of information concerning the Paris Prize, which will be furnished on request by the chairman of the Paris Prize committee. The Paris Prize winner is authorized by decree of the French Minister of Public Instruction and Fine Arts to follow the lectures and take part in the competitions of the first class in the section of architecture, subject to the approval of the faculty of the École Nationale et Spéciale des Beaux Arts, Paris. The winner of the prize will receive $250 quarterly for two and one-half years and the four unsuccessful competitors in the final competition may receive $100 each, provided the committee considers their work satisfactory. The competition will consist of two preliminary and one final competition. The Paris Prize competitions are open to all citizens of the United States under twenty-seven years of age, on July 1, of the current season, independent of any connection with the Society of Beaux Arts Architects.

Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pa. SCHOOL OF APPLIED DESIGN. Henry Hornbostel, Patron. Department of Architecture. Henry McGoodwin, Professor in charge. (1) A complete course in architecture for day-students for which the degree of Bachelor of Arts is awarded to those specializing in design and allied subjects (Option 1) and the degree of Bachelor of Science to those specializing in construction and allied subjects. From four to five years are required for the completion of prescribed work. (2) For graduate day-students, a course of advanced studies in design and allied subjects, scheduled to cover one year, and leading to the degree of Master of Arts. (3) A partial day-course, scheduled to cover two years, for experienced draughtsmen and designers, for which a certificate of proficiency is awarded. (4) A course for night-students, for which a certificate of proficiency is awarded. This course includes the same work as is required of day-students in design, freehand drawing and history of architecture. Total tuition and incidental fees: for day-students, residents of Pittsburgh, $43; for other day-students, $53; for night-students, residents of Pittsburgh, $16; for other night-students, $18.

Columbia University, New York City. SCHOOL OF ARCHITECTURE. (1) Full four-year course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Architecture. (2) Full four-year course leading to the Professional Certificate in Architecture. (3) Advanced courses leading to the degree of Master of Arts and Doctor of Philosophy. (4) Students not candidates for a degree or certificate are admitted under the Department of Extension Teaching and to the summer session without examination, and select their own programme of study. Tuition, $250 per year, except for Extension Teaching, in which the average charge is $5 per lecture-hour per term. There are three TRAVELING FELLOWSHIPS, the MCKIM FELLOWSHIP and the COLUMBIA FELLOWSHIP, awarded annually in May, and the PERKINS FELLOWSHIP, awarded quadrennially in May, all open, by competition, to graduates of the school within the preceding three years and to students who have fulfilled all requirements for the thesis. Each of these requires the winner to devote one year to foreign travel and study. Details in the Announcement of the School of Architecture, Columbia University.

Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y. COLLEGE OF ARCHITECTURE. Professor Clarence A. Martin, Dean and Director. Professor Albert C. Phelps, Secretary. (1) Courses leading to the degree of Bachelor of Architecture; first, a four-year course covering the general field of architecture in history, theory, design, construction and practice; second, the same course modified by the substitution of engineering and construction for a part of the advanced work in design and drawing; third, five-year courses covering the same ground as the four-year courses but including additional work in the arts and sciences.

(2) A two-year special course in architecture, leading to a certificate. (3) Graduate courses in architecture and construction leading to the degree of Master of Architecture. Tuition, $150 a year.

Drexel Institute of Art, Science and Industry, Philadelphia, Pa. COURSE IN ARCHITECTURE. Arthur Truscott, Professor of Architecture; John J. Dull, Professor of Design. Three-year course in Architecture, a large share of the time being devoted to purely architectural work. Tuition, $100 per year.

Georgia School of Technology, Atlanta, Ga. DEPARTMENT OF ARCHITECTURE. Francis Palmer Smith, Professor in charge. (1) Full four-year course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Architecture. (2) Two-year special course leading to a certificate of proficiency. Tuition, $25 per year for residents of Georgia; $100 for non-residents. The Atlanta Chapter of the American Institute of Architects has provided a loan-fund in this department for one or two students needing pecuniary assistance.

Harvard University, Graduate School of Applied Science, Cambridge, Mass. SCHOOL OF ARCHITECTURE. Herbert Langford Warren, Nelson Robinson, Jr., Professor of Architecture, in charge. Eugene Duquesne, Professor of Architectural Design. (1) Professional training in architecture, open to graduates of colleges and scientific schools of good standing, leading to the degree of Master in Architecture. Length of period of study, commonly three years, depending on ability and previous training. (2) Competent special students, who must be over twenty-one years of age and must have had at least three years office-experience, admitted to any courses which their training fits them to pursue with advantage. Tuition, $150 per year. (3) Advanced course in architectural design open to graduates in architecture from recognized professional schools or to others of similar competence in Design. Such students may also be candidates for the degree of Master in Architecture. Tuition in accordance with amount of work taken.

SCHOOL OF LANDSCAPE-ARCHITECTURE. Professor James Sturgis Pray, in charge. (1) Professional training in landscape architecture open to graduates of colleges and scientific schools of good standing, leading to the degree of Master in Landscape-Architecture. (2) Competent special students admitted to any courses for which their previous training fits them. Tuition, $150 per year.

Two TRAVELING-FELLOWSHIPS, the JULIA AMORY APPLETON and the ROBINSON, are offered for competition in alternate years, each having an annual value of $1 000, tenable for two years, for travel and study in Europe under the direction of the Department of Architecture. These Fellowships are open for competition to graduates in architecture of Harvard University.

RESIDENT-SCHOLARSHIPS. Two AUSTIN SCHOLARSHIPS IN ARCHITECTURE and one in LANDSCAPE-ARCHITECTURE, annual value, $300. ARCHITECTURAL LEAGUE SCHOLARSHIP IN ARCHITECTURE, open for competition to members of the Architectural League of America, three; annual value, $150. Other resident scholarships open to schools of architecture and of landscape-architecture in common with students in the graduate schools. Awarded by committee on examination of testimonials.

The International Correspondence Schools, Scranton, Pa. A corporation formed to furnish instruction by correspondence and to hold examinations to establish proficiency. The architectural course is designed particularly to meet the wants of those already engaged in the building trades or drafting-room. It includes sixty-one subjects covering the elements of building-construction, masonry, carpentry, plumbing, etc., and the principles of design, drawing, rendering and specification-writing. Total tuition, including text-books, $96 net cash, or proportionately higher if paid on the instalment-plan. Shorter courses are available for building-contractors, building-foremen, and also special courses in structural engineering.

Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston, Mass. Professor William H. Lawrence, Chairman of the Department. Two four-year courses are offered in architecture leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science: (1) Course in general architecture; (2) Course in architectural engineering. Opportunities are offered in each course for advanced professional work leading to the degree of Master of Science. Special students must be college-graduates, or twenty-one years of age with not less than two years of office-experience. In all cases they must demonstrate their fitness for the work of the department by personal conference with the chairman or his representative, and by the presentation of letters from former employers, together with drawings covering their experience as fully as possible. All special students must take in their first year of residence at the Institute courses in descriptive geometry and mechanical drawing, unless these subjects have been passed at the September examinations for advanced standing, or excuse from one or both has been obtained on the basis of equivalent work accomplished elsewhere. Tuition, $250 per year. An ANNUAL TRAVELING-FELLOWSHIP amounting to $1 000 is given solely on the basis of distinguished merit, candidates being received from both regular and special students. Eight prizes, varying from $10 to $200 each, are equally divided between the regular and the special students. Certain funds are available for the assistance of well-qualified regular students for undergraduate and for postgraduate work.

McGill University, Montreal, Canada. DEPARTMENT OF ARCHITECTURE. Ramsay Traquair, Percy E. Nobbs and Thomas W. Ludlow, Professors in charge. (1) Full five-year course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Architecture. (2) Competent special students are admitted to take a partial course, but no university certificate is granted for this work. Tuition, $150 per year. THE GEORGE CREEFORD BROWNE TRAVELING-SCHOLARSHIP IN ARCHITECTURE, of the value of $500, is awarded annually.

North Dakota Agricultural College, Fargo, N. D. DEPARTMENT OF ENGINEERING. E. S. Keene, Dean. Contractors' and builders' course of two years; Certificate of Completion given. Full four-year course in architecture, leading to Bachelor of Science in Architecture. Full four-year course in Architectural Engineering, leading to Bachelor of Science in Architectural Engineering. Tuition free. Fees amounting to $25 per year.

Ohio Mechanics' Institute, Cincinnati, Ohio. Institute of Applied Arts. DEPARTMENT OF ARCHITECTURE. Henry Norton June, Dean. Complete course in architecture covering six years, divided into two three-year periods. The instruction is arranged to unite the high-school and college years. Graduates of grammar-schools are trained in draughting and elementary architectural subjects simultaneously with their high-school subjects during the first period. The second period completes the full technical course, including collegiate mathematics and sciences, and leads to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Architecture. Tuition, $50, $60 and $75 per year.

Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. COURSE IN ARCHITECTURE. J. N. Bradford, Professor in charge. Full four-year course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Architecture. Tuition free.

The Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa. Course in Architectural Engineering. Roy Irvin Webber, Professor in charge. Full four-year course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Architectural Engineering.

Tuition is free. Incidental fees amount to about $30 per semester, these fees including the college fees. No course in architectural design.

Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y. Course in Architecture. Walter Scott Perry, Director of the SCHOOL OF FINE AND APPLIED ARTS. (1) Two-year course in architectural design. (2) Two-year course in architectural construction. (3) Full three-year course in architectural design and architectural construction. The course in architectural design aims to give students a general training that will prepare them to pursue the profession of architecture as competent assistants in architects' offices, and leads to positions of responsibility and independence. The course in architectural construction aims to fit the student for general draughting in builders' offices, or for general detailing and construction-work in an architect's office, and leads to the position of superintendent of construction-work. Tuition, $64 per year.

Rice Institute, Houston, Texas. ARCHITECTURAL DEPARTMENT. Wm. Ward Watkin, in charge. Full four-year course leading to Bachelor of Science in Architecture. · Tuition free.

Rose Polytechnic Institute, Terre Haute, Ind. DEPARTMENT OF ARCHITECTURE. Malverd A. Howe, Director. Full four-year course, designed to give a thorough training in architectural engineering together with systematic instruction in architectural design. Tuition and incidental fees, $110.

Rotch Traveling-Scholarship, Inc. C. H. Blackall, Secretary, 20 Beacon Street, Boston, Mass. Candidates must be under thirty years of age at the date of the beginning of the preliminary examinations. At that date they must have been engaged in professional work during two years in Massachusetts in the employ of a practicing architect resident in Massachusetts, and will be required to pass preliminary examinations upon the following subjects: (1) History of architecture; (2) Freehand drawing from the cast; (3) Construction, theory and practice; (4) An elementary knowledge of the French language. Holders of a degree in Architecture from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Columbia University, University of Pennsylvania, Cornell University, Harvard University, or University of Illinois will be allowed to present such diploma which will be accepted in lieu of the examinations in the preliminaries. Candidates who pass in these preliminary examinations are admitted to a competition in design, the successful candidate in which is awarded the scholarship and receives annually, for two years, $1 000 to be expended in foreign travel and study. The Boston Society of Architects, through a committee, has complete charge of the examinations and supervises the work of the scholar. The Society of Architects awards the sum of $75 as a second prize.

Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y., College of Fine Arts. DEPARTMENT OF ARCHITECTURE. Frederick W. Revels, Director. (1) A full four-year course in architecture. (2) A full four-year course in architecture allowing specialization in architectural engineering. These courses lead to the degree of Bachelor in Architecture, (B.Ar.). (3) A two-year special course for architectural draughtsmen of two or more years' office-experience, leading to a certificate of proficiency. Tuition, $120 per year.

The Tulane University of Louisiana, New Orleans, La. DEPARTMENT OF ARCHITECTURE IN THE COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY. W. H. P. Creighton, Dean; N. C. Curtis, Professor of Architecture, in charge. (1) Full four-year course leading to a degree in architecture. (2) Full four-year course leading to a degree in architectural engineering. (3) Special courses for students not candidates for a degree. Tuition, $100 per year. Special attention given to subtropical conditions.

University of California, Berkeley, Cal. DEPARTMENT OF ARCHITECTURE. (1) Full four-year course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science. (2) Two-year graduate course leading to advanced degrees. (3) Special or elective courses for students not candidates for a degree. Tuition free to residents of the state of California.

University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill. COURSES IN ARCHITECTURE. L. H. Provine, Professor in charge. (1) Full four-year course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Architecture. (2) Full four-year course, leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Architectural Engineering. Tuition is free. Incidental fee, $24 per year. PLYM TRAVELING-FELLOWSHIP, $1 000 for one year of travel abroad; awarded by competition to graduates of the Department of Architecture of the University of Illinois.

University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich. DEPARTMENT OF ARCHITECTURE, Emil Lorch, Professor of Architecture in charge of Department. (1) A general four-year course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Architecture. (2) A four-year course, in which architectural design is emphasized, leading to the same degree. (3) A four-year course in which there is a large proportion of engineering subjects, leading to the degree of Bachelor of Architectural Engineering. (4) Five-year courses leading to the degrees of Master of Architecture and Master of Architectural Engineering. (5) A two-year course for special students (experienced draughtsmen or college graduates). (6) Students may earn the Bachelor-of-Arts degree and the degree in Architecture in from five to six years. There are THREE SCHOLARSHIPS. Annual fees, $55 for students from Michigan and $65 for others.

University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn. COURSES IN ARCHITECTURE. Frederick Maynard Mann, Professor in charge. (1) Full four-year course, leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Architecture. (2) Full four-year course leading to degree of Bachelor of Science in Architectural Engineering. (3) Fifth year in each, leading to degree of Master of Science. (4) Special students of maturity and practical experience admitted. Tuition free. Incidental fee for residents and non-residents alike, $50 per year.

University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, Ind. COLLEGE OF ARCHITECTURE. Rev. John Cavanaugh, President. Francis Wynne Kervick, in charge. (1) Full four-year course in design leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Architecture. (2) Full four-year course in architectural engineering leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Architectural Engineering. (3) Two-year special course leading to a Certificate of Proficiency. Fees for room, board and tuition, $400 per year.

University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon. SCHOOL OF ARCHITECTURE.* Ellis F. Lawrence, Director. Four-year course leading to the practice of the profession of architecture. Two options in third and fourth-years work: (1) Architectural design. (2) Structural design. A degree of Bachelor of Arts is given for the successful completion of the first and a degree of Bachelor of Science for the second.

University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa. COURSES IN ARCHITECTURE. Warren Powers Laird, Professor in charge. (1) Full four-year course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Architecture. (2) Two-year special course leading to a professional certificate. (3) Graduate course of one year leading to the degree of Master of Science in Architecture. (4) Six-year arrangement of courses in Arts and Architecture leading to the degree of Bachelor of Arts at the end of the fourth year and to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Architecture at the end of the sixth year. (5) Course in Architectural Engineering leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Architecture. Summer School, providing instruction in many architectural subjects of the regular session. PRIZES AND SCHOLARSHIPS are awarded annually. The PRIZE OF THE AMERICAN ACADEMY AT ROME and the PARIS PRIZE are open to students and the STEWARDSON SCHOLARSHIP is available to those resident in Pennsylvania. The degree and certificate are accepted by the American Institute of Architects in lieu of examination for membership. Instruction-staff (1914–15) in architecture, 29 persons; students, 301, including summer-school courses. Tuition, $200 per year. Circular and year-book on application to Professor John Frazer, Dean of the Towne Scientific School, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

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* This information was taken from the Preliminary Announcement of the School of Architecture of the University of Oregon. The organization of the School is being completed (1915).

THE JOHN STEWARDSON MEMORIAL SCHOLARSHIP IN ARCHITECTURE. The value of this scholarship, established in 1897, is $1 000. The holder is required to spend one year in travel and the study of Architecture in Europe under the direction of the managing committee. All candidates must be under thirty years of age and either students or practitioners of architecture, resident in the state of Pennsylvania for at least one year immediately preceding the date of preliminary examinations.

University of Southern California. COLLEGE OF FINE ARTS. Four-year course in architecture, leading to the degree of Bachelor of Fine Arts; also a diploma-course of three years qualifying the student for practical work in architectural design.

University of Texas, Austin, Texas. SCHOOL OF ARCHITECTURE. F. E. Giesecke, Professor in charge. Four-year and five-year courses leading respectively to the degrees of Bachelor of Science and Master of Science in Architecture. In the first, second and third years the course in prescribed; in the fourth and fifth years the student has opportunity of selecting his studies so as to specialize in the æsthetic or in the engineering branches of architecture. There is no charge for tuition, but a matriculation fee of $10 per year for the first three years is required.

University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. DEPARTMENT OF ARCHITECTURE. C. H. C. Wright, Professor in charge. Full four-year course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Applied Science (B.A.Sc.) with an option of architectural engineering replacing architectural design in the fourth year. The fees are, first year, $100; second year, $110; third and fourth years, $120. The university is supported by the Province of Ontario.

University of Washington, Seattle, Washington. COURSE IN ARCHITECTURE. Karl Gould, Professor in charge. A course in home-architecture and decoration. Lectures and laboratory work.

Washington, The State College of, Pullman, Wash. DEPARTMENT OF ARCHITECTURE. Rudolph Weaver, Professor in charge. (1) Full four-year course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Architecture. (2) Two-year special course leading to a Certificate of Proficiency. (3) Special students, adequately prepared, are admitted to all classes. Tuition free.

Washington University, St. Louis, Mo. Course in Architecture. John Beverley Robinson, Professor in charge. (1) Four-year course in architecture or in architectural engineering leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science. (2) One-year course leading to the degree of Master of Science. (3) Special course with diploma. Tuition, $150 per year. Special course, $40 per year.

Wentworth Institute, Boston, Mass. A. L. Williston, Principal. Courses in architectural construction and carpentry and building. (1) Two-year course in architectural construction trains for positions of foremen, superintendents, detail-designers, etc. Tuition, $18 per year and $15 laboratory-fee. (2) One-year course in carpentry and building planned for those wishing to enter the woodworking-trades and industries. Tuition, $18 per year and $9 laboratory-fee.

Yale University, New Haven, Conn. COURSES IN ARCHITECTURE. Richard Henry Dana, Professor in charge. Regular course covers three years. Special degree, Bachelor of Fine Arts, to be competed for at end of course. The first year's work, including lectures on history of chief styles of architecture and principles of composition and practice in elementary design, may be taken as an elective by juniors and seniors in the academic course. ALICE KIMBALL ENGLISH SCHOLARSHIP supported from fund of $11 000 for a year's travel abroad. WILLIAM WIRT WINCHESTER SCHOLARSHIP, supported from fund of $20 000 for a year's travel abroad. Tuition, $180 per year.

ARCHITECTURAL SOCIETIES AND ORGANIZATIONS OF THE WORLD *

1. United States

(1) THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS

The Octagon, Washington, D. C

LIST OF CHAPTERS (1915) OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS

The year indicates the date of the chapter's organization

Baltimore Chapter. 1870
Boston Chapter. 1870
Brooklyn Chapter. 1894
Buffalo Chapter. 1890
Central New York Chapter. 1887
Cincinnati Chapter. 1870
Cleveland Chapter. 1890
Colorado Chapter. 1892
Columbus (Ohio) Chapter. 1913
Connecticut Chapter. 1902
Dayton Chapter. 1899
Georgia Chapter. 1906
Illinois Chapter. 1869
Indiana Chapter. 1910
Iowa Chapter. 1903
Kansas City Chapter. 1890
Louisiana Chapter. 1910
Louisville Chapter. 1908
Michigan Chapter. 1887
Minnesota Chapter. 1892
New Jersey Chapter. 1900
New York Chapter. 1867
North Carolina Chapter. 1913
Oregon Chapter. 1911
Philadelphia Chapter. 1869
Pittsburgh Chapter. 1891
Rhode Island Chapter. 1875
St. Louis Chapter. 1890
San Francisco Chapter. 1881
South Carolina Chapter. 1913
Southern California Chapter. 1894
Southern Pennsylvania Chapter. 1909
Texas Chapter. 1913
Washington (D. C.) Chapter. 1887
Washington State Chapter. 1894
Wisconsin Chapter. 1911
Worcester Chapter. 1892

LIST OF STATE ASSOCIATIONS OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS

Pennsylvania State Association. 1909.
New York State Association. 1913

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* Reproduced by permission from the 1913–14 edition of the Architects' Directory and Specification-Index, published by The William T. Comstock Company, New York City.

(2) ARCHITECTURAL LEAGUE OF AMERICA

Organizations of the League

Architectural Society of Washington University, St. Louis
Boston Architectural Club
Gargoyle Society of Cornell University
George Washington University Architectural Club, Washington, D. C.
T Square Club, Philadelphia
Cleveland Architectural Club
Toronto Architectural Club
Pittsburgh Architectural Club
Chicago Architectural Club
St. Louis Architectural Club
Washington, D. C., Architectural Club
Architects' Club, University of Illinois
Topiarian of Harvard
National Society of Mural Painters
San Francisco Architectural Club
Detroit Architectural Club

(3) MISCELLANEOUS SOCIETIES

American Society of Landscape Architects
Architects' Association of Indianapolis
Architectural Club of Minneapolis
Architectural League, Pacific Coast
Architectural League of New York
Architectural Society of the University of California
Baltimore Architectural Club
Birmingham Society of Architects
Boston Architectural Club
Boston Society of Architects
Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences
Chicago Architects' Business Association
Chicago Architectural Club
Chicago Association of Architects
Cincinnati Architectural Club
Cleveland Architectural Club
Columbus Society of Architects
Detroit Architectural Club
Duluth Architectural Club
Engineers' and Architects' Club of Louisville, Ky.
Florida Association of Architects
Gargoyle Club of St. Paul
Georgia Architectural Association
Indianapolis Architectural Club
Kansas State Architects' Association
Los Angeles Architectural Club
Massachusetts Institute of Technology Architectural Association
Minneapolis Architectural Club
Minneapolis Society of Architects
New Orleans Architectural Club
New York Society of Architects
Norfolk Society of Architects

North Carolina Architectural Association
Oakland Architects' Association
Oakland Architectural Club
Oklahoma State Association of Architects
Pittsburgh Architectural Club
Portland, Oregon, Architectural Club
Portland, Oregon, Association of Architects
St. Joseph, Missouri, Society of Architects
St. Louis Architectural Club
St. Paul Architectural Club
San Antonio Society of Architects
San Diego Architectural Association
San Francisco Architectural Club
Society of Architects of Akron, Ohio
Society of Architects of Columbia University
Society of Beaux-Arts Architects
Society of Naval Architects and Marine Engineers
South Bend Architectural Club
South Carolina Association of Architects
Southern States Engineering Society
Spokane Architectural Club
T Square Club of Philadelphia
Tacoma Society of Architects
Texas State Association of Architects
Utah Association of Architects
Washington, D. C., Architectural Club

2. Argentine Republic

Sociedad Central de Arquitectos. Buenos Aires

3. Austria

Austrian Society of Civil Engineers and Architects. Vienna
Architekten-Klub der Weiner Kunstlergenossenschaft. Vienna
Gesellschaft Österreichischer Architekten. Vienna
Weiner Bauhütte. Vienna
Towarzystwo Politechniczne we Lwowie. Leopol
Towarzystwo Technisczne we Krakowie. Cracow

4. Belgium

Association des Architectes, de Liège. Liège
Société Centrale D'Architecture de Belgique. Brussels
Société Royale des Architectes D'Anvers. Antwerp
Kring Voor Bouwhunde D'Anvers. Antwerp
Chambre Syndicale des Architectes de Bruxelles. Brussels
Association des Architectes de Bruxelles. Brussels
Société des Architectes de la Flandre Orientale. Ghent
Société des Architectes de la Flandre Orientale. Bruges

5. Bulgaria

Société des Ingénieurs et des Architectes Bulgares. Sofia

6. Canada

ARCHITECTURAL ASSOCIATION OF CANADA

Royal Architectural Institute of Canada. Montreal
Alberta Association of Architects. Calgary and Edmonton, Alta.
Architects' Association of Victoria. Victoria, B. C.
British Columbia Association of Architects.
Calgary Architectural Club
Manitoba Association of Architects. Winnipeg, Man.
Ontario Association of Architects. Toronto
Province of Quebec Association of Architects. Montreal
Regina Architectural Association. Regina, Sask.
Saskatchewan Association of Architects. Regina, Sask.

7. Cuba

Society of Engineers and Architects of Havana. Havana

8. France

Permanent Committee of International Congresses of Architects. Paris
Société des Architectes Diplômés par le Gouvernement. Paris.
Société Nationale des Architectes de France. Paris.
Société Centrale des Architectes Français. Paris
Union Syndicale des Architectes Français. Paris
Société des Diplômés de l'École Spéciale d'Architecture. Paris
Association Provenciale des Architectes Français. Versailles
Société Régionale des Architectes du Centre de la France. Bourges
Société Regionale des Architectes de Dauphiné et de la Savoie. Grenoble
Société des Architectes de l'Est de la France. Nancy
Société Régionale des Architectes du Limousin, de l'Angoulême et du Perigord. Guéret (Creuse)
Société Régionale des Architectes du Midi. Toulouse
Société Régionale des Architectes du Nord. Lille
Société Régionale des Architectes du Poitou et de la Saintonge. Parthenay
Société Régionale des Architectes du Puy-de-Dôme, du Cantal, de la Haute-Loire et de l'Allier. Clermont-Ferrand
Société Régionale des Architectes de Saône-et-Loire, de l'Ain et du Jura. Châlons-sur-Saône
Association Régionale des Architectes du Sud-Est. Nice
Société des Architectes de l'Aisne. St. Quentin
Société des Architectes de l'Allier. Moulins
Société des Architectes de l'Anjou. Angers
Société des Architectes de l'Aube. Troyes
Société des Architectes de Blois. Blois
Société des Architectes de Bordeaux et du Sud-Ouest. Bordeaux
Société des Architectes des Bouches-du-Rhône. Marseilles
Société des Architectes du Doubs. Besançon
Société des Architectes de la Drôme et de l'Ardèche. Valence
Société des Architectes d'Eure-et-Loir. Chartres
Société Amicale et Syndicat des Architectes du Gard. Nîmes
Société des Architectes de la Haute-Marne. Châlons-sur-Marne
Société Académique d'Architecture de Lyon. Lyon
Société des Architectes de la Marne. Paul-Chandon
Société des Architectes de Nantes. Nantes

Société des Architectes de l'Oise. Compiègne
Société des Architectes d'Orléans. Orléans
Société des Architectes de Rennes. Rennes
Société des Architectes de la Seine Inférieure et de l'Eure. Rouen
Société des Architectes de Seine-et-Marne. Melun
Société des Architectes de Seine-et-Oise. Versailles
Société des Architectes de la Touraine. Tours
Société des Architectes de l'Yonne. Joigny
Association Amicale des Architectes. Paris
Réunion Amicale des Anciens Élèves de l'Atelier Questel-Pascal. Paris
Union Mutuelle des Architectes. Paris
Association Provinciale des Architectes Français. Bordeaux
Société des Architectes de la Côte-d'Or. Dijon
Société des Architectes du Nord-Ouest. Guingamp (Côtes-du-Nord)
Société des Architectes de la Loire. Saint-Étienne
Société des Architectes du Loiret. Orleans
Société des Architectes, Géométres et Experts de la Lozère. Mende
Syndicat des Architectes du Rhône. Villeurbanne
Société des Architectes du Havre. Le Havre (Seine-Inférieure)
Union Architecturale de Lyon. Lyon
Association des Architectes Français. Marseilles
Syndicat des Architectes de Basse-Normandie. Caen
Société Historique de Campiège. Campiège
Société d'Assistance Confraternelle des Architectes Français. Versailles

9. Germany

Architekten-Verein zu Berlin. Berlin. W.
Verbund. Deutscher Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Vereine. Berlin. S.W.
Württembergerischer Verein fur Baukunde. Stuttart
Sächsischer Ingenieur-und-Architekten-Verein. Dresden
Vereinigung Berliner Architekten. Berlin. W.
Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein zu Hannover. Hannover
Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein zu Osnabrück. Osnabrück
Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein zu Hamburg. Hamburg
Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein zu Cassel. Cassel
Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein zu Lübeck. Lübeck
Schleswig-Hölsteinischer, Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein. Keil
Baierischer Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein. Munich
Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein zu Breslau. Breslau
Badischer Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein. Karlsruhe
Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein zu Oldenburg. Oldenburg
Östpreussischer Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein. Königsberg
Frankfurter Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein. Frankfort-on-Main
Westpreussicher Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein zu Danzig. Danzig
Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein für Elsass-Lothringen. Strassburg
Mittelrheinischer Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein. Darmstadt
Dresdener Architekten-Verein. Dresden
Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein für Niederrhein und Westfalen. Cologne
Verein Leipziger Architekten. Leipzig
Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein für das Herzogtum Braunschweig. Brunswick
Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein zu Madgeburg. Magdeburg
rchitekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein zu Bremen. Bremen

Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein zu Aachen. Aix-la-Chapelle
Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein zu Metz. Metz
Mecklenbürgischer Architekten - und - Ingenieur - Verein zu Schwerin, i.M. Schwerin
Vereinigung Berliner Architekten. Berlin. W.
Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein zu Düsseldorf. Düsseldorf
Bromberger Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein. Bromberg
Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein zu Münster, i.W. Münster
Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein zu Potsdam. Potsdam
Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein zu Stettin. Stettin
Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein zu Posen. Posen
Architekten-und-Ingenieur-Verein zu Erfurt. Erfurt
Verein der Architekten und Bauing-Enieure zu Dortmund. Dortmund
Vereiningung Schlesischer Architekten. Breslau
Towarzystwo Przyjaciol Nauk. Posen

10. Great Britain

Royal Institute of British Architects. London, W.
Northern Architectural Association. Newcastle-upon-Tyne
Leeds and Yorkshire Architectural Society. Leeds
Sheffield Society of Architects and Surveyors. Sheffield
Manchester Society of Architects. Manchester
Liverpool Architectural Society (Inc.). Liverpool
Nottingham Architectural Association. Nottingham
Birmingham Architectural Association. Birmingham
Leicester and Leistershire Society of Architects. Leicester
Bristol Society of Architects. Bristol
Cardiff, South Wales and Monmouth Architects' Society. Cardiff
Devon and Exeter Architectural Society. Exeter
Glasgow Institute of Architects. Dundee
Dundee Institute of Architects. Dundee
Aberdeen Society of Architects. Aberdeen
Edinburgh Architectural Association. Edinburgh
York and Yorkshire Architectural Society. York
Royal Institute of Architects of Ireland (Inc.). Dublin
Architectural Association of Ireland. Dublin
Institute of Architects of New South Wales (Inc.). Sidney
Royal Victorian Institute of Architects (Inc.). Melbourne
West Australian Institute of Architects (Inc.). Perth
Cape Institute of Architects. Cape Town, South Africa
Transvaal Institute of Architects. Johannesburg. Transvaal, South Africa
Natal Institute of Architects. Durban. Natal, South Africa
The Architectural Association. London, E.C.

11. Greece

Hellenic Polytechnical Society. Athens

12. Holland

Society for the Propagation of Architecture. Amsterdam
Genootschap Architectura et Amicitia. Amsterdam
Bouwhunst en Vriendschap. Rotterdam

13. Hungary

Society of Engineers and of Architects. Budapest
Magyar Mernok-es Epitesz-Egylet. Budapest
Society of Private Architects. Budapest

14. Italy

Societa degli Ingegnerie e degli Architetti. Rome
Associazione Artistica fra i Cultori di Architettura. Rome
College des Ingenieurs et des Architectes de Gênes. Gênes
Collegio degli Ingegneri ed Architetti in Palermo. Palermo
Collegio Toscano degli Ingegneri ed Architetti in Firenze. Florence
Societa degli Ingegneri di Bologna. Bologna
Collegio degli Ingegneri ed Architetti di Milano. Milan
Collegio degli Ingegneri ed Architetti di Torino. Turin
Collegio degli Ingegneri ed Architetti di Messina
Collegio degli Ingegneri ed Architetti Puglie. Bari
Collegio Veneto degli Ingegneri Venezia. Venise

15. Japan

Society of Architects. Tokyo

16. Norway

Société des Architectes et des Ingenieurs. Christiania

17. Portugal

Real Associo dos Architectos Civis e Archeologos Portuguezes. Lisbon
Sociedad dos Architectos Portuguezes. Lisbon

18. Russia

Société Impériale des Architectes Russes. Petrograd
Société des Architectes de Moscow. Moscow
Stowarzyszenie Technikow Kolo Architektow. Varsovie

19. Spain

Sociedad Centrale de Arquitectos de Madrid. Madrid
Associacion des Architectes de Cataluna. Bajos
Associacion des Architectes de Vizcaya. Bilboa
Associacion des Architectes de Navarra. Pamplona
Associacion de Arquitectos de Valencia. Valencia
Associacion de Arquitectos de Galicia. Santiago (Coruna)
Associacion de Arquitectos de Guipuzcoa. San Sebastian
Agrupacion Regional Central de Arquitectos de Castilla la Nueva. Madrid
Agrupacion Regional de Arquitectos de Castilla la Vieja. Zamora
Agrupacion Regional de Arquitectos de Norte. Bilboa
Agrupacion Regional de Arquitectos de Catalana-Balear. Bajos
Agrupacion Regional de Arquitectos de Andalucia. Cadiz
Agrupacion Regional de Arquitectos de Galicia. Santiago (Coruna)
Agrupacion Regional de Arquitectos de Cantabrico-Leonesa. Santander
Agrupacion Regional de Arquitectos de Aragon. Teruel
Agrupacion Regional de Arquitectos de Levante. Valencia
Agrupacion Regional de Arquitectos de Canarias. Canaries
Agrupacion Regional de Arquitectos de Occidente. Caceres

20. Sweden

Société des Architectes et Ingenieurs. Stockholm
Svenska Teknologforenique. Stockholm

21. Switzerland

Scheizerischer Ingenieur und Architekten Verein. Bâle

22. Venezuela

Sociedad de Arquitectura y Construccion du Venezuela. Caracas

LIST OF VALUABLE BOOKS FOR ARCHITECTS, DRAUGHTSMEN AND BUILDERS*.

Architecture

Architect, Owner and Builder Before the Law.[5] By T. M. Clark..	$3.00 net
Architectural Reference Library.[7] This consists of numerous books which may be obtained in pamphlet-form or in five bound volumes, at $4 per volume.	
Handbook of Architectural Styles.[17] By A. Rosengarten.	
Discussion of Composition.[5] By J. V. Van Pelt..................	2.00 net
Cyclopedia of Architecture, Carpentry and Building.[8] 10 volumes..	24.80
Cyclopedia of Carpentry and Contracting.[8] 4 volumes...........	12.80
Dictionary of Architecture and Building.[5] By Russell Sturgis.....	18.00
Encyclopedia of Architecture.[1] By Joseph Gwilt. 1700 engravings. 1443 pages..	9.00 net
A Text-Book of the History of Architecture.[1] By A. D. F. Hamlin. 229 illustrations, 460 pages................................	2.00 net
Essentials of Composition as Applied to Art.[5] By J. V. Van Pelt..	1.75 net
Vignola. American edition.[4] Prepared for Bates & Guild Company..	5.00
The American Vignola.[7] Edited by William R. Ware. 2 volumes..	5.00
A Glossary of Terms Used in Architecture.[3] By T. Dinham Atkinson, Architect..	1.50
Stepping-Stones to Architecture.[17] By Thomas Mitchell..........	.50
The Orders.[8] By Frank A. Bourne, Frank Chouteau Brown and H. V. von Holst......................................	3.00
Portfolio of Plates of The Orders.[8] 57 plates of the Roman and Greek Orders...	3.00

* The editor has carefully examined nearly all of the books named below and can recommend them as containing useful information on the subjects under which they are listed. Name and address of publisher are given below. The numbers identify the publishers in the case of every book. Other reference-numbers are on the pages following.

Publishers. [1] Longmans, Green, & Company, New York City. [2] William T. Comstock Company, New York City. [3] The American Architect, New York City. [4] Bates & Guild Company, Boston. [5] The Macmillan Company, New York City. [6] John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York City. [7] International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa. [8] American School of Correspondence, Chicago. [9] David Williams Company, New York City. [10] Rogers and Manson Company, Boston. [11] Myron C. Clark Publishing Company, Chicago. [12] Published by author. [13] McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York City. [14] D. Van Nostrand Company, New York City. [15] Standard Sanitary Manufacturing Company, Pittsburgh, Pa. [16] Franklin Publishing Company, Columbus, Ohio. [17] Published abroad.

Building-Construction, Materials, Superintendence and Specifications

Advanced Building Construction.[1]	4s 6d
Building Materials: Their Nature, Properties and Manufacture.[3] By G. A. T. Middleton	$4.00
Details of Building Construction.[4] By Professor Clarence A. Martin	2.00
Safe Building Construction.[5] By L. de C. Bergh	5.00 net
Building Construction and Drawing.[14] By Charles F. Mitchell.	
Elementary Course	1.50 net
Advanced Course	2.50 net
Building Superintendence.[5] By T. M. Clark	3.00 net
Notes on Building Construction: [1]	
Part I. 695 illustrations	4.00
Part II. 495 illustrations	4.00
Part III. Materials 188 illustrations	7.00
Part IV. Calculations for Building Structures. 551 illustrations.	5.00
Building Construction. By Pite, Markham and others.[1] 2 volumes.	
Part I	4.00 net
Part II	4.00 net
Building Construction and Superintendence.[2] By F. E. Kidder.	
Part I. Masons' Work, rewritten and enlarged by Professor Thomas Nolan	6.00
Part II. Carpenters' Work, rewritten and enlarged by Professor Thomas Nolan	6.00
Part III. Trussed Roofs and Roof-Trusses	3.00
Cements, Limes and Plasters: Their Materials, Manufacture and Properties.[6] By Edwin C. Eckel. 746 pages, 165 figures, 254 tables	6.00 net
Corrosion and Preservation of Iron and Steel.[13] By A. S. Cushman. 375 pages. Illustrated	4.00 net
Successful Houses and How to Build Them.[5] By Charles E. White, Jr.	2.00
Economic Woods of the United States.[6] By Samuel J. Record. 145 pages. Numerous illustrations.	
The Design of Walls, Bins and Grain Elevators.[13] By Milo S. Ketchum. 556 pages, 45 tables, 304 illustrations	4.00 net
Elements of Structures.[13] By George A. Hool	1.75
Elevator Shaft Construction. Practical Suggestions for the Installation of Elevators in Buildings.[2] By H. Robert Cullmer assisted by Albert Bauer	3.00
The Hollow-Tile House.[2] By Frederick Squires	2.50
How to Frame a House.[2] By Owen B. Maginnis	1.50
Locks and Builders' Hardware.[6] By Henry R. Towne. 1117 pages. Profusely illustrated	3.00 net
A Treatise on Masonry Construction.[6] By Ira O. Baker. 760 pages, 244 illustrations	4.50 net
Theory of Structures.[13] By Charles M. Spofford. 432 pages. Illustrated	4.00 net

Concrete, Plain and Reinforced

Cement and Concrete.[13] By Louis Carlton Sabin. 584 pages, 161 tables. Illustrated	5.00 net
The Modern Manufacture of Portland Cement.[13] By Percy C. H. West. 280 pages, 159 illustrations	4.00 net

Cement Houses and Garages.[9]	$1.50
A Treatise on Concrete, Plain and Reinforced.[6] By F. W. Taylor and S. E. Thompson. 862 pages, 249 figures	5.00
Concrete Construction Methods and Cost.[11] By H. P. Gillette and C. S. Hill. 700 pages, 305 figures	5.00 net
Concrete Costs.[6] By Frederick W. Taylor and Sanford E. Thompson. 731 pages, 82 figures	5.00 net
Concrete Blocks: Their Manufacture and Use in Building Construction.[13] By H. H. Rice and William M. Torrance	1.50 net
Reinforced Concrete.[13] By Buel and Hill	5.00 net
Concise Treatise on Reinforced Concrete.[14] By C. F. Marsh	2.50 net
Reinforced Concrete Construction.[13] Volume I. Fundamental Principles. By George A. Hool	2.50
Reinforced Concrete Construction.[13] Volume II. Retaining Walls and Buildings. By George A. Hool	5.00
Principles of Reinforced Concrete Construction.[6] By F. E. Turneaure and E. R. Maurer. 439 pages, 164 figures	3.25 net
Reinforced Concrete Buildings.[13] By Ernest L. Ransome and Alexis Saurbrey	2.50
Reinforced Concrete.[13] By P. Brooks. 230 pages	2.00
Reinforced Concrete.[13] By A. Considère. Translated from the French, with additions by Leon S. Moisseiff. 242 pages, 32 figures	2.00 net
Steel and Reinforced Concrete in Buildings.[9] By Edward Godfrey.	2.00
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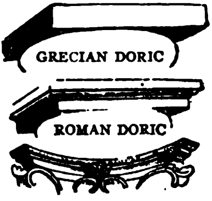
GLOSSARY *

Technical Terms, Ancient and Modern, Used by Architects, Builders, and Draughtsmen

Aaron's-Rod. An ornamental figure representing a rod with a serpent twined about it. It is sometimes confounded with the caduceus of Mercury. The distinction between the caduceus and the Aaron's-rod is that the former has two serpents twined in opposite directions, while the latter has but one.

Abacus. The upper member of the capital of a column. It is sometimes square and somtimes curved, forming on the plan segments of a circle called the arch of the abacus, and is commonly decorated with a rose or other ornament in the center, having the angles, called horns of the abacus, cut off in the direction of the radius or curve. In the Tuscan or Doric, it is a square tablet; in the Ionic, the edges are molded; in the Corinthian, its sides are concave and frequently enriched with carving. In Gothic pillars it has a great variety of forms.



CORINTHIAN DORIC
ABACUS

Abbey. A term for the church and other buildings used by conventual bodies presided over by an abbot or abbess, in contradistinction to cathedral, which is presided over by a bishop; and priory, the head of which was a prior or prioress.

Abutment. That part of a pier from which the arch springs.

Abuttals. The boundings of a piece of land on other land, street, river, etc.

Acanthus. A plant found in the south of Europe, representations of whose leaves are employed for decorating the Corinthian and Composite capitals. The leaves of the acanthus are used on the bell of the capitol, and distinguish the two rich orders from the three others.

Acroteria. The small pedestals placed on the extremities and apex of a pediment. They are usually without bases or plinths, and were originally intended to receive statues.

ACANTHUS

Aile, Aisle. The wings; inward side porticos of a church; the inward lateral corridors which enclose the choir, the presbytery, and the body of the church along its sides. Any one of the passages in a church or hall into which the pews or seats open.

Alcove. The original and strict meaning of this word, which is derived from the Spanish *alcoba,* is confined to that part of a bed-chamber in which the bed stands, separated from the other parts of the room by columns or pilasters. It is now commonly used to express any large recess in a room, generally separated by an arch.

Alipterion. In ancient Roman architecture, a room used by bathers for anointing themselves.

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* This Glossary was compiled by Mr. Kidder from various sources, and with the exception of some changes in typographical details to make it conform generally to the matter in the rest of the book it is left as published in the preceding editions.

Almonry. The place or chamber where alms were distributed to the churches, or other ecclesiastical buildings. At Bishopstone Church, Wi England, it is a sort of covered porch attached to the south transept, b communicating with the interior of the church. At Worcester Cathedra land, the alms are said to have been distributed on stone tables, on each within the great porch. In large monastic establishments, as at Westm it seems to have been a separate building of some importance, either join gate-house or near it, that the establishment might be disturbed as possible.

Altar. In ancient Roman architecture, a place on which offerings or fices were made to the gods. In Protestant churches, the communion t often designated as the Altar, and in Roman Catholic churches it is a table placed at the east end of the church for the celebration of mass.

Altar of Incense. A small table covered with plates of gold on which placed the smoking censer in the temple at Jerusalem.

Altar-piece. The entire decorations of an altar; a painting placed beh altar.

Altar-screen. The back of the altar from which the canopy was sus and separating the choir from the lady chapel and presbytery. The Altar- was generally of stone, and composed of the richest tabernacle work of finials, and pedestals, supporting statues of the tutelary saints.

Alto-rilievo. High relief. A sculpture, the figures of which project fr surface on which they are carved.

Ambo. A raised platform, a pulpit, a reading-desk, a marble pulpit oblong enclosure in ancient churches, resembling in its uses and position modern choir.

Ambry. A cupboard or closet, frequently found near the altar in churches to hold sacred utensils.

Ambulatory. An alley — a gallery — a cloister.

Amphiprostylos. A Grecian temple which has a columned portico on ends.

Amphitheater. A double theater, of an elliptical form on the plan, exhibition of the ancient gladiatorial fights and other shows. Its arena or which those exhibitions took place, was encompassed with seats rising each other, and the exterior had the accommodation of porticos or arca the public.

Amphora. A Grecian vase with two handles, often seen on medals.

Ancones. The consoles or ornaments cut on the key-stones of ar the sides of door-cases. They are sometimes made use of to support other figures.

Angle-bar. In joinery, an upright bar at the angles of polygonal a mullion.

Angle-capital. In Greek architecture, those Ionic capitals placed on t columns of a portico, which have one of their volutes placed horizontall angle of a hundred and thirty-five degrees with the plane of the frieze.

Annulated Columns. Columns clustered together by rings or band used in English architecture.

Annular Vault. A vault rising from two parallel walls—the va corridor. Same as *Barrel Vault.*

Annulet. A small square molding used to separate others. The fillet which separates the flutings of columns is sometimes known by this term.

ANNULET

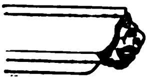
Anta, Antæ. A name given to a pilaster when attached to a wall. Vitruvius calls pilasters *parastatæ* when insulated. They are not usually diminished, and in all Greek examples their capitals are different from those of the columns they accompany.

Antechamber. An apartment preceded by a vestibule and from which is approached another room.

Antechapel. A small chapel forming the entrance to another. There are examples at Merton College, Oxford, and at King's College, Cambridge, England, besides several others. The antechapel to the lady-chapel in cathedrals is generally called the Presbytery.

Antechoir. The part under the rood loft, between the doors of the choir and the outer entrance of the screen, forming a sort of lobby. It is also called the Fore-choir.

Antefixa. In classical architecture (gargoyles, in Gothic architecture), the ornaments of lions' and other heads below the eaves of a temple, through channels in which, usually by the mouth, the water is carried from the eaves. By some this term is applied to the upright ornaments above the eaves in ancient architecture, which hid the ends of the Harmi or joint tiles.



ANTEFIXA

Apophyge. The lowest part of the shaft of an Ionic or Corinthian column, or the highest member of its base if the column be considered as a whole. The Apophyge is the inverted cavetto or concave sweep, on the upper edge of which the diminishing shaft rests.

Apron. A plain or molded piece of finish below the stool of a window, put on to cover the rough edge of the plastering.

Apse. The semicircular or polygonal termination to the chancel of a church.

Apteral. A temple without columns on the flanks or sides.

Aqueduct. An artificial canal for the conveyance of water, either above or under ground. The Roman aqueducts are mostly of the former construction.

Arabesque. A building after the manner of the Arabs. Ornaments used by the same people, in which no human or animal figures appear. Arabesque is sometimes improperly used to denote a species of ornaments composed of capricious fantastics and imaginary representations of animals and foliage so much employed by the Romans in the decorations of walls and ceilings.

ARABESQUE

Arabian Architecture. A style of architecture the rudiments of which appear to have been taken from surrounding nations, the Egyptians, Syrians, Chaldeans, and Persians. The best preserved specimens partake chiefly of the Græco-Roman, Byzantine, and Egyptian. It is supposed that they constructed many of their finest buildings from the ruins of ancient cities.

Aræostyle. That style of building in which the columns are distant from one another from four to five diameters. Strictly speaking, the term should be limited to intercolumniation of four diameters, which is only suited to the Tuscan order.

Aræosystylos. That style of building in which four columns are used in the space of eight diameters and a half; the central intercolumniation being three diameters and a half, and the others on each side being only half a diameter, by which arrangement coupled columns are introduced.

Arbores. Large bronze candelabra, in the shape of a tree, placed on the floor of ancient churches, so as to appear growing out of it.

ARCADE

Arcade. A range of arches, supported either on columns or on piers, and detached or attached to the wall.

Arch. In building, a mechanical arrangement of building materials arranged in the form of a curve, which preserves a given form when resisting pressure, and enables them, supported by piers or abutments, to carry weights and resist pressure.

Arch-buttress. Sometimes called a flying buttress; an arch springing from a buttress or pier.

Architrave. That part of an entablature which rests upon the capital of a column, and is beneath the frieze.

Architrave Cornice. An entablature consisting of an architrave and cornice, without the intervention of the frieze, sometimes introduced when inconvenient to give the entablature the usual height.

Architrave of a Door. The finished work surrounding the aperture; the upper part of the lintel is called the traverse; and the sides, the jambs.

Archives. A repository or closet for the preservation of writings or records.

Archivolt. A collection of members forming the inner contour of an arch, or a band or frame adorned with moldings running over the faces or the arch-stones, and bearing upon the imposts.

Area. The superficial contents of any figure; an open space or court within a building; also, an uncovered space surrounding the foundation walls to give light to the basement.

Arena. The plain space in the middle of the amphitheater or other place of public resort.

Arris. The meeting of two surfaces producing an angle.

Arsenal. A public storehouse for arms and ammunition.

Artificer, or **Artisan.** A person who works with his hands, and manufactures any commodity in iron, brass, wood, etc.

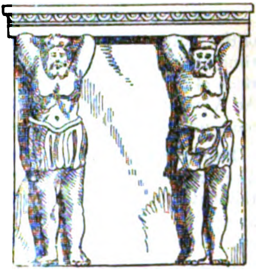
Ashlar, or **Ashler.** A facing made of squared stones, or a facing made of thin slabs, used to cover walls of brick or rubble. *Coursed ashlar* is where the stones run in level courses all around the building; *random ashlar*, where the stones are of different heights, but level beds. Common freestones of small size, as they come from the quarry, are also called ashlar.

Asphaltum. A kind of bituminous stone, principally found in the province of Neufchatel. Mixed with stone, it forms an excellent cement, incorruptible by air and impenetrable by water.

Astragal. A small semicircular molding, sometimes plain and sometimes ornamented.

Asymptote. A straight line which continually approaches to a curve without touching it.

Atlases, or Atlantes. Figures or half-figures of men, used instead of columns or pilasters to support an entablature; called also Telamones.


ATLANTES

Atrium. A court in the interior division of Roman houses.

Attached Columns. Those which project three-fourths of their diameter from the wall.

Attic. A low story above an entablature, or above a cornice which limits the height of the main part of an elevation. Although the term is evidently derived from the Greek, we find nothing exactly answering to it in Greek architecture; but it is very common in both Roman and Italian practice. What are otherwise called tholobates in St. Peter's and St. Paul's Cathedrals are frequently termed attics.

Attic Order. A term used to denote the low pilasters' employed in the decoration of an attic story.

Attributes. In painting and sculpture, symbols given to figures and statues to indicate their office and character.

Auditory. In ancient churches, that part of the church where the people usually stood to be instructed in the Gospel, now called the nave.

Aula. A court or hall in ancient Roman houses.

Aviary. A large apartment for breeding birds.

Axis. The spindle or center of any rotative motion. In a sphere, an imaginary line through the center.

Back-choir. A place behind the altar in the principal choir, in which there is, or was, a small altar standing back to back with the former.

Backing of a Rafter or Rib. The forming of an upper or outer surface, that it may range with the edges of the ribs or rafters on either side.

Backing of a Wall. The rough inner face of a wall; earth deposited behind a retaining wall, etc.

Back of a Window. That piece of wainscoting which is between the bottom of the sash frame and the floor.

Balcony. A projection from the face of a wall, supported by columns or consoles, and usually surrounded by a balustrade.

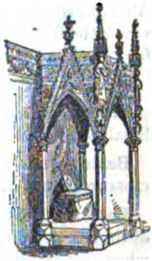
Baldachin. A building in the form of a canopy, supported with columns, and serving as a crown or covering to an altar.

Baluster. A small pillar or column, supporting a rail, of various forms, used in balustrades.

Baluster Shaft. The shaft dividing a window in Saxon architecture. At St. Albans are some of these shafts, evidently out of the old Saxon church, which have been fixed up with Norman capitals.

Balustrade. A series of balusters connected by a rail.

Band. A sort of flat frieze or fascia running horizontally round a tower or other parts of a building, particularly the base tables in perpendicular work, commonly used with the long shafts characteristic of the thirteenth century. It generally has a bold, projecting molding above


BALDACHIN

and below, and is carved sometimes with foliages, but in general with cusped circles, or quatrefoils, in which frequently are shields of arms.

Band of a Column. A series of annulets and hollows going round the middle of the shafts of columns, and sometimes of the entire pier. They are often beautifully carved with foliages, etc., as at Amiens. In several cathedrals there are rings of bronze apparently covering the junction of the frusta of the columns. At Worcester and Westminster they appear to have been gilt; they are there more properly called Shaft-rings.

Baptistery. A separate building to contain the font, for the rite of baptism. They are frequent on the Continent; that at Rome, near St. John Lateran, and those at Florence, Pisa, Pavia, etc., are all well-known examples. The only examples in England are at Cranbrook and Canterbury; the latter, however, is supposed to have been originally part of the treasury.

Barbican. An outwork for the defence of a gate or drawbridge; also, a sort of pent-house or construction of timber to shelter warders or sentries from arrows or other missiles.

Barge Board. See *Verge Board.*

Bartizan. A small turret, corbeled out at the angle of a wall or tower, to protect a warder and enable him to see around him. They generally are furnished with oylets or arrow-slits.

Basement. The lower part of a building, usually in part below the grade of the lot or street.

Base Moldings. The moldings immediately above the plinth of a wall, pillar, or pedestal.

Base of a Column. That part which is between the shaft and the pedestal, or, if there be no pedestal, between the shaft and the plinth. The Grecian Doric had no base, and the Tuscan has only a single torus, or a plinth.

BARTIZAN

Basilica. A term given by the Greeks and Romans to the public buildings devoted to judicial purposes.

Bas-relief. See *Basso-rilievo.*

Basse-cour. A court separated from the principal one, and destined for stables, etc.

Basso-rilievo, or **Bas-relief.** The representations of figures projected from a background without being detached from it. It is divided into three parts: Alto-rilievo, when the figure projects more than one-half; Mezzo-rilievo, that in which the figure projects one-half; and Basso-rilievo, when the projection of the figure is less than one-half, as in coins.

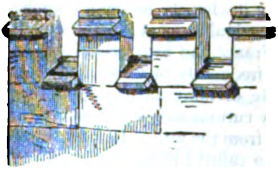
Bat. A part of a brick.

Batten. Small scantlings, or small strips of boards, used for various purposes. Small strips put over the joints of sheathing to keep out the weather.

Batten-door. A door made of sheathing, secured by strips of board, put crossways, and nailed with clinched nails.

Batter. A term used by bricklayers, carpenters, etc., to signify a wall, piece of timber, or other material, which does not stand upright, but inclines from you when you stand before it; but when, on the contrary, it leans toward you, it is said to overhang.

Battlement. A parapet with a series of notches in it, from which arrows may be shot, or other instruments of defence hurled on besiegers. The raised portions are called merlons; and the notches, embrasures or crenelles. The former were intended to cover the soldier while discharging his weapon through the latter. Their use is of great antiquity; they are found in the sculptures of Nineveh, in the tombs of Egypt, and on the famous François vase, where there is a delineation of the siege of Troy. In ecclesiastical architecture the early battlements have small shallow embrasures at some distance apart. In the Decorated period they are closer together, and deeper, and the moldings on the top of the merlon and bottom of the embrasure are richer. During this period, and the early part of the Perpendicular, the sides or cheeks of the embrasures are perfectly square and plain. In later times the moldings were continued round the sides, as well as at top and bottom, mitring at the angles, as over the doorway of Magdalen College, Oxford, England. The battlements of the Decorated and later periods are often richly ornamented by paneling, as in the last example.. In castellated work the merlons are often pierced by narrow arrow-slits. (See *Oylet.*) In South Italy some battlements are found strongly resembling those of old Rome and Pompeii; in the Continental ecclesiastical architecture, the parapets are very rarely embattled.


BATTLEMENT

Bay. Any division or compartment of an arcade, roof, etc. Thus each space, from pillar to pillar, in a cathedral, is called a bay, or severy.

Bay Window. Any window projecting outward from the wall of a building, either square or polygonal on plan, and commencing from the ground. If they are carried on projecting corbels, they are called Oriel windows. Their use seems to have been confined to the later periods. In the Tudor and Elizabethan styles they are often semicircular in plan, in which case some think it more correct to call them Bow Windows.

Bazaar. A kind of Eastern mart, of Arabic origin.

Bead. A circular molding. When several are joined, it is called Reeding; when flush with the surface, it is called Quirk-bead; and when raised, Cock-bead.

Beam. A piece of timber, iron, stone, or other material, placed horizontally, or nearly so, to support a load over an opening, or from post to post.

Bearing. The portion of a beam, truss, etc., that rests on the supports.

Bearing Wall, or **Partition.** A wall which supports the floors and roofs in a building.

Beaufet, or **Buffet.** A small cupboard, or cabinet, to contain china. It may either be built into a wall, or be a separate piece of furniture.

Bed. In bricklaying and masonry, the horizontal surfaces on which the stones or bricks of walls lie in courses.

Bed of a Slate. The lower side.

Bed Moldings. Those moldings in all the orders between the corona and frieze.

Belfry. Properly speaking, a detached tower or campanile containing bells, as at Evesham, England, but more generally applied to the ringing-room or loft of the tower of a church. See *Tower.*

Bell-cot, Bell-gable, or **Bell-turret.** The place where one or more bells are hung in chapels, or small churches which have no towers. Bell-cots are sometimes double, as at Northborough and Coxwell, England; a very common form in France and Switzerland admits of three bells. In these countries, also, they are frequently of wood, and attached to the ridge. Those which stand on the gable, dividing the nave from the chancel, are generally called Sanctus Bells. A very curious and, it is believed, unique example at Cleves Abbey, England, juts out from the wall. In later times bell-turrets were much ornamented; these are often called Flèches.

Bell of a Capital. In Gothic work, immediately above the necking is a deep, hollow curve; this is called the bell of a capital. It is often enriched with foliages. It is also applied to the body of the Corinthian and Composite capitals.

Belt. A course of stones or brick projecting from a brick or stone wall, generally placed in a line with the sills of the windows; it is either molded, fluted, plane, or enriched with patras at regular intervals. Sometimes called Stone String.

Belvedere, or **Look-out.** A turret or lantern raised above the roof of an observatory for the purpose of enjoying a fine prospect.

Bema. The semicircular recess, or hexedra, in the basilica, where the judges sat, and where in after-times the altar was placed. It generally is roofed with a half-dome or concha. The seats of the priests were against the wall, looking into the body of the church, that of the bishop being in the center. The bema is generally ascended by steps, and railed off by cancelli.

Bench Table. The stone seat which runs round the walls of large churches, and sometimes round the piers; it very generally is placed in the porches.

Bevel. An instrument for taking angles. One side of a solid body is said to be beveled with respect to another, when the angle contained between those two sides is greater or less than a right angle.

Bezantee. A name given to an ornamental molding much used in the Norman period, resembling bezants, coins struck in Byzantium.

Billet. A species of ornamented molding much used in Norman, and sometimes in Early English work, like short pieces of stick cut off and arranged alternately.

Blocking, or **Blocking-course.** In masonry, a course of stones placed on the top of a cornice crowning the walls.

Bond. In bricklaying and masonry, that connection between bricks or stones formed by lapping them upon one another in carrying up the work, so as to form an inseparable mass of building, by preventing the vertical joints falling over each other. In brickwork there are several kinds of bond. In common brick walls in every sixth or seventh course the bricks are laid crossways of the wall, called Headers. In face work, the back of the face brick is clipped so as to get in a diagonal course of headers behind. In Old English bond, every alternate course is a header course. In Flemish bond, a header and stretcher alternate in each course.

Bond-stones. Stones running through the thickness of the wall at right angles to its face, in order to bind it together.

Bond-timbers. Timbers placed in a horizontal direction in the walls of a brick building in tiers, and to which the battens, laths, etc., are secured. In rubble work, walls are better plugged for this purpose.

Border. Useful ornamental pieces around the edge of anything.

Boss. An ornament, generally carved, forming the key-stone at the intersection of the ribs of a groined vault. Early Norman vaults have no bosses. The carving is generally foliage, and resembles that of the period in capitals, etc. Sometimes they have human heads, as at Notre Dame at Paris, and sometimes grotesque figures. In Later Gothic vaulting there are bosses at every intersection.

Boutell. The mediæval term for a round molding, or torus. When it follows a curve, as round a bench end, it is called a Roving Boutell.

Bow. Any projecting part of a building in the form of an arc of a circle. A bow, however, is sometimes polygonal.

Bow Window. A window placed in the bow of a building.

Brace. In carpentry, an inclined piece of timber, used in trussed partitions, or in framed roofs, in order to form a triangle, and thereby stiffen the framing. When a brace is used by way of support to a rafter, it is called a strut. Braces in partitions and span-roofs are, or always should be, disposed in pairs, and introduced in opposite directions.

Brace Mold. [{] Two ressaunts or ogees united together like a brace in printing, sometimes with a small bead between them.

Bracket. A projecting ornament carrying a cornice. Those which support vaulting shafts or cross springers of a roof are more generally called Corbels.

Break. Any projection from the general surface of a building.

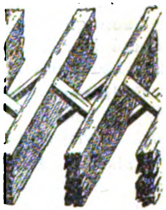
Breaking Joint. The arrangement of stones or bricks so as not to allow two joints to come immediately over each other. See *Bond.*

Breast of a Window. The masonry forming the back of the recess and the parapet under the window-sill.

Bressummer. A lintel, beam, or iron tie, intended to carry an external wall and itself supported by piers or posts; used principally over shop windows. This term is now seldom used, the word *beam*, or *girder*, taking its place.

Bridging. A method of stiffening floor joist and partition studs, by cutting pieces in between. Cross bridging of floor joist is illustrated in cut.

Bulwark. In ancient fortification, nearly the same as Bastion in modern.


CROSS–BRIDGING

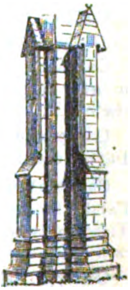
Burse, or **Bourse.** A public edifice for the assembly of merchant traders; an exchange.

Bust. In sculpture, that portion of the human figure which comprises the head, neck, and shoulders.

Buttery. A store-room for provisions.

Butt-joint. Where the ends of two pieces of timber or molding butt together.

Buttress. Masonry projecting from a wall, and intended to strengthen the same against the thrust of a roof or vault. Buttresses are no doubt derived from the classic pilasters which serve to strengthen walls where there is a pressure of a girder or roof-timber. In very early work they have little projection, and, in fact, are "strippilasters." In Norman work they are wider, with very little projection, and generally stop under a cornice or corbel table. Early English buttresses project considerably, sometimes with deep sloping weatherings in several

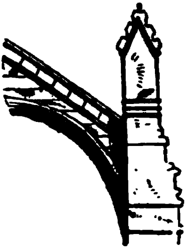

BUTTRESS

stages, and sometimes with gabled heads. Sometimes they are chamfered, and sometimes the angles have jamb shafts. At Wells and Salisbury, England, they are richly ornamented with canopies and statues. In the Decorated period they became richly paneled in stages, and often finish with niches and statues and elegantly carved and crocketed gablets, as at York, England. In the Perpendicular period the weatherings became waved, and they frequently terminate with niches and pinnacles.

Buttress, Flying. A detached buttress or pier of masonry at some distance from a wall, and connected therewith by an arch or portion of an arch, so as to discharge the thrust of a roof or vault on some strong point.

Buttress Shafts. Slender columns at the angle of buttresses, chiefly used in the Early English period.

Byzantine Architecture. A style developed in the Byzantine Empire. The capitals of the pillars are of endless variety and full of invention; some are founded on the Greek Corinthian, some resemble the Norman and the Lombard style, and are so varied that no two sides of the same capital are alike. They are comprised under the style Romanesque, which comprehends the round-arch style. Byzantine architecture reached its height in the Church of St. Sophia at Constantinople.


FLYING BUTTRESS

Cabinet. A highly ornamented kind of buffet or chest of drawers set apart for the preservation of things of value.

Cabling. The flutes of columns are said to be cabled when they are partly occupied by solid convex masses, or appear to be refilled with cylinders after they had been formed.

Caduceus. Mercury's rod, a wand entwined by two serpents and surmounted by two wings. The rod represents power; the serpents, wisdom; and the wings, diligence and activity.

Caisson. A panel sunk below the surface in flat or vaulted ceilings. See *Cassoon*

Caisson. In bridge building, a chest or vessel in which the piers of a bridge are built, gradually sinking as the work advances till its bottom comes in contact with the bed of the river, and then the sides are disengaged, being so constructed as to allow of their being thus detached without injury to its floor or bottom.

Caliber, or **Caliper.** The diameter of any round body; the width of the mouth of a piece of ordnance.

Camber. In carpentry, the convexity of a beam upon the surface, in order to prevent its becoming concave by its own weight, or by the burden it may have to sustain.

CADUCEUS

Campanile. A name given in Italy to the bell-tower of a town-hall or church. In that country this is almost always detached from the latter.

Candelabrum. Stand or support on which the ancients placed their lamps. Candelabra were made in a variety of shapes and with much taste and elegance. The term is also used to denote a tall ornamental candlestick with several arms, or a bracket with arms for candles.

Canopy. The upper part or cover of a niche, or the projection or ornament over an altar, seat, or tomb. The word is supposed to be derived from conopeum, the gauze covering over a bed to keep off the gnats; a mosquito curtain. Early English canopies are generally simple, with trefoiled or cinque-foiled heads; but in the later styles they are very rich, and divided into compartments with pendants, knots, pinnacles, etc. The triangular arrangement over an Early English and Decorated doorway is often called a canopy. The triangular canopies in the North of Italy are peculiar. Those in England are generally part of the arrangement of the arch moldings of the door, and form, as it were, the hood-molds to them, as at York. The former are above and independent of the door moldings, and frequently support an arch with a tympanum, above which is a triangular canopy, as in the Duomo at Florence. Sometimes the canopy and arch project from the wall, and are carried on small jamb shafts, as at San Pietro Martiro at Verona. Canopies are often used over windows, as at York Minster over the great west window, and lower tiers in the towers. These are triangular, while the upper windows in the towers have ogee canopies.

Capital. The upper part of a column, pilaster, pier, etc. Capitals have been used in every style down to the present time. That mostly used by the Egyptians was bell-shaped, with or without ornaments. The Persians used the double-headed bell, forming a kind of bracket capital. The Assyrians apparently made use of the Ionic and Corinthian, which were developed by the Greeks, Romans, and Italians into their present well-known forms. The Doric was apparently an invention or adaptation by the Greeks, and was altered by the Romans and Italians. But in all these examples, both ancient and modern, the capitals of an order are all of the same form throughout the same building, so that if one be seen the form of all the others is known. The Romanesque architects altered all this, and in the carving of their capitals often introduced such figures and emblems as helped to tell the story of their building. Another form was introduced by them in the curtain capital, rude at first, but afterward highly decorated. It evidently took its origin from the cutting off of the lower angles of a square block, and then rounding them off. The process may be distinctly seen, in its several stages, in Mayence Cathedral. But this form of capital was more fully developed by the Normans, with whom it became a marked feature. In the early English capitals a peculiar flower of three or more lobes was used spreading from the necking upward in most graceful forms. In Decorated and Perpendicular styles this was abandoned in favor of more realistic forms of crumpled leaves, enclosing the bell like a wreath. In each style bold abacus moldings were always used, whether with or without foliage.

Caravansary. A huge, square building, or inn, in the East, for the reception of travelers and lodging of caravans.

Carriage. The timber or iron joist which supports the steps of a wooden stair.

Carton, or **Cartoon.** A design made on strong paper, to be transferred on the fresh plaster wall to be afterward painted in fresco; also, a colored design for working in mosaic tapestry.

Cartouche. An ornament which like an escutcheon, a shield or an oval or oblong panel has the central part plain, and usually slightly convex, to receive an inscription, armorial bearings, or an ornamental or significant piece of painting or sculpture. Frequently used in French Renaissance and Modern Architecture.

Caryatides. Human female figures used as piers, columns, or supports. *Caryatic* is applied to the human figure generally, when used in the manner of caryatides.

Cased. Covered with other materials, generally of a better quality.

CARYATID

Casement. A glass frame which is made to open by turning on hinges affixed to its vertical edges.

Cassoon, or **Caisson.** A deep panel or coffer in a soffit or ceiling. This term is sometimes written in the French form, *caisson;* sometimes derived directly from the Italian *cassone*, the augmentative of cassa, a chest or coffer.

Cast. A term used in sculpture for the impression of any figure taken in plaster of Paris, wax, or other substances.

Catacombs. Subterranean places for burying the dead. Those of Egypt, and near Rome, are believed to be the most important.

Catafalco. An ornamental scaffold used in funeral solemnities.

Cathedral. The principal church, where the bishop has his seat as diocesan.

Cauliculus. The inner scroll of the Corinthian capital. It is not uncommon, however, to apply this term to the larger scrolls or volutes also.

Causeway. A raised or paved way.

Cavetto. A concave ornamental molding, opposed in effect to the ovolo — the quadrant of a circle.

Ceiling. That covering of a room which hides the joists of the floor above, or the rafters of the roof Most European churches either have open roofs, or are groined in stone. At Peterborough and St. Albans, England, there are very old flat ceilings of boards curiously painted. In later times the boarded ceilings, and, in fact, some of those of plaster, have molded ribs, locked with bosses at the intersection, and are sometimes elaborately carved. In many English churches there are ceilings formed of oak ribs, filled in at the spandrels with narrow, thin pieces of board, in exact imitation of stone groining. In the Elizabethan and subsequent periods the ceilings are enriched with most elaborate ornaments in stucco. Matched and beaded boards, planed and smoothed, used for wainscoting. In the New England States it is called sheathing.

Cenotaph. An honorary tomb or monument, distinguished from monuments in being empty, the individual it is to memorialize having received interment elsewhere.

Centaur. A poetical imaginary being of heathen mythology, half-man and half-horse.

Centring. In building, the frames on which an arch is turned.

Chamfer, Champfer, or **Chaumfer.** When the edge or arris of any work is cut off at an angle of 45° in a small degree, it is said to be chamfered; if to a large scale, it is said to be a canted corner. The chamfer is much used in mediæval work, and is sometimes plain, sometimes hollowed out, and sometimes molded.

Chamfer Stop. Chamfers sometimes simply run into the arris by a plane face; more commonly they are first stopped by some ornament, as by a bead; they are sometimes terminated by trefoils, or cinque-foils, double or single, and in general form very pleasing features in mediæval architecture.

Chancel. A place separated from the rest of a church by a screen. The word is now generally used to signify the portion of an Episcopal or Catholic church containing the altar and communion table.

Chantry. A small chapel, generally built out from a church. They generally contain a founder's tomb, and are often endowed places where masses might be said for his soul. The officiator, or mass priest, being often unconnected with the parochial clergy. The chantry has generally an entrance from the outside.

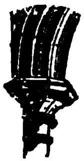
Chapel. A small, detached building used as a substitute for a church in a large parish; an apartment in any large building, a palace, a nobleman's house, a hospital or prison, used for public worship; or an attached building running out of and forming part of a large church, generally dedicated to different saints, each having its own altar, piscina, etc., and screened off from the body of the building.

Chapter House. The chamber in which the chapter or heads of the monastic bodies assembled to transact business. They are of various forms; some are oblong apartments, some octagonal, and some circular.

Chaptrel. In Gothic architecture, the capital of a pier or column which receives an arch.

Charnel House. A place for depositing the bones which might be thrown up in digging graves. Sometimes it was a portion of the crypt; sometimes it was a separate building in the church-yard; sometimes chantry chapels were attached to these buildings. M. Viollet-le-Duc has given two very curious examples of *ossuaires* — one from Fleurance, the other from Faouet.

Cherub—Gothic. A representation of an infant's head joined to two wings, used in the churches on key-stones of arches and corbels.

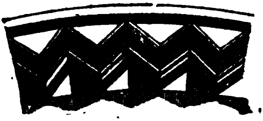


CHAPTREL

Chevron — Gothic. An ornament turning this and that way, like a zigzag, or letter Z.

Chiaro-oscuro. The effects of light and shade in a picture.

Choir. That part of a church or monastery where the breviary service, or "horæ," is chanted.



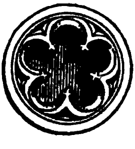
CHEVRON

Church. A building for the performance of public worship. The first churches were built on the plan of the ancient basilicæ, and afterward on the plan of a cross: a church is said to be in Greek cross when the length of the transverse is equal to that of the nave; in Latin cross, when the nave is longer than the transverse part; in rotundo, when it is a perfect circle; simple, when it has only a nave and choir; with aisles, when it has a row of porticos in form of vaulted galleries, with chapels in its circumference.

Ciborium. A tabernacle or vaulted canopy supported on shafts standing over the high altar.

Cincture. A ring, list, or fillet at the top and bottom of a column, serving to divide the shaft of the column from its capital and base.

Cinque-foil. A sinking or perforation, like a flower, of five points or leaves, as a quatre-foil is of four. The points are sometimes in a circle, and sometimes form the cusping of a head.



CINQUE-FOIL

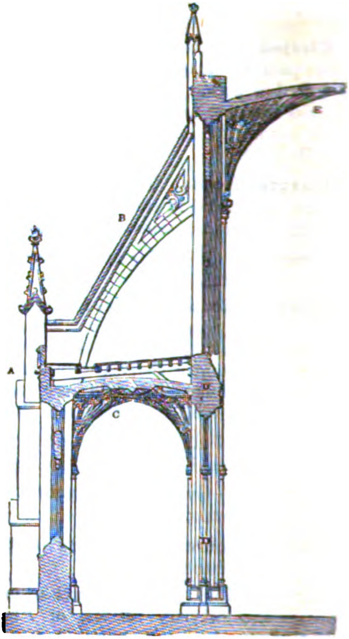
Civic Crown. A garland of oak-leaves and acorns, given as honorary distinction among the Romans to such as had preserved the life of a fellow-citizen.

Clere-story, Clear-story. When the middle of the nave of a church rises above the aisles and is pierced with windows, the upper story is thus called. Sometimes these windows are very small, being mere quatrefoils, or spherical triangles. In large buildings, however, they are important objects both for beauty and utility. The window of the clere-stories of Norman work, even in large churches, are of less importance than in the later styles. In Early English they became larger; and in the Decorated they are more important still, being lengthened as the triforium diminishes. In Perpendicular work the latter often disappears altogether, and in many later churches the clere-stories are close ranges of windows. The word *clere-story* is also used to denote a similar method of lighting other buildings besides churches, especially factories, depots, sheds, etc.

Cloister. An enclosed square, like the atrium of a Roman house, with a walk or ambulatory around, sheltered by a roof, generally groined, and by tracery windows, which were more or less glazed.

Close. The precinct of a cathedral or abbey. Sometimes the walls are traceable, but now generally the boundary is only known by tradition.

Close String, or **Box String.** A method of finishing the outer edge of stairs, by building up a sort of curb string on which the balusters set, and the treads and risers stop against it.



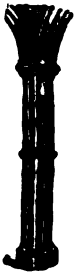
Bath Abbey

FLYING BUTTRESS AND CLERE-STORY

A, buttress with pinnacle; B, flying buttress supporting clere-story; C, vaulted roof of aisle; D D, pier dividin nave from aisle; E, vaulted roof of nave.

Clustered. In architecture, the coalition of several members which penetrate each other.

Clustered Column. Several slender pillars attached to each other so as to form one. The term is used in Roman architecture to denote two or four columns which appear to intersect each other at the angle of a building to answer at each return.



CLUSTERED COLUMN

Coat. A thickness or covering of paint, plaster, or other work, done at one time. The first coat of plastering is called the scratch coat, the second coat (when there are three coats) is called the brown coat, and the last coat is variously known as the slipped coat, skimcoat, or white coat. It varies in composition in different localities.

Coffer. A deep panel in a ceiling.

Coffer Dam. A frame used in the building of a bridge in deep water, similar to a caisson.

Collar Beam. A beam above the lower ends of the rafters, and spiked to them.

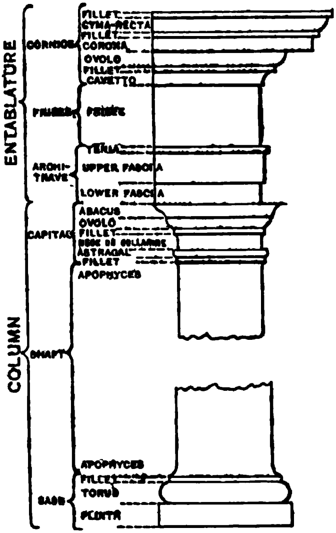
Colonnade. A row of columns. The colonnade is termed, according to the number of columns which support the entablature: Tetrastyle, when there are four; hexastyle, when six; octostyle, when eight, etc. When in front of a building they are termed porticos; when surrounding a building, peristyle; and when double or more, polystyle.

Colosseum, or **Coliseum.** The immense amphitheater built at Rome by Flavius Vespasian, A D. 72, after his return from his victories over the Jews. It would contain ninety thousand persons sitting, and twenty thousand more standing. The name is now employed to denote an unusually large audience building, generally of a temporary nature.

Colossus. The name of a brazen statue which was erected at the entrance of the harbor at Rhodes, one hundred and five feet in height. Vessels could sail between its legs.

Column. A round pillar. The parts are the base, on which it rests; its body, called the shaft; and the head, called the capital. The capital finishes with a horizontal table, called the abacus, and the base commonly stands on another, called the plinth. Columns may be either insulated or attached. They are said to be attached or engaged when they form part of a wall, projecting one-half or more, but not the whole, of their substance.

Common. A line, angle, surface, etc., which belongs equally to several objects. Common centring is a centring without trusses, having a tie beam at bottom. Common joists are the beams in naked flooring to which the joists are fixed. Common rafters in a roof are those to which the laths are attached.



SECTION OF COLUMN AND ENTABLATURE

(Divided according to the Tuscan Order.)

Composite Arch. Is the pointed or lancet arch.

Composite Order. The most elaborate of the orders of classical architecture.

Concrete. A mass composed of broken stone, sand, and hydraulic cement, which makes a sort of artificial stone, much used for foundations; a finer variety is sometimes used in blocks for building houses.

Conduit. A long narrow passage between two walls or underground for secret communication between different apartments; also, a canal or pipe for the conveyance of water.

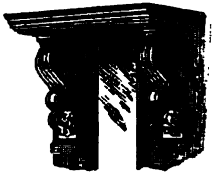
Confessional. The seat where a priest or confessor sits to hear confessions

Conge. Another name for the echinus or quarter round.

Conservatory. A building for the protection and rearing of tender plants, often attached to a house as an apartment. Also, a public place of instruction, designed to preserve and perfect the knowledge of some branch of learning or the fine arts; as, a *conservatory* of music.

Consistory. The judicial hall of the College of Cardinals at Rome.

Consol, or **Consolo.** A bracket or truss, generally with scrolls or volutes at the two ends, of unequal size and contrasted, but connected by a flowing line from the back of the upper one to the inner convolving face of the lower.


CONSOLES

Coping. The capping or covering of a wall. This is of stone, weathered to throw off the wet. In Norman times, as far as can be judged from the little there is left, it was generally plain and flat, and projected over the wall with a floating to form a drip. Afterward it assumed a torus or bowtell at the top, and became deeper, and in the Decorated period there were generally several sets-off. The copings in the Perpendicular period assumed something of the wavy section of the buttress caps, and mitred round the sides of the embrasure, as well as the top and bottom.

Corbel. The name, in mediæval architecture, for a piece of stone jutting out of a wall to carry any superincumbent weight. A piece of timber projecting in the same way was called a tassel or a bragger. Thus, the carved ornaments from which the vaulting shafts spring at Lincoln are corbels. Norman corbels are generally plain. In the Early English period they are sometimes elaborately carved. They sometimes end with a point, apparently growing into the wall. or forming a knot, and often are supported by angles and other figures. In the later periods the foliage or ornaments resemble those in the capitals. In modern architecture, a short piece of stone or wood projecting from a wall to form a support, generally ornamented.

Corbel Out. To build out one or more courses of brick or stone from the face of a wall, to form a support for timbers.

Corbel Table. A projecting cornice or parapet, supported by a range of corbels a short distance apart, which carry a molding, above which is a plain piece of projecting wall forming a parapet, and covered by a coping. Sometimes small arches are thrown across from corbel to corbel, to carry the projection.

Cornice. The projection at the top of a wall finished by a blocking-course, common in classic architecture. In Norman times, the wall finished with a corbel table, which carried a portion of plain projecting work, which was finished by a coping, and the whole formed a parapet. In Early English times the parapet was much the same, but the work was executed in a much better way, especially the small arches connecting the corbels. In the Decorated period the corbel table was nearly abandoned, and a large hollow, with one or two subordinate moldings, substituted; this is sometimes filled with the ball-flowers, and sometimes with running foliages. In the Perpendicular style the parapet frequently did not project beyond the wall-line below; the molding then became a string (though often improperly called a cornice), and was ornamented by a quatre-foil. or small rosettes, set at equal intervals immediately under the battlements. In many French examples the molded string is very bold, and enriched with foliage ornaments.

Corona. The brow of the cornice which projects over the bed moldings to throw off the water.

Corridor. A long gallery or passage in a mansion connecting various apartments and running round a quadrangle. Any long passage-way in a building.

Countersink. To make a cavity for the reception of a plate of iron, or the head of a screw or bolt, so that it shall not project beyond the face of the work.

Coupled Columns. Columns arranged in pairs.

Course. A continued layer of bricks or stones in buildings; the term is also applicable to slates, shingles, etc.

Court. An open area behind a house, or in the center of a building and the wings. Courts admit of the most elegant ornamentations, such as arcades, etc.

Cove — Coving. The molding called the cavetto, or the scotia inverted, on a large scale, and not as a mere molding in the composition of a cornice, is called a cove or a coving.

Cove-bracketing. The wooden skeleton mold or framing of a cove, applied chiefly to the bracketing of a cove ceiling.

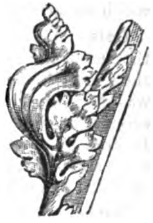
Cove Ceiling. A ceiling springing from the walls with a curve.

Coved and Flat Ceiling. A ceiling in which the section is the quadrant of a circle, rising from the walls and intersecting in a flat surface.

Cradling. Timber work for sustaining the lath and plaster of vaulted ceilings.

Cresting. An ornamental finish in the wall or ridge of a building, which is common on the Continent of Europe. An example occurs at Exeter Cathedral, the ridge of which is ornamented with a range of small fleurs-de-lis in lead.

Crocket. An ornament running up the sides of gablets, hood-molds, pinnacles, spires; generally, a winding stem like a creeping plant, with flowers or leaves projecting at intervals, and terminating in a finial.


CROCKET

Cross. This religious symbol is almost always placed on the ends of gables, the summit of spires, and other conspicuous places of old churches. In early times it was generally very plain, often a simple cross in a circle. Sometimes they take the form of a light cross, crosslet, or a cross in a square. In the Decorated and later styles they became richly floriated, and assumed an endless variety of forms. Of memorial crosses the finest examples are the Eleanor crosses, erected by Edward I.[1] Of these a few yet remain, one of which has recently been reërected at Charing Cross. Preaching crosses were often set up by the wayside as stations for preaching; the most noted is that in front of St. Paul's, England. The finest remaining sepulchral crosses are the old elaborately carved examples found in Ireland.

Cross-aisle. An old name for a transept.

Cross-springer. The transverse ribs of a vault.

Cross-vaulting. A common name given to groins and cylindrical vaults.

Crown. In architecture the uppermost member of the cornice; called also Corona and Larmier.

Crypt. A vaulted apartment of greater or less size, usually under the choir.

Cupola. A small room, either circular or polygonal, standing on the top of a dome. By some it is called a Lantern.

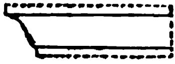
Curb Roof, or Mansard Roof. A roof formed of four contiguous planes, each two having an external inclination.

Curtail Step. The first step in a stair, which is generally finished in the form of a scroll.

Cusp. The point where the foliations of tracery intersect. The earliest example in England of a plain cusp is probably that at Pythagoras School, at Cambridge, of an ornamental cusp, at Ely Cathedral, where a small roll, with a rosette at the end, is formed at the termination of a cusp. In the later styles the terminations of the cusps were more richly decorated; they also sometimes terminate not only in leaves or foliages, but in rosettes, heads, and other fanciful ornaments.

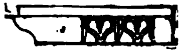
Cyclostyle. A structure composed of a circular range of columns without a core is cyclostylar; with a core, the range would be a peristyle. This is the species of edifice called by Vitruvius monopteral.

Cyma. The name of a molding of very frequent use. It is a simple, waved line, concave at one end and convex at the other, like an Italic *f*. When the concave part is uppermost it is called a cyma recta, but if the convexity appear above, and the concavity below, it is then a cyma reversa.



CYMA RECTA

Cymatium. When the crowning molding of an entablature is of the cyma form, it is termed the Cymatium.



CYMA REVERSA

Cyrtostyle. A circular projecting portico. Such are those of the transept entrances to St. Paul's Cathedral, London.

Dado, or Die. The vertical face of an insulated pedestal between the base and cornice, or surbase. It is extended also to the similar part of all stereobates which are arranged like pedestals in Roman and Italian architecture.

Dais. A part of the floor at the end of a mediæval hall, raised a step above the rest of the floor. On this the lord of the mansion dined with his friends at the great table, apart from the retainers and servants. In mediæval halls there was generally a deep recessed bay window at one or at each end of the dais, supposed to be for retirement, or greater privacy than the open hall could afford. In France the word is understood as a canopy or hanging over a seat; probably the name was given from the fact that the seats of great men were then surmounted by such an ornament.

Darby. A flat tool used by plasterers in working, especially on ceilings. It is generally about seven inches wide and forty-two inches long, with two handles on the back.

Decastyle. A portico of ten columns in front.

Decorated Style. The second stage of the Pointed or Gothic style of architecture, considered the most complete and perfect development of Gothic architecture, the best examples of which are found in England.

Demi-metope. The half of a metope, which is found at the retiring or projecting angles of a Doric frieze.

Dentil. The cogged or toothed member, common in the bed-mold of a Corinthian entablature, is said to be dentiled, and each cog or tooth is called a dentil.

Depressed Arches, or Drop Arches. Those of less pitch than the equilateral.

Design. The plans, elevations, sections, and whatever other drawings may be necessary for an edifice, exhibit the design, the term plan having a restricted application to a technical portion of the design.

Detail. As used by architects, detail means the smaller parts into which a composition may be divided. It is applied generally to moldings and other enrichments, and again to their minutiæ.

Diameter. The line in a circle passing through its center, or thickest part, which gives the measure proportioning the intercolumniation in some of the orders.

Diameters. The diameters of the lower and upper ends of the shaft of a column are called its inferior and superior diameters, respectively; the former is the greatest, the latter the least diameter of the shaft.

Diaper. A method of decorating a wall, panel, stained glass, or any plain surface, by covering it with a continuous design of flowers, rosettes, etc., either in squares or lozenges, or some geometrical form resembling the pattern of a diapered table-cloth, from which, in fact, the name is supposed by some to have been derived.

Diastyle. A spacious intercolumniation, to which three diameters are assigned.

Dipteros. A double-winged temple. The Greeks are said to have constructed temples with two ranges of columns all around, which were called dipteroi. A portico projecting two columns and their interspaces is of dipteral or pseudo-dipteral arrangement.

Discharging Arch. An arch over the opening of a door or window, to discharge or relieve the superincumbent weight from pressing on the lintel.

Distemper. Term applied to painting with colors mixed with size or other glutinous substance. All the cartoons of the ancients, previous to the year 1410, are said to be done in distemper.

Distyle. A portico of two columns. This is not generally applied to the mere porch with two columns, but to describe a portico with two columns *in antis.*

Ditriglyph. An intercolumniation in the Doric order, of two triglyphs.

Dodecastyle. A portico of twelve columns in front. The lower one of the west front of St. Paul's Cathedral, London, is of twelve columns, but they are coupled, making the arrangement pseudo-dodecastyle. The Chamber of Deputies in Paris has a true dodecastyle.

Dog-tooth. A favorite enrichment used from the latter part of the Norman period to the early part of the Decorated. It is in the form of a four-leaved flower, the center of which projects, and probably was named from its resemblance to the dog-toothed violet.

Dome. A cupola or inverted cup on a building. The application of this term to its generally received purpose is from the Italian custom of calling an archiepiscopal church, by way of eminence, Il Duomo, the temple; for to one of that rank, the Cathedral of Florence, the cupola was first applied in modern practice. The Italians themselves never call a cupola a dome; it is on this side of the Alps the application has arisen, from the circumstance, it would appear, that the Italians use the term with reference to those structures whose most distinguishing feature is the cupola, tholus, or (as we now call it) dome.

Domestic Architecture. That branch which relates to private buildings.

Donjon. The principal tower of a castle, generally containing the prison.

Door Frame. The surrounding case into and out of which the door shuts and opens. It consists of two upright pieces, called jambs, and a head, generally fixed together by mortices and tenons, and wrought, rebated, and beaded.

Doric Order. The oldest of the three orders of Grecian architecture.

Dormer Window. A window belonging to a room in a roof, which consequently projects from it with a valley gutter on each side. They are said not to be earlier than the fourteenth century. In Germany there are often several rows of dormers, one above the other. In Italian Gothic they are very rare; in fact, the former have an unusually steep roof, while in the latter country, where the Italian tile is used, the roofs are rather flat.

Dormitory. A room, suite of rooms, or building used to sleep in. The name was first applied to the place where the monks slept at night. It was sometimes one long room like a barrack, and sometimes divided into a succession of small chambers or cells. The dormitory was generally on the first floor, and connected with the church, so that it was not necessary to go out-of-doors to attend the nocturnal services. In the large houses of the Perpendicular period, and also in some of the Elizabethan, the entire upper story in the roof formed one large apartment, said to have been a place for exercise in wet weather, and also for a dormitory for the retainers of the household, or those of visitors.

Double Vault. Formed by a duplicate wall; wine cellars are sometimes so formed.

Dovetailing. In carpentry and joinery, the method of fastening boards or other timbers together, by letting one piece into another in the form of the expanded tail of a dove.

Dowel. A pin let into two pieces of wood or stone, where they are joined together. A piece of wood driven into a wall so that other pieces may be nailed to it. This is also called plugging.

Draw-bridge. A bridge made to draw up or let down, much used in fortified places. In navigable rivers, the arch over the deepest channel is made to draw or revolve, in order to let the masts of ships pass through.

Drawing-room. A room appropriated for the reception of company; a room to which company withdraws from the dining-room.

Dresser. A cupboard or set of shelves to receive dishes and cooking utensils.

Dressing. Is the operation of squaring and smoothing stones for building; also applied to smoothing lumber.

Dressing-room. An apartment appropriated for dressing the person.

Drip. A name given to the member of a cornice which has a projection beyond the other parts for throwing off water by small portions, drop by drop. It is also called Larmier.

Drip-stone. The label molding which serves on a canopy for an opening, and to throw off the rain. It is also called Weather Molding.

Drop-scene. A curtain suspended by pulleys, which descends or drops in front of the stage in a theater.

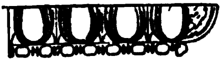
Drum. The upright part of a cupola over a dome; also, the solid part or vase of the Corinthian and Composite capitals.

Dry-rot. A rapid decay of timber, by which its substance is converted into a dry powder, which issues from minute cavities resembling the borings of worms.

Dungeon. The prison in a castle keep, so called because the Norman name for the latter is donjon, and the dungeons, or prisons, are generally in its lowest story.

Dwarf Wall. The walls enclosing courts above which are railings of iron; low walls, in general, receive this name.

Eaves. In slating and shingling, the margin or lower part of the slating hanging over the wall, to throw the water off from the masonry or brickwork.


ECHINUS

Echinus. A molding of eccentric curve, generally cut (when it is carved) into the forms of eggs and anchors alternating, whence the molding is called by the name of the more conspicuous. It is the same as Ovolo.

Edifice. Is synonymous with the terms building, fabric, erection, but is more strictly applicable to architecture distinguished for size, dignity, and grandeur.

Efflorescence. In architecture, the formation of a whitish loose powder, or crust, on the surface of stone or brick walls.

Egyptian Architecture. The earliest civilization and cultivation of the arts was in Upper Egypt. The most remarkable and most ancient monuments of the Egyptians, with the exception of the pyramids, are nearly all included in Upper Egypt. The buildings of Egypt are characterized by solidity and massiveness of construction, originality of conception, and boldness of form. The walls, the pillars, and the most sacred places of their religious buildings were ornamented with hieroglyphics and symbolical figures, while the ceilings of the porticos exhibited zodiacs and celestial planispheres. The temples of Egypt were generally without roofs, and, consequently, the interior colonnades had no pediments, supporting merely an entablature, composed of only architrave, frieze, and cornice, formed of immense blocks united without cement and ornamented with hieroglyphics.

Element. The outline of the design of a Decorated window, on which the centers for the tracery are formed. These centers will all be found to fall on points which, in some way or other, will be equimultiples of parts of the openings. To draw tracery well, or understand even the principles of its composition, much attention should be given to the study of the element.

Elevation. The front façade, as the French term it, of a structure; a geometrical drawing of the external upright parts of a building.

Embattlement. An indented parapet; battlement.

Emblazon. To adorn with figures of heraldry, or ensigns armorial.

Embossing. Sculpture in rilievo, the figures standing partly out from the plane.

Embrasure. The opening in a battlement between the two raised solid portions or merlons, sometimes called a crenelle.

Encaustic. Pertaining to the art of burning in colors, applied to painting on glass, porcelain, or tiles, where colors are fixed by heat; hence, encaustic tiles, bricks, etc.

Engaged Columns. Are those attached to, or built into walls or piers, a portion being concealed.

Enrichment. The addition of ornament, carving, etc., to plain work; decoration; embellishment.

Ensemble. Means the whole work or composition considered together, and not in parts.

Entablature. The assemblage of parts supported by the column. It consists of three parts: the architrave, frieze, and cornice.

Entail. In Gothic architecture, delicate carving.

Entasis. The swelling of a column, etc. In mediæval architecture, some spires, particularly those called "broach spires," have a slight swelling in the sides, but no more than to make them look straight; for, from a particular "deceptio visus," that which is quite straight, when viewed at a height, looks hollow.

Entry. A hall without stairs or vestibule.

Epistyle. This term may with propriety be applied to the whole entablature, with which it is synonymous; but it is restricted in use to the architrave, or lowest member of the entablature.

Escutcheon. (Her.) The field or ground on which a coat-of-arms is represented. (Arch.) The shields used on tombs, in the spandrels of doors, or in string-courses; also, the ornamented plates from the centre of which door rings, knockers, etc., are suspended, or which protect the wood of the key-hole from the wear of the key. In mediæval times these were often worked in a very beautiful manner.

Etching. A mode of engraving on glass or metal (generally copper) by means of lines, eaten in or corroded by means of some strong acid.

Eustyle. A species of intercolumniation to which a proportion of two diameters and a quarter is assigned. This term, together with the others of similar import — pycnostyle, systyle, diastyle, and aræostyle — referring to the distance of columns from one another in composition, is from Vitruvius, who assigns to each the space it is to express. It will be seen, however, by reference to them individually, that the words themselves, though perhaps sufficiently applicable convey no idea of an exactly defined space, and, by reference to the columnar structures of the ancients, that no attention was paid by them to such limitations. It follows, then, that the proportions assigned to each are purely conventional, and may or may not be attended to without vitiating the power of applying the terms. Eustyle means the best or most beautiful arrangement; but, as the effect of a columnar composition depends on many things besides the diameter of the columns, the same proportioned intercolumniation would look well or ill according to those other circumstances, so that the limitation of Eustyle to two diameters and a quarter is absurd.

Extrados. The exterior or convex curve forming the upper line of the arch stones; the term is opposed to the intrados, or concave side.

Eye of a Dome. The aperture at its summit.

Eye of a Volute. The circle in its center.

Façade, or Face. The whole exterior side of a building that can be seen at one view; strictly speaking, the principal front.

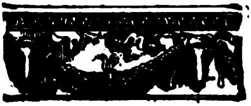
Face Mold. The pattern for marking the plank or board out of which ornamental hand-railings for stairs and other works are cut.

Fan Tracery. The very complicated mode of roofing used in the Perpendicular style, in which the vault is covered by ribs and veins of tracery.

Fascia. A flat, broad member in the entablature of columns or other parts of buildings, but of small projection. The architraves in some of the orders are composed of three bands, or fasciæ; the Tuscan and the Doric ought to have only one. Ornamental projections from the walls of brick buildings over any of the windows, except the uppermost, are called Fasciæ.

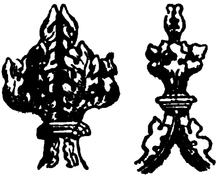
Fenestral. A frame, or "chassis," on which oiled paper or thin cloth was strained to keep out wind and rain when the windows were not glazed.

Festoon. An ornament of carved work, representing a wreath or garland of flowers or leaves, or both, interwoven with each other. It is thickest in the middle, and small at each extremity, where it is tied, a part often hanging down below the knot.


FESTOON

Fillet. A narrow vertical band or listel of frequent use in congeries of moldings, to separate and combine them, and also to give breadth and firmness to the upper edge of a crowning cyma or cavetto, as in an external cornice. The narrow slips or breadth between the flutes of Corinthian and Ionic columns are also called fillets. In mediæval work the fillet is a small, flat, projecting square, chiefly used to separate hollows and rounds, and often found in the outer parts of shafts and boutels. In this situation the center fillet has been termed a keel, and the two side ones, wings; but, apparently, this is not an ancient usage.

Finial. The flower, or bunch of flowers, with which a spire, pinnacle, gablet, canopy, etc., generally terminates. Where there are crockets, the finial generally bears as close a resemblance as possible to them in point of design. They are found in early work where there are no crockets. The simplest form more resembles a bud about to burst than an open flower. They soon became more elaborate, as at Lincoln, and still more, as at Westminster and the Hôtel Cluny at Paris. Many perpendicular finials are like four crockets bound together. Almost every known example of a finial has a sort of necking separating it from the parts below.


FINIALS

Fish-joint. A splice where the pieces are joined butt end to end, and are connected by pieces of wood or iron placed on each side and firmly bolted to the timbers, or pieces joined.

Flags. Flat stones, from 1 to 3 inches thick, for floors.

Flamboyant. A name applied to the Third Pointed style in France, which seems to have been developed from the Second, as the English Perpendicular was from the Decorated. The great characteristic is, that the element of the tracery flows upward in long wavy divisions like flames of fire. In most cases, also, every division has only one cusp on each side, however long the division may be. The moldings seem to be as much inferior to those of the preceding period as the Perpendicular moldings were to the Early English, a fact which seems to show that the decadence of Gothic architecture was not confined to one country.

Flange. A projecting edge, rib, or rim. Flanges are often cast on the top or bottom of iron columns, to fasten them to those above or below; the top and bottom of I-beams and channels are called the flange.

Flashings. Pieces of lead, tin, or copper, let into the joints of a wall so as to lap over gutters or other pieces; also, pieces worked in the slates or shingles around dormers, chimneys, and any rising part, to prevent leaking.

Flatting. Painting finished without leaving a gloss on the surface.

Flèche. A general term in French architecture for a spire, but more particularly used for the small, slender erection rising from the intersection of the nave and transepts in cathedrals and large churches, and carrying the sanctus bell.

Fleur-de-lis. The royal insignia of France, much used in decoration.

Flight. A run of steps or stairs from one landing to another.

Floating. The equal spreading of plaster or stucco on the surface of walls, by means of a board called a float; as a rule, only rough plastering is floated.

Floriated. Having florid ornaments, as in Gothic pillars.

Flue. The space or passage in a chimney through which the smoke ascends. Each passage is called a flue, while all together make the chimney.

Flush. The continued surface, in the same plane, of two contiguous masses.

Flute. A concave channel. Columns whose shafts are channeled are said to be fluted, and the flutes are collectively called Flutings.

Flying Buttress. An arched buttress used when extra strength was required for the upper part of the wall of the nave, etc., to resist the outward thrust of a vaulted ceiling. The flying buttress generally rests on the wall and buttress of the aisle.

Foils. The small arcs in the tracery of Gothic windows, panels, etc.

Foliage. An ornamental distribution of leaves on various parts of buildings.

Foliation. The use of small arcs or foils in forming tracery.

Font. The vessel used in the rite of baptism. The earliest extant is supposed to be that in which Constantine is said to have been baptized; this is a porphyry labrum from a Roman bath. Those in the baptisteries in Italy are all large, and were intended for immersion; as time went on, they seem to have become smaller. Fonts are sometimes mere plain hollow cylinders, generally a little smaller below than above; others are massive squares, supported on a thick stem, round which sometimes there are smaller shafts. In the Early English this form is still pursued, and the shafts are detached; sometimes, however, they are hexagonal and octagonal, and in this and the later styles assume the form of a vessel on a stem. Norman fonts frequently have curious carvings on them, approaching the grotesque; in later times the foliages, etc., partook absolutely of the character of those used in other architectural details of their respective periods. The font in European churches is usually placed close to a pillar near the entrance. generally that nearest but one to the tower in the south arcade; or, in large buildings, in the middle of the nave, opposite the entrance porch, and sometimes in a separate building. In Protestant churches in this country, the font is generally placed inside the communion rail, or on the steps of the chancel.

Footings. The spreading courses at the base or foundation of a wall. When a layer of different material from that of the wall (as a bed of concrete) is used, it is called the Footing.

Foundation. That part of a building or wall which is below the surface of the ground.

Foxtail Wedging. Is a peculiar mode of mortising, in which the end of the tenon is notched beyond the mortise, and is split and a wedge inserted, which, being forcibly driven in, enlarges the tenon and renders the joint firm and immovable.

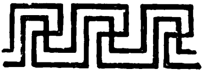
Frame. The name given to the wood-work of windows, doors, etc.; and in carpentry, to the timber works supporting floors, roofs, etc.

Framing. The rough timber work of a house, including the flooring, roofing, partitioning, ceiling, and beams thereof.

Freestone. Stone which can be used for moldings, tracery, and other work required to be executed with the chisel. The oölitic and sandstones are those generally included by this term.

Fresco. The method of painting on a wall while the plastering is wet. The color penetrates through the material, which, therefore, will bear rubbing or cleaning to almost any extent. The transparency, the chiaro-oscuro, and lucidity, as well as force, which can be obtained by this method, cannot be conceived unless the frescos of Fra Angelico or Raphael are studied. The word, however, is often applied improperly to painting on the surface in distemper or body color, mixed with size or white of egg, which gives an opaque effect.

Fret. An ornament consisting of small fillets intersecting each other at right angles.



FRET

Frieze. That portion of an entablature between the cornice above and architrave below. It derives its name from being the recipient of the sculptured enrichments either of foliage or figures which may be relevant to the object of the sculpture. The frieze is also called the Zoöphorus.

Frigidarium. An apartment in the Roman bath, supplied with cold water.

Furniture. A name given to the metal trimmings of doors, windows, and other similar parts of a house. In this country the word "hardware" is more generally used to denote the same thing.

Furrings. Flat pieces of timber used to bring an irregular framing to an even surface.

Gable. When a roof is not hipped or returned on itself at the ends, its ends are stopped by carrying up the walls under them in the triangular form of the roof itself. This is called the gable, or, in the case of the ornamental and ornamented gable, the pediment. Of necessity, gables follow the angles of the slope of the roof, and differ in the various styles. In Norman work they are generally about half-pitch; in Early English, seldom less than equilateral, and often more. In Decorated work they become lower, and still more so in the Perpendicular style. In all important buildings they are finished with copings or parapets. In the Later Gothic styles gables are often surmounted with battlements, or enriched with crockets; they are also often paneled or perforated, sometimes very richly. The gables in ecclesiastical buildings are mostly terminated with a cross; in others, by a finial or pinnacle. In later times the parapets or copings were broken into a sort of steps, called corbic steps. In buildings of less pretension the tiles or other roof covering passed over the front of the wall, which then, of course, had no coping. In this case, the outer pair of rafters were concealed by molded or carved verge boards.

Gable Window. A term sometimes applied to the large window under a gable, but more properly to the windows in the gable itself.

Gabled Towers. Those which are finished with gables instead of parapets. Many of the German Romanesque towers are gabled.

Gablets. Triangular terminations to buttresses, much in use in the Early English and Decorated periods, after which the buttresses generally terminate in pinnacles. The Early English gablets are generally plain, and very sharp in pitch. In the Decorated period they are often enriched with paneling and crockets. They are sometimes finished with small crosses, but oftener with finials.

Gain. A beveled shoulder on the end of a mortised brace, for the purpose of giving additional resistance to the shoulder.

Gallery. Any long passage looking down into another part of a building, or into the court outside. In like manner, any stage erected to carry a rood or an organ, or to receive spectators, was latterly called a gallery, though originally loft. In later times the name was given to any very long rooms, particularly those intended for purposes of state, or for the exhibition of pictures.

Gambrel Roof. A roof with two pitches, similar to a mansard or curb roof.

Gargoyle, or Gurgoyle. The carved termination to a spout which conveyed away the water from the gutters, supposed to be called so from the gurgling noise made by the water passing through it. Gargoyles are mostly grotesque figures.

GARGOYLE

Gate-house. A building forming the entrance to a town, the door of an abbey, or the enceinte of a castle or other important edifice. They generally had a large gateway protected by a gate, and also a portcullis, over which were battlemented parapets with holes (machicolations) for throwing down darts, melted lead, or hot sand on the besiegers. Gate-houses always had a lodge, with apartments for the porter, and guard-rooms for the soldiers; and, generally, rooms over for the officers, and often places for prisoners beneath. The name is now commonly applied to the gate-keeper's lodge on large estates.

Gauge. To mix plaster of Paris with common plaster to make it set quick, called gauged mortar. A tool used by carpenters, to strike a line parallel to the edge of a board.

Girder. A large timber or iron beam, either single or built up, used to support joists or walls over an opening.

Glyph. A vertical channel in a frieze.

Gothic Style. The name of Gothic was given to the various Mediæval styles at a period in the sixteenth century when a great classic revival was going on, and everything not classic was considered barbarian, or Gothic. The term was thus originally intended as one of stigma, and, although it conveys a false idea of the character of the Mediæval styles, it has long been used to distinguish them from the Grecian and Roman. The true principle of Gothic architecture is the vertical division, relation and subordination of the different parts, distinct and yet at unity with each other, and while this principle was adhered to, Gothic architecture may be said to have retained its vitality.

Grange. A word derived from the French, signifying a large barn or granary. Granges were usually long buildings with high wooden roofs, sometimes divided by posts or columns into a sort of nave and aisles, with walls strongly buttressed. In England the term was applied not only to the barns, but to the whole of the buildings which formed the detached farms belonging to the monasteries; in most cases there was a chapel either included among these or standing apart as a separate edifice.

Grillage. A framework of beams laid longitudinally and crossed by similar beams notched upon them, used to sustain walls to prevent irregular setting.

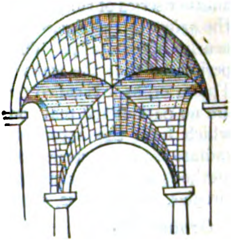
Grille. The iron-work forming the enclosure screen to a chapel, or the protecting railing to a tomb or shrine; more commonly found in France than in England. They are of wrought iron, ornamented by the swage and punch, and put together either by rivets or clips. In modern times grilles are used extensively for protecting the lower windows in city houses, also the glass opening in outside doors.

Groin. By some described as the line of intersection of two vaults where they cross each other, which others call the groin point; by others the curved section or spandrel of such vaulting is called a groin, and by others the whole system of vaulting is so named.

Groin Arch. The cross-rib in the later styles of groining, passing at right angles from wall to wall, and dividing the vault into bays or travees.

Groin Ceiling. A ceiling to a building composed of oak ribs, the spandrels of which are filled in with narrow, thin slips of wood. There are several in England; one at the Early English church at Warmington, and one at Winchester Cathedral, exactly resembling those of stone.

Groin Centring. In groining without ribs, the whole surface is supported by centring during the erection of the vaulting. In ribbed work the stone ribs only are supported by timber ribs during the progress of the work, any light stuff being used while filling in the spandrels.



GROINED VAULTING

Groin Point. The name given by workmen to the arris or line of intersection of one vault with another where there are no ribs.

Groin Rib. The rib which conceals the groin point or joints, where the spandrels intersect.

Groined Vaulting. The system of covering a building with stone vaults which cross and intersect each other, as opposed to the barrel vaulting, or series of arches placed side by side. The earliest groins are plain, without any ribs, except occasionally a sort of wide band from wall to wall, to strengthen the construction. In later Norman times ribs were added on the line of intersection of the spandrels, crossing each other, and having a boss as a key common to both; these ribs the French authors call *nerfs en ogive*. Their introduction, however, caused an entire change in the system of vaulting; instead of arches of uniform thickness and great weight, these ribs were first put up as the main construction, and spandrels of the lightest and thinnest possible material placed upon them, the haunches only being loaded sufficiently to counterbalance the pressure from the crown. Shortly after, half-ribs against the walls (formerets) were introduced to carry the spandrels without cutting into the walling, and to add to the appearance. The work was now not treated as continued vaulting, but as divided into bays, and it was formed by keeping up the ogive, or intersecting ribs and their bosses; a sort of construction having some affinity to the dome was formed, which added much to the strength of the groining. Of course, the top of the soffit or ridge of the vault was not horizontal, but rose from the level of the top of the formeret-rib to the boss and fell again; but this could not be perceived from below. As this system of construction got more into use, and as the vaults were required to be of greater span and of higher pitch, the spandrels became larger, and required more support. To give this, another set of ribs was introduced, passing from the springers of the ogive ribs, and going to about half-way between these and the ogive, and meeting on the ridge of the vault; these intermediate ribs are called by the French *tiercerons*, and began to come into use in the transition from Early English to Decorated. About the same period a system of vaulting came into use called *hexpartite*, from the fact that every bay is divided into six compartments instead of four. It was invented to cover the naves of churches of unusual width. The filling of the spandrels in this style is very peculiar, and, where the different compartments meet at the ridge, some pieces of harder stone have been used, which give rather a pleasing effect. The arches against the wall, being of smaller span than the main arches, cause the centre springers to be perpendicular and parallel for some height, and the spandrels themselves are very hollow. As styles progressed, and the desire for greater richness increased, another series of ribs, called *liernes*, was introduced; these passed crossways from the *ogives* to the *tiercerons*, and thence to the *doubleaux*, dividing the spandrels nearly horizontally. These various systems increased in the Perpendicular period, so that the walls were quite a net-work of ribs, and led at last to the Tudor, or, as it is called by many, fan-tracery vaulting. In this system the ribs are no part of the real construction, but are merely carved upon the voussoirs, which form the actual vaulting. Fan Tracery is so called because the ribs radiate from the springers, and spread out like the sticks of a fan. These later methods are not strictly groins, for the pendentives are not square on plan, but circular, and there is, therefore, no arris intersection or groin point.

Groins, Welsh, or **Underpitch.** When the main longitudinal vault of any groining is higher than the cross or transverse vaults which run from the windows, the system of vaulting is called underpitch groining, or, as termed by the workmen, Welsh groining. A very fine example is at St. George's Chapel, Windsor, England.

Groove. In joinery, a term used to signify a sunk channel whose section is rectangular. It is usually employed on the edge of a molding, stile, or rail, etc., into which a tongue corresponding to its section, and in the substance of the wood to which it is joined, is inserted.

Grotesque. A singular and fantastic style of ornament found in ancient buildings.

Grotto. An artificial cavern.

Ground Floor. The floor of a building on a level, or nearly so, with the ground.

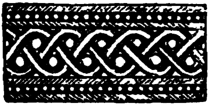
Ground Joist. Joist that is blocked up from the ground.

Grounds. Pieces of wood embedded in the plastering of walls to which skirting and other joiner's work is attached. They are also used to stop the plastering around door and window openings.

Grouped Columns. Three, four, or more columns put together on the same pedestal. When two are placed together, they are said to be coupled.

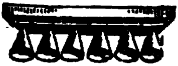
Grout. Mortar made so thin by the addition of water that it will run into all the joints and cavities of the mason-work, and fill it up solid.

Guilloche, or Guillochos. An interlaced ornament like net-work, used most frequently to enrich the torus.



GUILLOCHE

Guttæ. The small cylindrical drops used to enrich the mutules and regulæ of the Doric entablature are so called.



GUTTÆ

Gutter. The channel for carrying off rain-water. The mediæval gutters differed little from others, except that they are often hollows sunk in the top of stone cornices, in which case they are generally called channels in English, and *cheneaux* in French.

Gymnasium. A building classed in the first rank by the Greeks; it was in them they instructed the youth in all the arts of peace and war; a building for athletic exercises.

Hall. The principal apartment in the large dwellings of the Middle Ages, used for the purposes of receptions, feasts, etc. In the Norman castle the hall was generally in the keep above the ground floor, where the retainers lived, the basement being devoted to stores and dungeons for confining prisoners. Later halls — indeed, some Norman halls (not in castles) — are generally on the ground floor, as at Westminster, approached by a porch either at the end, as in this last example, or at the side, as at Guildhall, London, having at one end a raised dais or estrade. The roofs are generally open and more or less ornamented. In the middle of these was an opening to let out the smoke, though in later times the halls have large chimney-places with funnels or chimney-shafts for this purpose. At this period there were usually two deeply recessed bay windows at each end of the dais, and doors leading into the withdrawing-rooms, or the ladies' apartments; they are also generally wainscoted with oak, in small panels, to the height of five or six feet, the panels often being enriched. Westminster Hall was originally divided into three parts, like a nave and side aisles, as are some on the Continent of Europe. A room or passage-way at the entrance of a house, or suite of chambers. A place of public assembly, as a town-hall, a music-hall.

Halving. The junction of two pieces of timber, by letting one into the other.

Hammer Beam. A beam in a Gothic roof, not extending to the opposite side; a beam at the foot of a rafter.

Hanging Buttress. A buttress not rising from the ground, but supported on a corbel, applied chiefly as a decoration and used only in the Decorated and Perpendicular style.

Hanging Stile. Of a door, is that to which the hinges are fixed.

Hangings. Tapestry; originally invented to hide the coarseness of the walls of a chamber. Different materials were employed for this purpose, some of them exceedingly costly and beautifully worked in figures, gold and silk.

Hatching. Drawing parallel lines close together for the purpose of indicating a section of anything. The lines are generally drawn at an angle of 45° with a horizontal.

Haunches. The sides of an arch, about half-way from the springing to the crown.

Headers. In masonry, are stones or bricks extending over the thickness of a wall. In carpentry, the large beam into which the common joists are framed in framing openings for stairs, chimneys, etc.

Heading Courses. Courses of a wall in which the stone or brick are all headers.

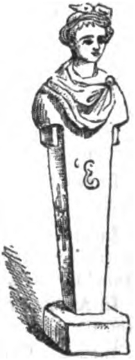
Head-way. Clear space or height under an arch, or over a stairway, and the like.

Heel. Of a rafter, the end or foot that rests upon the wall plate.

Height. Of an arch, a line drawn from the middle of the chord to the intrados.

Helix. A small volute or twist like a stalk, representing the twisted tops of the acanthus, placed under the abacus of the Corinthian capital.

Hermes. A rough quadrangular stone or pillar, having a head, usually of Hermes or Mercury, sculptured on the top, without arms or body, placed by the Greeks in front of buildings.



HERMES

Herring-bone Work. Bricks, tile, or other materials arranged diagonally in building.

Hexastyle. A portico of six columns in front is of this description.

High Altar. The principal altar in a cathedral or church. Where there is a second, it is generally at the end of the choir or chancel, not in the lady chapel.

Hip-knob. The finial on the hip of a roof, or between the barge boards of a gable.

Hip-roof. A roof which rises by equally inclined planes from all four sides of the building.

Hippodrome. A place appropriated by the ancients for equestrian exercises.

Hips. Those pieces of timber placed in an inclined position at the corners or angles of a hip-roof.

Hood-mold. A word used to signify the drip-stone for label over a window or door opening, whether inside or out.

Hôtel de Ville. The town-hall, or guild-hall, in France, Germany, and Northern Italy. The building, in general, serves for the administration of justice, the receipt of town dues, the regulation of markets, the residence of magistrates, barracks for police, prisons, and all other fiscal purposes. As may be imagined, they differ very much in different towns, but they have almost invariably attached to them, or closely adjacent, a large clock-tower containing one or more bells, for calling the people together on special occasions.

Hôtel Dieu. The name for a hospital in mediæval times. In England there are but few remains of these buildings, one of which is at Dover; in France there are many. The most celebrated is the one at Angers, described by Parker. They do not seem to differ much in arrangement of plan from those in modern days, the accommodation for the chaplain, medicine, nurses, stores, etc., being much the same in all ages, except that in some of the earlier, instead of the sick being placed in long wards like galleries, as is now done, they occupied large buildings, with naves and side aisles, like churches.

Housing. The space taken out of one solid to admit the insertion of another. The base on a stair is generally housed into the treads and risers; a niche for a statue.

Hypæthros. A temple open to the air, or uncovered. The term may be the more easily understood by supposing the roof removed from over the nave of a church in which columns or piers go up from the floor to the ceiling, leaving the aisles still covered.

Hypogea. Constructions under the surface of the earth, or in the sides of a hill or mountain.

Ichnography. A horizontal section of a building or other object, showing its true dimensions according to a geometric scale, a ground plan.

Impluvium. The central part of an ancient Roman court, which was uncovered.

Impost. A term in classic architecture for the horizontal moldings of piers or pilasters, from the top of which spring the archivolts or moldings which go round the arch.

In Antis. When there are two columns between the antæ of the lateral walls and the cella.

Incise. To cut in; to carve; to engrave.

Indented. Toothed together.

Inlaying. Inserting pieces of ivory, metal, or choice woods, or the like, into a groundwork of some other material, for ornamentation.

Insulated. Detached from another building. A church is insulated, when not contiguous to any other edifice. A column is said to be insulated, when standing free from the wall; thus, the columns of peripteral temples were insulated.

Intaglio. A sculpture or carving in which the figures are sunk below the general surface, such as a seal the impression of which in wax is in bas-relief; opposed to Cameo.

Intercolumniation. The distance from column to column, the clear space between columns.

Interlaced Arches. Arches where one passes over two openings, and they consequently cut or intersect each other.

Intrados. Of an arch, the inner or concave curve of the arch stones.

Inverted Arches. Those whose key-stone or brick is the lowest in the arch.

Ionic Order. One of the orders of Classical architecture.

Iron Work. In mediæval architecture, as an ornament, is chiefly confined to the hinges, etc., of doors and of church chests, etc. In some instances not only do the hinges become a mass of scroll work, but the surface of the doors is covered by similar ornaments. In almost all styles the smaller and less important doors had merely plain strap hinges, terminating in a few bent scrolls, and latterly in fleurs-de-lis. Escutcheon and ring handles, and the other furniture, partook more or less of the character of the time. On the Continent of Europe the knockers are very elaborate. At all periods doors have been ornamented with nails having projecting heads, sometimes square, sometimes polygonal, and sometimes ornamented with roses, etc. The iron work of windows is generally plain, and the ornament confined to simple fleur-de-lis heads to the stanchions. The iron work of screens enclosing tombs and chapels is noticed under *Grille, q.v.*

Jack. An instrument for raising heavy loads, either by a crank, siren and pinion, or by hydraulic power, and in all cases worked by hand.

Jack Rafter. A short rafter, used especially in hip-roofs.

Jamb. The side-post or lining of a doorway or other aperture. The jambs of a window outside the frame are called Reveals.

Jamb-shafts. Small shafts to doors and windows with caps and bases; when in the inside arris of the jamb of a window they are sometimes called Esconsons.

Joggle. A joint between two bodies so constructed by means of jogs or notches as to prevent their sliding past each other.

Joinery. That branch in building confined to the nicer and more ornamental parts of carpentry.

Joist. A small timber to which the boards of a floor or the laths of ceiling are nailed. It rests on the wall or on girders.

Keep. The inmost and strongest part of a mediæval castle, answering to the citadel of modern times. The arrangement is said to have originated with Gundulf, the celebrated Bishop of Rochester. The Norman keep is generally a very massive square tower, the basement or stories partly below ground being used for stores and prisons. The main story is generally a great deal above ground level, with a projecting entrance, approached by a flight of steps and drawbridge. This floor is generally supposed to have been the guard-room or place for the soldiery; above this was the hall, which generally extended over the whole area of the building, and is sometimes separated by columns; above this are other apartments for the residents. There are winding staircases in the angles of the buildings, and passages and small chambers in the thickness of the walls. The keep was intended for the last refuge, in case the outworks were scaled and the other buildings stormed. There is generally a well in a mediæval keep, ingeniously concealed in the thickness of a wall, or in a pillar. The most celebrated of Norman times are the White Tower in London, the castles at Rochester, Arundel, and Newcastle, Castle Hedingham, etc. The keep was often circular.

Key-stone. The stone placed in the center of the top of an arch. The character of the key-stone varies in different orders. In the Tuscan and Doric it is only a simple stone projecting beyond the rest; in the Ionic it is adorned with moldings in the manner of a console; in the Corinthian and Composite it is a rich-sculptured console.

King-post. The middle post of a trussed piece of framing for supporting the tie-beam at the middle and the lower ends of the struts.

Knee. A piece of timber naturally or artificially bent to receive another to relieve a weight or strain.

Knob, Knot. The bunch of flowers carved on a corbel, or on a Boss.

Kremlin. The Russian name for the citadel of a town or city.

Label. Gothic: the drip or hood-molding of an arch, when it is returned to the square.

Label Terminations. Carvings on which the labels terminate near the springing of the windows. In Norman times those were frequently grotesque heads of fish, birds, etc., and sometimes stiff foliage. In the Early English and Decorated periods they are often elegant knots of flowers, or heads of kings, queens, bishops, and other persons supposed to be the founders of churches. In the Perpendicular period they are often finished with a short square, mitred return or knee, and the foliages are generally leaves of square or octagonal form.

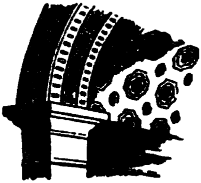
Lacunar. A paneled or coffered ceiling or soffit. The panels or cassoons of a ceiling are by Vitruvius called lacunaria.

Lady-chapel. A small chapel dedicated to the Virgin Mary, generally found in ancient cathedrals.

Lancet. A high and narrow window pointed like a lancet, often called a lancet window.

Landing. A platform in a flight of stairs between two stories; the terminating of a stair.

Lantern. A turret raised above a roof or tower and very much pierced, the better to transmit light. In modern practice this term is generally applied to any raised part in a roof or ceiling containing vertical windows, but covered in horizontally. The name was also often applied to the louver or femerell on a roof to carry off the smoke; sometimes, too, to the open constructions at the top of towers, as at Ely Cathedral, probably because lights were placed in them at night to serve as beacons.


LACUNARS IN CEILING

Lanterns of the Dead. Curious small slender towers, found chiefly in the centre and west of France, having apertures at the top, where a light was exhibited at night to mark the place of a cemetery. Some have supposed that the round towers in Ireland may have served for this purpose.

Lath. A slip of wood used in slating, tiling, and plastering.

Lattice. Any work of wood or metal made by crossing laths, rods, or bars, and forming a net-work. A reticulated window, made of laths or slips of iron, separated by glass windows, and only used where air rather than light is to be admitted, as in cellars and dairies.

Lavabo. The lavatory for washing hands, generally erected in cloisters of monasteries. A very curious one at Fontenay, surrounding a pillar, is given by Viollet-le-Duc. In general, it is a sort of trough, and in some places has an almry for towels, etc.

Lavatory. A place for washing the person.

Lean-to. A small building whose rafters pitch or lean against another building, or against a wall.

Lectern. The reading-desk in the choir of churches.

Ledge, or **Ledgement.** A projection from a plane, as slips on the side of window and door frames to keep them steady in their places.

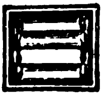
Ledgers. The horizontal pieces fastened to the standard poles or timbers of scaffolding raised around buildings during their erection. Those which rest on the ledgers are called putlogs, and on these the boards are laid.

Lewis. An iron clamp dovetailed into a large stone to lift it by.

Lich-gate. A covered gate at the entrance of a cemetery, under the shelter of which the mourners rested with the corpse, while the procession of the clergy came to meet them. There are several examples in England.

Light. A division or space in a sash for a single pane of glass; also a pane of glass.

Linen Scroll. An ornament formerly used for filling panels, and so called from its resemblance to the convolutions of a folded napkin.



LINEN SCROLL

Lining. Covering for the interior, as casing is covering for the exterior surface of a building; also, such as linings of a door for windows, shutters, and similar work.

Lintel. The horizontal piece which covers the opening of a door or window.

Lip Mold. A molding of the Perpendicular period like a hanging lip.

List, or **Listel.** A little square molding, to crown a larger; also termed a fillet.

Lithograph. A print from a drawing on stone.

Lobby. An open space surrounding a range of chambers, or seats in a theater: a small hall or waiting room.

Lodge. A small house in a park.

Loft. The highest room in a house, particularly if in the roof; also, a gallery raised up in a church to contain the rood, the organ, or singers.

Loggia. An outside gallery or portico above the ground, and contained within the building.

Loop-hole. An opening in the wall of a building, very narrow on the outside, and splayed within, from which arrows or darts might be discharged on an enemy. They are often in the form of a cross, and generally have round holes at the ends.

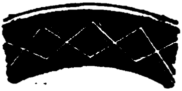
Lombard Architecture. A name given to the round-arched architecture of Italy, introduced by the conquering Goths and Ostrogoths, and which superseded the Romanesque. It reigned between the eighth and twelfth centuries, during the time that the Saxon and Norman styles were in vogue in England, and corresponded with them in its development into the Continental Gothic.

Lotus. A plant of great celebrity amongst the ancients, the leaves and blossoms of which generally form the capitals of Egyptian columns.

Louver. A kind of vertical window, frequently in the peaks of gables, and in the top of towers, and provided with horizontal slats which permit ventilation and exclude rain.

Lozenge Molding. A kind of molding used in Norman architecture, of many different forms, all of which are characterized by lozenge-shaped ornaments.

Lunette. The French term for the circular opening in the groining of the lower stories of towers, through which the bells are drawn up.


LOZENGE MOLDING

LOUVER WINDOW

Machicolation. A parapet or gallery projecting from the upper part of the wall of a house or fortification, supported by brackets or corbels, and perforated in the lower part so that the defenders of the building might throw down darts, stones, and sometimes hot sand, molten lead, etc., upon their assailants below.

Man-hole. A hole through which a man may creep into a drain, cesspool, steam-boiler, etc.

Manor-house. The residence of the suzerain or lord of the manor; in France the central tower or keep of a castle is often called the *manoir*.

Mansard Roof. Curb roof, invented by François Mansard, a distinguished French architect, who died in 1666.

Mansion. A residence of considerable size and pretension.

Mantel. The work over a fireplace in front of a chimney; especially, a shelf, usually ornamented, above the fireplace.

Marquetry. Inlaid work of fine hard pieces of wood of different colors, also of shells, ivory, and the like.

Mausoleum. A magnificent tomb or sumptuous sepulchral monument.

Medallion. Any circular tablet on which are embossed figures or busts.

MACHICOLATION

Mediæval Architecture. The architecture of England, France, Germany, etc., during the Middle Ages, including the Norman and Early Gothic styles. It comprises also the Romanesque, Byzantine and Saracenic, Lombard, and other styles.

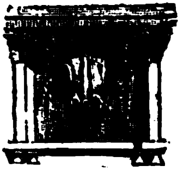
Members. The different parts of a building, the different parts of an entablature, the different moldings of a cornice, etc.

Merlon. That part of a parapet which lies between two embrasures.

Metope. The square recess between the triglyphs in a Doric frieze. It is sometimes occupied by sculptures.

Mezzanine. A low story between two lofty ones. It is called by the French *entresol*, or inter-story.

Mezzo-rilievo. Or mean relief, in comparison with alto-rilievo, or high relief.


METOPE

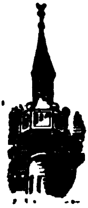
Minaret. Turkish: a circular turret rising by different stages or divisions, each of which has a balcony.

Minster. Probably a corruption of monasterium—the large church attached to any ecclesiastical fraternity. If the latter be presided over by a bishop, it is generally called a Cathedral; if by an abbot, an Abbey; if by a prior, a Priory.

Minute. The sixtieth part of the lower diameter of a column; it is the measure used by architects to determine the proportions of an order.

Miserere. A seat in a stall of a large church made to turn up and afford support to a person in a position between sitting and standing. The under side is generally carved with some ornament, and very often with grotesque figures and caricatures of different persons.

Miter. A molding returned upon itself at right angles is said to miter. In joinery, the ends of any two pieces of wood of corresponding form, cut off at 45°, necessarily abut upon one another so as to form a right angle, and are said to miter.


MINARET

Modillion. So called because of its arrangement in regulated distances; the enriched block or horizontal bracket generally found under the cornice of the Corinthian entablature. Less ornamented, it is sometimes used in the Ionic.

MODILLION

Module. This is a term which has been generally used by architects in determining the relative proportions of the various parts of a columnar ordinance. The semi-diameter of the column at its base is the module, which being divided into thirty parts called minutes, any part of the composition is said to be of so many modules and minutes, or minutes alone, in height, breadth, or projection. The whole diameter is now generally preferred as a module, it being a better rule of proportion than its half.

Monastery. A set of buildings adapted for the reception of any of the various orders of monks, the different parts of which are described in the separate article, *Abbey*.

Monotriglyph. The intercolumniations of the Doric order are determined by the number of triglyphs which intervene, instead of the number of diameters of the column, as in other cases; and this term designates the ordinary intercolumniation of one triglyph.

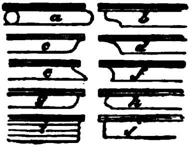
Monument. A name given to a tomb, particularly to those fine structures recessed in the walls of mediæval churches.

Mosaic. Pictorial representations, or ornaments, formed of small pieces of stone, marble, or enamel of various colors. In Roman houses the floors are often entirely of mosaic, the pieces being cubical. The best examples of mosaic work are found in St. Mark's, at Venice.

Mosque. A Mahometan temple, or place of worship.

Molding. When any work is wrought into long regular channels or projections, forming curves or rounds, hollows, etc., it is said to be molded, and each separate member is called a molding. In mediæval architecture the principal moldings are those of the arches, doors, windows, piers, etc. In the Early English style, the moldings, for some time, formed groups set back in squares, and frequently very deeply undercut. The scroll molding is also common.

Small fillets now become very frequent in the keel molding, from its resemblance in section to the bottom of a ship; sometimes, also, it has a peculiar hollow on each side, like two wings. Later in the Decorated style the moldings are more varied in design, though hollows and rounds still prevail. The undercutting is not so deep, fillets abound, ogees are more frequent, and the wave mold, double ogee, or double ressaunt, is often seen. In many places the strings and labels are a round, the lower half of which is cut off by a plain chamfer. The moldings in the later styles in some degree resemble those of the Decorated, flattened and extended; they run more into one another, having fewer fillets, and being, as it were, less grouped. One of the principal features of the change is the substitution of one, or perhaps two (seldom more), very large hollows in the set of moldings. These hollows are neither circular nor elliptical, but obovate, like an egg cut across, so that one half is larger than the other. The brace mold also has a small bead, where the two ogees meet. Another sort of molding, which has been called a lip mold, is common in parapets, bases, and weatherings.



MOLDINGS

a, astragal; *b*, ogee; *c*, cymatium; *d*, cavetto; *e*, scotia, or casement; *f*, apophyges; *g*, ovolo, or quarter round; *h*, torus; *i*, reeding; *j*, band.

Moldings, Ornamented. The Saxon and early Norman moldings do not seem to have been much enriched, but the complete and later styles of Norman are remarkable for a profusion of ornamentation, the most usual of which is what is called the zigzag. This seems to be to Norman architecture what the meander or fret was to the Grecian; but it was probably derived from the Saxons, as it is very frequently found in their pottery. Bezants, quatrefoils, lozenges, crescents, billets, heads of nails, are very common ornaments. Besides these, battlements, cables; large ropes round which smaller ropes are turned, or, as our sailors say, "wormed"; scallops, pellets, chains, a sort of conical barrels, quaint stiff foliages, beaks of birds, heads of fishes, ornaments of almost every conceivable kind, are sculptured in Norman moldings; and they are used in such profusion as has been attempted in no other style. The decorations on Early English moldings are chiefly the dog-tooth, which is one of the great characteristics of this style, though it is to be found in the Transition Norman. It is generally placed in a deep hollow between two projecting moldings, the dark shadow in the hollow contrasting in a very beautiful way with the light in these moldings. In this period and in the next the tympanum over doorways, particularly if they are double doors, is highly ornamented. Those of the Decorated period resemble the former, except that the foliage is more natural and the dog-tooth gives way to the ball-flower. Some of the hollows, also, are ornamented with rosettes set at intervals, which are sometimes connected by a running tendril, as the ball-flowers are frequently. Some very pleasing leaf-like ornaments in the labels of windows are often found in Continental architecture. In the Perpendicular period the moldings are ornamented very frequently by square four-leaved flowers set at intervals, but the two characteristic ornaments of the time are running patterns of vine leaves, tendrils, and grapes in the hollows, which by old writers are called "vignettes in casements," and upright stiff leaves, generally called the Tudor leaf. On the Continent moldings partook much of the same character.

Mullion, Munion. The perpendicular pieces of stone, sometimes like columns, sometimes like slender piers, which divide the bays or lights of windows or screen-work from each other. In all styles, in less important work, the mullions are often simply plain chamfered, and more commonly have a very flat hollow on each side. In larger buildings there is often a bead or boutell on the edge, and often a single very small column with a capital. As tracery grew richer, the windows were divided by a larger order of mullion, between which came a lesser or subordinate set of mullions, which ran into each other. The term is also applied to a wood or iron division between two windows.

Multifoil. A leaf ornament consisting of more than five divisions, applied to foils in windows.

Mutule. The rectangular impending block under the corona of the Doric cornice, from which guttæ or drops depend. Mutule is equivalent to modillion but the latter term is applied more particularly to enriched blocks or brackets, such as those of Ionic and Corinthian entablatures.

Narthex. The long arcaded porch forming the entrance into the Christian basilica. Sometimes there was an inner narthex, or lobby, before entering the church. When this was the case, the former was called exo-narthex, and the latter eso-narthex. In the Byzantine churches this inner narthex forms part of the solid structure of the church, being marked off by a wall or row of columns, whereas in the Latin churches it was usually formed only by a wooden or other temporary screen.

Natural Beds. In stratified rocks, the surface of a stone as it lies in the quarry. If not laid in walls in their natural bed the laminæ separate.

Nave. The central part between the arches of a church, which formerly was separated from a chancel or choir by a screen. It is so called from its fancied resemblance to a ship. In the nave were generally placed the pulpit and font. In continental Europe it often also contains a high altar, but this is of rare occurrence in England.

Necking. The annulet or round, or series of horizontal moldings, which separate the capital of a column from the plain part or shaft.

Newel. In mediæval architecture, the circular ends of a winding staircase which stand over each other, and form a sort of cylindrical column.

Newel Post. The post, plain or ornamented, placed at the first, or lowest step, to receive or start the hand-rail upon.

Niche. A recess sunk in a wall, generally for the reception of a statue. Niches sometimes terminate by a simple label, but more commonly by a canopy, and with a bracket or corbel for the figure, in which case they are often called tabernacles.

Norman Style. Was that species of Romanesque which was practised by the Normans, and which was introduced and fully developed in England after they had established themselves in it. The chief features of this style are plainness and massiveness. The arches, windows, and doorways were semicircular, the pillars were very massive, and often built up of small stones laid like brickwork.

Nosings. The rounded and projecting edges of the treads of a stair, or the edge of a landing.

Obelisk. Lofty pillars of stone, of a rectangular form, diminishing toward the top, and generally ornamented with inscriptions and hieroglyphics among the ancient Egyptians.

Observatory. A building erected on an elevated spot of ground for making astronomical observations.

Octostyle. A portico of eight columns in front.

Offsets. When the face of a wall is not one continued surface, but sets in by horizontal jogs, as the wall grows higher and thinner, the jogs are called offsets.

Ogee. The name applied to a molding, partly a hollow and partly a round, and derived no doubt from its resemblance to an O placed over a G. It is rarely found in Norman work, and is not very common in Early English. It is of frequent use in Decorated work, where it becomes sometimes double, and is called a wave molding; and later still, two waves are connected with a small bead, which is then called a brace molding. In ancient MSS. it is called a Ressaunt.

Orchestra. In ancient theaters, where the chorus used to dance; in modern theaters, where the musicians sit.

Order. A column with its entablature and stylobate is so called. The term is the result of the dogmatic laws deduced from the writings of Vitruvius, and has been exclusively applied to those arrangements which they were thought to warrant.

Oriel Window. Gothic: a projecting angular window, commonly of a trigonal or pentagonal form, and divided by mullions and transoms into different bays and compartments.

Orthography. A geometrical elevation of a building or other object in which it is represented as it actually exists or may exist, and not perspectively, or as it would appear.

Orthostyle. A columnar arrangement in which the columns are placed in a straight line.

Ovolo. Same as *Echinus*.

Pagoda. A name given to temples in India and China.

Palace. The dwelling of a king, prince, or bishop.

Pale. A fence picket, sharpened at the upper end.

Pane. Probably a diminutive of panneau, a term applied to the different pieces of glass in a window; same as *Light*.

Panel. Properly a piece of wood framed within four other pieces of wood, as in the styles and rails of a door, filling up the aperture, but often applied both to the whole square frame and the sinking itself; also to the ranges of sunken compartments in wainscoting, cornices, corbel tables, groined vaults, ceilings, etc.

Pantograph, or **Pentagraph.** An instrument for copying on the same, or an enlarged or reduced scale.

Pantry. An apartment or closet in which bread and other provisions are kept.

Papier-maché. A hard substance made of a pulp from rags or paper mixed with size or glue, and molded into any desired shape. Much used for architectural ornaments.

Parapet. A dwarf wall along the edge of a roof, or round a terrace walk, etc., to prevent persons from falling over, and as a protection to the defenders in case of a siege. Parapets are either plain, embattled, perforated, or paneled. The last two are found in all styles except the Norman. Plain parapets are simply portions of the wall generally overhanging a little, with coping at the top and corbel table below. Embattled parapets are sometimes paneled, but oftener pierced for the discharge of arrows, etc. Perforated parapets are pierced in various devices — as circles, trefoils, quatrefoils, and other designs — so that the light is seen through. Paneled parapets are those ornamented by a series of panels, either oblong or square, and more or less enriched, but are not perforated. These are common in the Decorated and Perpendicular periods.

Pargeting. A species of plastering decorated by impressing patterns on it when wet. These seem generally to have been made by sticking a number of pins in a board in certain lines or curves, and then pressing on the wet plaster in various directions, so as to form geometrical figures. Sometimes these devices are in relief, and in the time of Elizabeth represent figures, birds, foliages, etc. Rough plastering, commonly adopted for the interior surface of chimneys.

Parlor. A room in a house which the family usually occupy for society and conversation, and for receiving visitors. The apartment in a monastery or nunnery where the inmates are permitted to meet and converse with each other, or with visitors and friends from without.

Parochial. Belonging or relating to a parish.

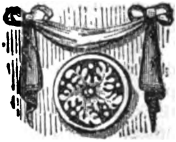
Parquetry, or **Marquetry.** A kind of inlaid floor composed of small pieces of wood either square or triangular, which are capable of forming, by their disposition, various combinations of figures; this description of joinery is very suitable for the floors of libraries, halls, and public apartments.

Party Walls. Partitions of brick or stone between buildings on two adjoining properties.

Patera. A circular ornament resembling a dish, often worked in relief on friezes, etc.

Pavement. Tessellated, a pavement of mosaic work, used by the ancients, made of square pieces of stone, etc., called Tessera.

Pavilion. A turret or small insulated building, and comprised beneath a single roof; also, the projecting part in front of a building which marks the centre, and which sometimes flanks a corner, when it is termed an angular pavilion.


PATERA

Pedestal. The square support of a column, statue, etc.; and the base or lower part of an order of columns: it consists of a plinth for a base, the die, and a talon crowned for a cornice. When the height and width are equal, it is termed a square pedestal; one which supports two columns, a double pedestal; and if it supports a row of columns without any break, it is a continued pedestal.

Pediment. A low triangular crowning, ornamented, in front of a building, and over doors and windows. Pediments are sometimes made in the form of a segment; the space enclosed within the triangle is called the tympanum. Also, the gable ends of classic buildings, where the horizontal cornice is carried across the front, forming a triangle with the end of the roof.

Pendent. A name given to an elongated boss, either molded or foliated, such as hang down from the intersection of groins, especially in fan tracery, or at the end of hammer beams. Sometimes long corbels, under the wall pieces, have been so called. The name has also been given to the large masses depending from enriched ceilings, in the later works of the Pointed style.

Pendent Posts. A name given to those timbers which hang down the side of a wall from the plate in hammer beam trusses, and which receive the hammer braces.

Pendentive. A name given to an arch which cuts off, as it were, the corners of a square building internally, so that the superstructure may become an octagon or a dome. In mediæval architecture these arches, when under a spire in the interior of a tower, are called Squinches.

Pendentive Bracketing, or **Cove Bracketing.** Springing from the rectangular walls of an apartment upward to the ceiling, and forming the horizontal part of the ceiling into a circle or ellipse.

Pentastyle. Having five columns in front.

Pent-roof. A roof with a slope on one side only.

Perch. A measure used in measuring stone work, being 24¾ cu ft and 16⅔ cu ft, according to locality and custom.

Periptery. An edifice or temple surrounded by a peristyle.

Peristyle. A range of columns encircling an edifice, such as that which surrounds the cylindrical drum under the cupola of St. Paul's. The columns of a Greek peripteral temple form a peristyle also, the former being a circular, and the latter a quadrilateral peristyle.

Perpendicular Style. The third and last of the Pointed or Gothic styles; also called the Florid style.

Perspective Drawing. The art of making such a representation of an object upon a plane surface as shall present precisely the same appearance that the object itself would to the eye situated at a particular point.

Pews. A word of uncertain origin, signifying fixed seats in churches, composed of wood framing, mostly with ornamented ends. They seem to have come into general use early in the reign of Henry VI, and to have been rented and "well paid for" before the Reformation. Some bench ends are certainly of a decorated character, and some have been considered to be of the Early English period. They are sometimes of plain oak board, two and a half to three inches thick, chamfered, and with a necking and finial, generally called a poppy head; others are plainly paneled with bold cappings; in others the panels are ornamented with tracery or with the linen pattern, and sometimes with running foliages. The divisions are filled in with thin chamfered boarding, sometimes reaching to the floor, and sometimes only from the capping to the seat.

Picket. A narrow board, often pointed, used in making fences; a pale or paling.

Pier-glass. A mirror hanging between windows.

Piers. The solid parts of a wall between windows, and between voids generally. The term is also applied to masses of brick-work or masonry which are insulated to form supports to gates or to carry arches, posts, girders, etc.

Pilasters. Are flat square columns, attached to a wall, behind a column, or along the side of a building, and projecting from the wall about a fourth or a sixth part of their breadth. The Greeks had a slightly different design for the capitals of pilasters, and made them the same width at top as at bottom, but the Romans gave them the same capitals as the columns, and made them of diminished width at the top, similar to the columns.

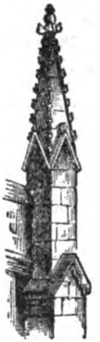
Pile. A large stake or trunk of a tree, driven into soft ground, as at the bottom of a river, or in made land, for the support of a building. (See p. 188.)

Pillar, or **Pyller.** A word generally used to express the round or polygonal piers, or those surrounded with clustered columns, which carry the main arches of a building. Saxon and Early Norman pillars are generally stout cylindrical shafts built up of small stones. Sometimes, however, they are quite square, sometimes with other squares breaking out of them (this is more common in French and German work), sometimes with angular shafts, and sometimes they are plain octagons. In Romanesque Norman work the pillar is sometimes square, with two or more semicircular or half-columns attached. In the Early

English period the pillars become loftier and lighter, and in most important buildings are a series of clustered columns, frequently of marble, placed side by side, sometimes set at intervals round a circular centre, and sometimes almost touching each other. These shafts are often wholly detached from the central pillar, though grouped round it, in which case they are almost always of Purbeck or Bethersden marbles. In Decorated work the shafts on plan are very often placed round a square set anglewise, or a lozenge, the long way down the nave; the centre or core itself is often worked into hollows or other moldings, to show between the shafts, and to form part of the composition. In this and the latter part of the previous style there is generally a fillet on the outer part of the shaft, forming what has been called a keel molding. They are also often, as it were, tied together by bands formed of rings of stone and sometimes of metal. The small pillars at the jambs of doors and windows, and in arcades, and also those slender columns attached to pillars, or standing detached, are generally called shafts.

Pin. A cylindrical piece of wood, iron, or steel, used to hold two or more pieces together, by passing through a hole in each of them, as in a mortise and tenon joint, or a pin joint of a truss.

Pinnacle. An ornament originally forming the cap or crown of a buttress or small turret, but afterwards used on parapets at the corners of towers and in many other situations. It was a weight to counteract the thrust of the groining of roofs, particularly where there were flying buttresses; it stopped the tendency to slip of the stone copings of the gables, and counterpoised the thrust of spires; it formed the piers to steady the elegant perforated parapets of later periods; and in France, especially, served to counterbalance the weight of overhanging corbel tables, huge gargoyles, etc. In the Early Engish period the smaller buttresses frequently finished with gablets, and the more important with pinnacles supported with clustered shafts. At this period the pinnacles were often supported on these shafts alone, and were open below; and in larger work in this and the subsequent periods they frequently form niches and contain statues. In France, pinnacles, like spires, seem to have been in use earlier than in England. There are small pinnacles at the angles of the tower in the Abbey of Saintes. At Roullet there are pinnacles in a similar position, each composed of four small shafts, with caps and bases surmounted with small pyramidal spires. In all these examples the towers have semicircular headed windows.


PINNACLE

Pitch of a Roof. The proportion obtained by dividing the height by the span; thus, we speak of its being one-half, one-third, one-fourth. When the length of the rafters is equal to the breadth of the building it is denominated Gothic.

Pitching-piece. A horizontal timber, with one of its ends wedged into the wall at the top of a flight of stairs, to support the upper end of the rough strings.

Place. An open piece of ground surrounded by buildings, generally decorated with a statue, column, or other ornament.

Plan. A horizontal geometrical section of the walls of a building; or indications, on a horizontal plane, of the relative positions of the walls and partitions, with the various openings, such as windows and doors, recesses and projections, chimneys and chimney-breasts, columns, pilasters, etc. This term is often incorrectly used in the sense of Design.

Planceer. Is sometimes used in the same sense as soffit, but is more correctly applied to the soffit of the corona in a cornice.

Plastering. A mixture of lime, hair, and sand, to cover lath-work between timbers or rough walling, used from the earliest times, and very common in Roman work. In the Middle Ages, too, it was used not only in private, but in public constructions. On the inside face of old rubble walls it was not only used for purposes of cleanliness, rough work holding dirt and dust, but as a ground for distemper painting (tempera, or, as it is often improperly called, fresco), a species of ornament often used in the Middle Ages. At St. Albans Abbey, England, the Norman work is plastered, and covered with lines imitating the joints of stone. The same thing is found in English Perpendicular work. On the outside of rubble walls, and often of wood framing, it was used as roughcast; when ornamented in patterns outside, it is called pargeting.

Plate. The piece of timber in a building which supports the end of the rafters.

Plinth. The square block at the base of a column or pedestal. In a wall, the term plinth is applied to the projecting base or water table, generally at the level of the first floor.

Plumb. Perpendicular; that is, standing according to a plumb line, as, the post of a house or wall is plumb.

Plumbing. The lead and iron pipes and other apparatus employed in conveying water, and for toilet purposes in a building; originally the art of casting and working in lead.

Ply. Used to denote the number of thicknesses of roofing paper, as three ply, four ply, etc.

Podium. A continued pedestal; a projection from a wall, forming a kind of gallery.

Polytriglyph. An intercolumniation in the Doric order of more than two triglyphs.

Poppy Heads. Probably from the French *poupée:* the finials or other ornaments which terminate the tops of bench ends, either to pews or stalls. They are sometimes small human heads, sometimes richly carved images, knots of foliage, or finials, and sometimes fleurs-de-lis simply cut out of the thickness of the bench end and chamfered.

POPPY HEAD

Porch. A covered erection forming a shelter to the entrance door of a large building. The earliest known are the long arcaded porches in front of the early Christian basilicas, called Narthex. In later times they assume two forms—one, the projecting erection covering the entrance at the west front of cathedrals, and divided into three or more doorways, etc.; and the other, a kind of covered chambers open at the ends, and having small windows at the sides as a protection from rain.

Portal. A name given to the deeply recessed and richly decorated entrance doors to the cathedrals in Continental Europe.

Portcullis. A strong-framed grating of oak, the lower points shod with iron, and sometimes entirely made of metal, hung so as to slide up and down in grooves with counterbalances, and intended to protect the gateways of castles, etc.

Portico. An open space before the door or other entrance to any building, fronted with columns. A portico is distinguished as prostyle or *in antis* according as it projects from or recedes within the building, and is further designated by the number of columns its front may consist of.

Post. Square timbers set on end. The term is especially applied to those which support the corners of a building, and are framed into bressummers or crossbeams under the walls.

Posticum. A portico behind a temple.

Presbytery. A word applied to various parts of large churches in a very ambiguous way. Some consider it to be the choir itself; others, what is now named the sacrarium. Traditionally, however, it seems to be applied to the vacant space between the back of the high altar and the entrance to the lady-chapel, as at Lincoln and Chichester; in other words, the back- or retro-choir.

Priming. The laying on of the first shade of color, in oil paint, and generally consisting mostly of oil, to protect and fill the wood.

Priory. A monastic establishment, generally in connection with an abbey, and presided over by a prior, who was a subordinate to the abbot, and held much the same relation to that dignitary as a dean does to a bishop.

Profile. The outline; the contour of a part, or the parts composing an order, as of a base, cornice, etc.; also, the perpendicular section. It is in the just proportion of their profiles that the chief beauties of the different orders of architecture depend. The ancients were most careful of the profiles of their moldings.

Proscenium. The front part of the stage of ancient theaters, on which the actors performed.

Prostyle. A portico in which the columns project from the building to which it is attached.

Protractor. A mathematical instrument for laying down and measuring angles on paper, used in drawing or plotting.

Pseudo-dipteral. False double-winged. When the inner row of columns of a dipteral arrangement is omitted and the space from the wall of the building to the columns is preserved, it is pseudo-dipteral.

Puddle. To settle loose dirt by turning on water, so as to render it firm and solid.

Pugging. A coarse kind of mortar laid on the boarding, between floor joists, to prevent the passage of sound; also called deafening.

Pulpit. A raised platform with enclosed front, whence sermons, homilies, etc., were delivered. Pulpits were probably derived in their modern form from the ambones in the early Christian church. There are many old pulpits of stone, though the majority are of wood. Those in the churches are generally hexagonal or octagonal; and some stand on stone bases, and others on slender wooden stems, like columns. The designs vary according to the periods in which they were erected, having paneling, tracery, cuspings, crockets, and other ornaments then in use. Some are extremely rich, and ornamented with color and gilding. A few also have fine canopies or sounding boards. Their usual place is in the nave, mostly on the north side, against the second pier from the chancel arch. Pulpits for addressing the people in the open air were common in the Mediæval period, and stood near a road or cross. Thus, there was one at Spitalfields, and one at St. Paul's, London. External pulpits still remain at Magdalen College, Oxford, and at Shrewsbury, England.

Purlins. Those pieces of timbers which support the rafters to prevent them from sinking.

Putlog. Horizontal pieces for supporting the floor of a scaffold, one end being inserted into putlog holes, left for that purpose in the masonry.

Putty in Plastering. Lump lime slacked with water to the consistency of cream, and then left to harden by evaporation till it becomes like soft putty. It is then mixed with plaster of Paris, or sand, for the finishing coat.

Puzzolana. A grayish earth used for building under water.

Pyramid. A solid, having one of its sides, called a base, a plane figure, and the other sides triangles, these points joining in one point at the top, called the vertex. Pyramids are called triangular, square, etc., according to the form of their bases.

Pyx. In Roman Catholic churches, the box in which the host, or consecrated wafer, is kept.

Quadrangle. A square or quadrangular court surrounded by buildings, as was often done formerly in monasteries, colleges, etc.

Quarry. A pane of glass cut in a diamond or lozenge form.

Quarry-face. Ashlar as it comes from the quarry, squared off for the joints only, with split face. In distinction from Rock-face, in that the latter may be weather-worn, while Quarry-face should be fresh split. The terms are often used indiscriminately.

Quatrefoil. Any small panel or perforation in the form of a four-leaved flower. Sometimes used alone, sometimes in circles and over the aisle windows, but more frequently in square panels. They are generally cusped, and the cusps are often feathered.

Queen Truss. A truss framed with two vertical tie-posts, in distinction from the king-post, which has but one. The upright ties are called Queen-posts.

Quirk Moldings. The convex part of Grecian moldings when they recede at the top, forming a reëntrant angle, with the surface which covers the moldings.

Quoins. Large squared stones at the angles of buildings, buttresses, etc., generally used to stop the rubble or rough stone work, and that the angles may be true and stronger. Saxon quoin stones are said to have been composed of one long and one short stone alternately. Early quoins are generally roughly axed; in later times they had a draught tooled by the chisel round the outside edges, and later still were worked fine from the saw.

Rafters. The joist to which the roof boarding is nailed. *Principal rafters* are the upper timbers in a truss, having the same inclination as the common rafters.

Rail. A piece of timber or metal extending from one post to another, as in fences, balustrades, staircases, etc. In framing and paneling, the horizontal pieces are called rails, and the perpendicular, *stiles*.

Raking. Moldings whose arrises are inclined to the horizon.

Ramp. A concavity on the upper side of hand railings formed over risers, made by a sudden rise of the steps above. Any concave bend or slope in the cap or upper member of any piece of ascending or descending workmanship.

Rampant. A term applied to an arch whose abutments spring from an inclined plane.

Random Work. A term used by stone-masons for stones fitted together at random without any attempt at laying them in courses. *Random Coursed Work* is a like term applied to work coursed in horizontal beds, but the stones are of any height, and fitted to one another.

Range Work. Ashlar laid in horizontal courses; same as coursed ashlar.

Rebate. A groove on the edges of a board.

Recess. A depth of some inches in the thickness of a wall, as a niche, etc.

Refectory. The hall of a monastery, convent, etc., where the religious took their chief meals together. It much resembled the great halls of mansions, castles, etc., except that there frequently was a sort of ambo, approached by steps, from which to read the Legenda Sanctorum, etc., during meals.

Reglet. A flat, narrow molding, used to separate from each other the parts or members of compartments and panels, to form frets, knots, etc.

Renaissance (a new birth). A name given to the revival of Roman architecture which sprang into existence in Italy as early as the beginning of the fifteenth century, and reached its zenith in that country at the close of the century. There are several divisions of this style as developed in different localities; viz.,

The Florentine Renaissance, of which the Pitti Palace, by Brunelleschi, is one of the best examples.

The Venetian Renaissance, characterized by its elegance and richness.

The Roman Renaissance, which originated in Rome, under the architects known as Bronte, Vignola, and Michael Angelo. Of this style the Farnese Palace, St. Peter's, and the modern Capitol at Rome are the best examples.

The French Renaissance, introduced into France in the latter part of the fifteenth century, by Italian architects, where it flourished until the middle of the seventeenth century. The Renaissance style was introduced into Germany about the middle of the sixteenth century, and into England about the same time by John of Padua, architect to Henry VIII. This style in England is generally known under the name of Elizabethan.

Rendering. In drawing, finishing a perspective drawing in ink or color, to bring out the spirit and effect of the design. The first coat of plaster on brick or stone work.

Reredos, Dorsal, or Dossel. The screen or other ornamental work at the back of an altar. In some large English cathedrals, as Winchester, Durham, St. Albans, etc., this is a mass of splendid tabernacle work, reaching nearly to the groining. In smaller churches there are sometimes ranges of arcades or panelings behind the altars; but, in general, the walls at the back and sides of them were of plain masonry, and adorned with hangings or paraments. In the large churches of Continental Europe the high altar usually stands under a sort of canopy or ciborium, and the sacrarium is hung round at the back and sides with curtains on movable rods.

Reticulated Work. That in which the courses are arranged in a form like the meshes of a net. The stones or bricks are square and placed lozenge-wise.

Return. The continuation of a molding, projection, etc., in an opposite direction.

Return Head. One that appears both on the face and edge of a work.

Reveal. The two vertical sides of an aperture, between the front of a wall and the window or door frame.

Rib. A molding or projecting piece upon the interior of a vault, or used to form tracery and the like. The earliest groining had no ribs. In early Norman times plain flat arches crossed each other, forming ogive ribs. These by degrees became narrower, had greater projection, and were chamfered. In later Norman work the ribs were often formed of a large roll placed upon the flat band, and then of two rolls side by side with a smaller roll or a fillet between them much like the lower member. Sometimes they are enriched with zigzags and other Norman decorations, and about this time bosses became of very general use. As styles progressed, the moldings were more undercut, richer, and more elaborate, and had the dog-tooth or ball-flower or other characteristic ornament in the hollows. In all instances the moldings are of similar contours to those of arches, etc., of the respective periods. Later, wooden roofs are often formed into cants or polygonal barrel vaults, and in these the ribs are generally a cluster of rounds, and form square or stellar panels, with carved bosses or shields at the intersections.

Ridge. The top of a roof which rises to an acute angle.

Ridge-pole. The highest horizontal timber in a roof, extending from top to top of the several pairs of rafters of the trusses, for supporting the heads of the jack rafters.

Rilievo, or **Relief.** The projection of an architectural ornament.

Rise. The distance through which anything rises, as the rise of a stair, or inclined plane.

Riser. The vertical board under the tread in stairs.

Rococo Style. A name given to that variety of the Renaissance which was in vogue during the seventeenth and the latter part of the sixteenth century.

Romanesque Style. The term Romanesque embraces all those styles of architecture which prevailed between the destruction of the Roman Empire and the beginning of Gothic architecture. In it are included the Early Roman Christian architecture, Byzantine, Mahometan, and the later Romanesque architecture proper, which was developed in Italy, France, England, and Germany. This later Romanesque, which was quite different from the preceding, came into vogue during the tenth century, and reached its height during the twelfth century, and in the thirteenth century gave way to the Pointed or Gothic style. In England, Romanesque architecture is known under the name of the Saxon, Norman, and Lombard styles, according to the different political periods.

Rood. A name applied to a crucifix, particularly to those which were placed in the rood-loft or chancel screens. These generally had not only the image of the crucified Saviour, but also those of St. John and the Virgin Mary standing one on each side. Sometimes other saints and angels are by them, and the top of the screen is set with candlesticks or other decoration.

Rood-loft, Rood-screen, Rood-beam, Jube Gallery, etc. The arrangement to carry the crucifix or rood, and to screen off the chancel from the rest of the church during the breviary services, and as a place whence to read certain parts of those services. Sometimes the crucifix is carried simply on a strong transverse beam, with or without a low screen, with folding-doors below but forming no part of such support. In European churches the general construction of wooden screens is close paneling beneath, about 3 feet to 3 feet 6 inches high, on which stands screen work composed of slender turned balusters or regular wooden mullions, supporting tracery more or less rich, with cornices, cresting, etc., and often painted in brilliant colors and gilded. These not only enclose the chancels, but also chapels, chantries, and sometimes even tombs. In English mansions, and some private houses, the great halls were screened off by a low passage at the end opposite to the dais, over which was a gallery for the use of minstrels or spectators. These screens were sometimes close and sometimes glazed.

Rood-tower. A name given by some writers to the central tower, or that over the intersection of the nave and chancel with the transepts.

Roof. The covering or upper part of any building.

Roofing. The material put on a roof to make it water-tight.

Rose Window. A name given to a circular window with radiating tracery; called also wheel window.

Rostrum. An elevated platform from which a speaker addresses an audience.

Rotunda. A building which is round both within and without. A circular room under a dome in large buildings is also called the rotunda.

Roughcast. A sort of external plastering in which small sharp stones are mixed, and which, when wet, is forcibly thrown or cast from a trowel against the wall, to which it forms a coating of pleasing appearance. Roughcast work has been used in Europe for several centuries, where it was much used in timber houses, and when well executed the work is sound and durable. The mortar for roughcast work should always have cement mixed with it.

Rubble Work. Masonry of rough, undressed stones. When only the roughest irregularities are knocked off, it is called scabbled rubble, and when the stones in each course are rudely dressed to nearly a uniform height, ranged rubble.

Rudenture. The figure of a rope or staff, which is frequently used to fill up the flutings of columns, the convexity of which contrasts with the concavity of the flutings, and serves to strengthen the edges. Sometimes, instead of a convex shape, the flutings are filled with a flat surface; sometimes they are ornamentally carved, and sometimes on pilasters, etc. Rudentures are used in relief without flutings, as their use is to give greater solidity to the lower part of the shaft, and secure the edges. They are generally only used in columns which rise from the ground and are not to reach above one-third of the height of the shaft.

Rustic or **Rock Work.** A mode of building in imitation of nature. This term is applied to those courses of stone work the face of which is jagged or picked so as to present a rough surface. That work is also called rustic in which the horizontal and vertical channels are cut in the joinings of stones, so that when placed together an angular channel is formed at each joint. *Frosted rustic work* has the margins of the stones reduced to a plane parallel to the plane of the wall, the intermediate parts having an irregular surface. *Vermiculated rustic work* has these intermediate parts so worked as to have the appearance of having been eaten by worms. *Rustic chamfered work,* in which the face of the stones is smooth, and parallel to the face of the wall, and the angles beveled to an angle of one hundred and thirty-five degrees with the face so that two stones coming together on the wall, the beveling will form an internal right angle.

Sacristy. A small chamber attached to churches, where the chalices, vestments, books, etc., were kept by the officer called the sacristan. In the early Christian basilicas there were two semicircular recesses or apsides, one on each side of the altar. One of these served as a sacristy, and the other as the bibliotheca or library. Some have supposed the sacristy to have been the place where the vestments were kept, and the vestry that where the priests put them on; but we find from Durandus that the sacrarium was used for both these purposes. Sometimes the place where the altar stands enclosed by the rails has been called sacrarium.

Saddle Bars. Narrow horizontal iron bars passing from mullion to mullion, and often through the whole window, from side to side, to steady the stone work, and to form stays, to which the lead work is secured. When the bays of the windows are wide, the lead lights are further strengthened by upright bars passing through eyes forged on the saddle bars, and called stanchions. Whe saddle bars pass right through the mullions in one piece, and are secured to the jambs, they have sometimes been called stay bars.

Sagging. The bending of a body in the middle by its own weight, or the load upon it.

Salient. A projection.

Salon. A spacious and elegant apartment for the reception of company, or for state purposes, or for the reception of paintings, and usually extending through two stories of the house. It may be square, oblong, polygonal, or circular.

Sanctuary. That part of a church where the altar is placed; also, the most sacred or retired part of a temple. A place for divine worship; a church.

Sanctus Bell-cot, or **Turret.** A turret or enclosure to hold the small bell sounded at various parts of the service, particularly where the words "Sanctus," etc., are read. This differs but little from the common bell-cot, except that it is generally on the top of the arch dividing the nave from the chancel. Sometimes, however, the bell seems to have been placed in a cot outside the wall. In England sanctus bells have also been placed over the gables of porches. In Continental Europe they run up into a sort of small slender spire, called *flèche* in France, and *guglio* in Italy.

Saracenic Architecture. That Eastern style employed by the Saracens, and which distributed itself over the world with the religion of Mahomet. It is a modification and combination of the various styles of the countries which they conquered.

Sarcophagus. A tomb or coffin made of stone, and intended to contain the body.

Sash. The framework which holds the glass in a window.

Scabble. To dress off the rougher projections of stones for rubble masonry with a stone axe or scabbling hammer.

Scagliola. An imitation of colored marbles in plaster work, made by a combination of gypsum, glue, isinglass, and coloring matter, and finished with a high polish, invented between 1600 and 1649.

Scantling. The dimensions of a piece of timber in breadth and thickness; also, studding for a partition, when under five inches square.

Scarfing. The joining and bolting of two pieces of timber together transversely, so that the two appear as one.

Sconce. A fixed hanging or projecting candlestick.

Scotia. A concave molding, most commonly used in bases, which projects a deep shadow on itself, and is thereby a most effective molding under the eye, as in a base. It is like a reversed ovolo, or, rather, what the mold of an ovolo would present.

Scratch Coat. The first coat of plaster, which is scratched to afford a bond for the second coat.

Screeds. Long narrow strips of plaster put on horizontally along a wall, and carefully faced out of wind,. to serve as guides for plastering the wide intervals between them.

Screen. Any construction subdividing one part of a building from another, as a choir, chantry, chapel, etc. The earliest screens are the low marble podia shutting off the chorus cantantium in the Roman basilicas, and the perforated cancelli enclosing the bema, altar, and seats of the bishops and presbyters. The chief screens in a church are those which enclose the choir or the place where the breviary services are recited. In Continental Europe this is done not only by doors and screen work, but also, when these are of open work, by curtains, the laity having no part in these services. In England screens were of two kinds: one, of open wood-work, generally called rood-screens or jubes, and which the French call *grilles*, *clôtures du chœur;* the other, massive enclosures of stone work enriched with niches, tabernacles, canopies, pinnacles, statues, crestings, etc., as at Canterbury, York, Gloucester, and many other places.

Scribing. Fitting wood-work to an irregular surface.

Section. A drawing showing the internal heights of the various parts of a building. It supposes the building to be cut through entirely, so as to exhibit the walls, the heights of the internal doors and other apertures, the heights of the stories, thicknesses of the floors, etc. It is one of the species of drawings necessary to the exhibition of a Design.

Sedilia. Seats used by the celebrants during the pauses in the mass. They are generally three in number — for the priest, deacon, and sub-deacon — and are in England almost always a species of niches cut into the south walls of churches, separated by shafts or by a species of mullions, and crowned with canopies, pinnacles, and other enrichments more or less elaborate. The piscina and ambry sometimes are attached to them. In Continental Europe the sedilia are often movable seats; a single stone seat has rarely been found.

Set-off. The horizontal line shown where a wall is reduced in thickness, and, consequently, the part of the thicker portion appears projecting before the thinner. In plinths this is generally simply chamfered. In other parts of work the set-off is generally concealed by a projecting string. Where, as in parapets, the upper part projects before the lower, the break is generally hid by a corbel table. The portions of buttress caps which recede one behind another are also called set-offs.

Shaft. In Classical architecture that part of a column between the necking and the apophyge at the top of the base. In later times the term is applied to slender columns either standing alone or in connection with pillars, buttresses, jambs, vaulting, etc.

Shed Roof, or **Lean-to.** A roof with only one set of rafters, falling from a higher to a lower wall, like an aisle roof.

Shore. A piece of timber placed in an oblique direction to support a building or wall temporarily while it is being repaired or altered.

Shrine. A sort of ark or chest to hold relics. It is sometimes merely a small box, generally with a raised top like a roof; sometimes an actual model of churches; sometimes a large construction, like that of Edward the Confessor at Westminster, of St. Genevieve at Paris, etc. Many are covered with jewels in the richest way; that of San Carlo Borromeo, at Milan, is of beaten silver.

Sills. Are the timbers on the ground which support the posts and superstructure of a timber building. The term is most frequently applied to those pieces of timber or stone at the bottom of doors or windows.

Skewback. The inclined stone from which an arch springs.

Skirtings. The narrow boards which form a plinth around the margin of a floor, now generally called the base.

Sleeper. A piece of timber laid on the ground to receive floor joists.

Soffit. The lower horizontal face of anything as, for example, of an entablature resting on and lying open between the columns, or the under face of an ar where its thickness is seen.

Sound Board. The covering of a pulpit to deflect the sound into a church.

Spall. Bad or broken brick; stone chips.

Span. The distance between the supports of a beam, girder, arch, truss, etc.

Spandrel, or **Spandril.** The space between any arch or curved brace and the level label, beams, etc., over the same. The spandrels over doorways in Perpendicular works are generally richly decorated.

Specification. Architect's. The designation of the kind, quality, and quantity of work and material to go in a building, in conjunction with the working drawings.

Spire. A sharply pointed pyramid or large pinnacle, generally octagonal in England, and forming a finish to the tops of towers. Timber spires are very common in England. Some are covered with lead in flat sheets, others with the same metal in narrow strips laid diagonally. Very many are covered with shingles. In Continental Europe there are some elegant examples of spires of open timber work covered with lead.

Splayed. The jamb of a door, or anything else of which one side makes an oblique angle with the other.

Springer. The stone from which an arch springs; in some cases this is a capital, or impost; in other cases the moldings continue down the pier. The lowest stone of the gable is sometimes called a springer.

Squinches. Small arches or corbeled set-offs running diagonally and, as it were, cutting off the corners of the interior of towers, to bring them from the square to the octagon, etc., to carry the spire.

Squint. An oblique opening in the wall of a church; especially, in mediæval architecture, an opening so placed as to afford a view of the high altar from the transept or aisles.

Staging. A structure of posts and boards for supporting workmen and material in building.

Stall. A fixed seat in the choir for the use of the clergy. In early Christian times the thronus cathedra, or seat of the bishop, was in the center of the apsis or bema behind the altar, and against the wall; those of the presbyters also were against the wall, branching off from side to side around the semicircle. In later times the stalls occupied both sides of the choir, return seats being placed at the ends for the prior, dean, precentor, chancellor, or other officers. In general, in cathedrals, each stall is surmounted by tabernacle work, and rich canopies, generally of oak.

Stanchion. A word derived from the French *étançon*, a wooden post, applied to the upright iron bars which pass through the eyes of the saddle bars or horizontal irons to steady the lead lights. The French call the latter *traverses*, the stanchions *montants*, and the whole arrangement *armature*. Stanchions frequently finish with ornamental heads forged out of the iron.

Steeple. A general name for the whole arrangement of tower, belfry, spire, etc.

Stereobate. A basement, distinguished from the nearly equivalent term stylobate by the absence of columns.

Stile. The upright piece in framing or paneling.

Stilted. Anything raised above its usual level. An arch is stilted when its centre is raised above the line from which the arch appears to spring.

Stoop. A seat before the door; often a porch with a balustrade and seats on the sides.

Stoup. A basin for holy water at the entrance of Roman Catholic churches, into which all who enter dip their fingers and cross themselves.

Straight Arch. A form of arch in which the intrados is straight, but with its joints radiating as in a common arch.

Strap. An iron plate for connecting two or more timbers, to which it is screwed by bolts. It generally passes around one of the timbers.

Stretcher. A brick or block of masonry laid lengthwise of a wall.

String Board. A board placed next to the well-hole in wooden stairs, terminating the ends of the steps. The string piece is the piece of board put under the treads and risers for a support, and forming the support of the stair.

String-course. A narrow, vertically faced and slightly projecting course in an elevation. If window-sills are made continuous, they form a string-course; but if this course is made thicker or deeper than ordinary window-sills, or covers a set-off in the wall, it becomes a blocking-course. Also, horizontal moldings running under windows, separating the walls from the plain part of the parapets, dividing towers into stories or stages, etc. Their section is much the same as the labels of the respective periods; in fact, these last, after passing round the windows, frequently run on horizontally and form strings. Like labels, they are often decorated with foliages, ball-flowers, etc.

Studs, or Studding. The small timbers used in partitions and outside wooden walls, to which the laths and boards are nailed.

Style. The term style in architecture has obtained a conventional meaning beyond its simpler one, which applies only to columns and columnar arrangements. It is now used to signify the differences in the moldings, general outlines, ornaments, and other details which exist between the works of various nations, and also those differences which are found to exist between the works of any nation at different times.

Stylobate. A basement to columns. Stylobate is synonymous with pedestal, but is applied to a continued and unbroken substructure or basement to columns, while the latter term is confined to insulated supports. The Greek temples generally had three or more steps all around the temple, the base of the column resting on the top step; this was the stylobate.

Subsellium. A name sometimes given to the seat in the stalls of churches; same as miserere.

Summer. A girder or main-beam of a floor; if supported on two-story posts and open below, it is called a Brace-summer.

Surbase. A cornice or series of moldings on the top of the base of a pedestal, podium, etc.; a molding above the base.

Surface. To make plane and smooth.

Systyle. An intercolumniation to which two diameters are assigned.

Tabernacle. A species of niche or recess in which an image may be placed. They are generally highly ornamented and often surmounted with crocketed gables. The word tabernacle is alsc often used to denote the receptacle for relics, which was often made in the form of a small house or church.

Tabernacle Work. The rich ornamental tracery forming the canopy, etc., to a tabernacle, is called tabernacle work; it is common in the stalls and screens of cathedrals, and in them is generally open or pierced through.

Tail Trimmer. A trimmer next to the wall, into which the ends of joists are fastened to avoid flues.

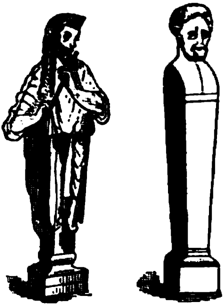
Tamp. To pound the earth down around a wall after it has been thrown in.

Tapestry. A kind of woven hangings of wool or silk, ornamented with figures, and used formerly to cover and adorn the walls of rooms. They were often of the most costly materials and beautifully embroidered.

Temple. An edifice destined, in the earliest times, for the public exercise of religious worship.

Templet, or Template. A mold used by masons for cutting or setting work. A short piece of timber sometimes laid under a girder.

Terminal. Figures of which the upper parts only, or perhaps the head and shoulders alone, are carved, the rest running into a parallelopiped, and sometimes into a diminishing pedestal, with feet indicated below, or even without them, are called terminal figures.


ANCIENT TERMINI

Terra-cotta. Baked clay of a fine quality. Much used for bas-reliefs for adorning the friezes of temples. In modern times employed for architectural ornaments, statues, vases, etc.

Tessellated Pavements. Those formed of tesseræ, or, as some write it, tessellæ, or small cubes from half an inch to an inch square, like dice, of pottery, stone, marble, enamel, etc.

Tetrastyle. A portico of four columns in front.

Tholobate. That on which a dome or cupola rests. This is a term not in general use, but it is not the less of useful application. What is generally termed the attic above the peristyle and under the cupola of St. Paul's, London, would be correctly designated the tholobate. A tholobate of a different description, and one to which no other name can well be applied, is the circular substructure to the cupola of the University College, London.

Throat. A channel or groove made on the under-side of a string-course, coping, etc., to prevent water from running inward toward the walls.

Tie. A timber, rod, chain, etc., binding two bodies together, which have a tendency to separate or diverge from each other. The *tie-beam* connects the bottom of a pair of principal rafters, and prevents them from bursting out the wall.

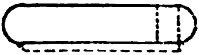
Tiles. Flat pieces of clay burned in kilns, to cover roofs in place of slates or lead. Also, flat pieces of burned clay, either plain or ornamented, glazed or unglazed, used for floors, wainscoting, and about fireplaces, etc. Small square pieces of marble are also called tile.

Tongue. The part of a board left projecting, to be inserted into a groove.

Tooth Ornament. One of the peculiar marks of the Early English period of Gothic architecture, generally inserted in the hollow moldings of doorways, windows, etc.

Torso. A mutilated statue of which nothing remains but the trunk. Columns with twisted shafts have also this term. Of this kind there are several varieties.

Torus. A protuberance or swelling, a molding whose form is convex, and generally nearly approaches a semicircle. It is most frequently used in bases, and is generally the lowest molding in a base.


TORUS

Tower. An elevated building originally designed for purposes of defence. Those buildings are of the remotest antiquity, and are, indeed, mentioned in the earliest Scriptures. In mediæval times they were generally attached to churches, to cemeteries, to castles, or used as bell-towers in public places of large cities. In churches, the towers of the Saxon period were generally square. Norman towers were also generally square. Many were entirely without buttresses; others had broad, flat, shallow projections which served for this purpose. The lower windows were very narrow, with extremely wide splays inside, probably intended to be defended by archers. The upper windows, like those of the preceding style, were generally separated into two lights, but by a shaft or short column, and not by a baluster. Early English towers were generally taller, and of more elegant proportions. They almost always had large projecting buttresses, and frequently stone staircases. The lower windows, as in the former style, were frequently mere arrow-slits; the upper were in couplets or triplets, and sometimes the tower top had an arcade all around. The spires were generally broach spires; but sometimes the tower tops finished with corbel courses and plain parapets, and (rarely) with pinnacles. There are a few Early English towers which break into the octagon from the square toward the top, and still fewer which finish with two gables. Both these methods of termination, however, are common in Continental Europe. At Vendôme, Chartres, and Senlis the towers have octagonal upper stages surrounded with pinnacles, from which elegant spires arise. In the North of Italy, and in Rome, they are generally tall square shafts in four to six stages, without buttresses, with couplets or triplets of semicircular windows in each stage, generally crenellated at top, and covered with a low pyramidal roof. The well-known leaning tower at Pisa is cylindrical, in five stories of arcaded colonnades. In Ireland there are in some of the churchyards very curious round towers.

Tracery. The ornamental filling in of the heads of windows, panels, circular windows, etc., which has given such characteristic beauty to the architecture of the fourteenth century. Like almost everything connected with mediæval architecture, this elegant and sometimes fairy-like decoration seems to have sprung from the smallest beginnings. The circular-headed window of the Normans gradually gave way to the narrow-pointed lancets of the Early English period, and, as less light was afforded by the latter system than by the former, it was necessary to have a greater number of windows; and it was found convenient to group them together in couplets, triplets, etc. When these couplets were assembled under one label, a sort of vacant space or spandrel was formed over the lancets and under the label. To relieve this, the first attempts were simply to perforate this flat spandrel, first by a simple lozenge-shaped or circular opening, and afterward by a quatrefoil. By piercing the whole of the vacant spaces in the window head, carrying moldings around the tracery, and adding cusps to it, the formation of tracery was complete, and its earliest result was the beautiful geometrical work such as is found at Westminster Abbey.

Transept. That portion of a church which passes transversely between the nave and choir at right angles, and so forms a cross on the plan.

Transom. The horizontal construction which divides a window into heights or stages. Transoms are sometimes simple pieces of mullions placed transversely as cross-bars, and in later times are richly decorated with cuspings, etc.

Traverse. To plane in a direction across the grain of the wood, as to traverse a floor by planing across the boards.

Tread. The horizontal part of a step of a stair.

Trefoil. A cusping the outline of which is derived from a three-leaved flower or leaf, as the quatrefoil and cinque-foil are from those with four and five.

Trellis. Lattice-work of metal or wood for vines to run on.

Trestle. A movable frame or support for anything; when made of a cross piece with four legs it is called by carpenters a horse.

Triforium. The arcaded story between the lower range of piers and arches and the clere-story. The name has been supposed to be derived from *tres* and *fores* — three doors, or openings — that being a frequent number of arches in each bay.

Triglyph. The vertically channeled tablets of the Doric frieze are called triglyphs, because of the three angular channels in them — two perfect and one divided — the two chamfered angles or hemiglyphs being reckoned as one. The square sunk spaces between the triglyphs on a frieze are called metopes.

Trim. Of a door, sometimes used to denote the locks, knobs, and hinges.

Trimmer. The beam or floor joist into which a header is framed.

Trimmer Arch. An arch built in front of a fireplace, in the thickness of the floor, between two trimmers. The bottom of the arch starting from the chimney and the top pressing against the header.

Tuck-pointing. Marking the joints of brickwork with a narrow parallel ridge of fine putty.

Tudor Style. The architecture which prevailed in England during the reign of the Tudors; its period is generally restricted to the end of the reign of Henry VIII.

Turret. A small tower, especially at the angles of larger buildings, sometimes overhanging and built on corbels, and sometimes rising from the ground.

Tuscan Order. The plainest of the five orders of Classic architecture.

Tympanum. The triangular recessed space enclosed by the cornice which bounds a pediment. The Greeks often placed sculptures representing subjects connected with the purposes of the edifice in the tympana of temples, as at the Parthenon and Ægina.

Under-croft. A vaulted chamber under ground.

Upset. To thicken, and shorten as by hammering a heated bar of iron on the end.

Vagina. The upper part of the shaft of a terminus, from which the bust or figure seems to rise.

Valley. The internal angle formed by two inclined sides of a roof.

Valley Rafters. Those which are disposed in the internal angle of a roof to form the valleys.

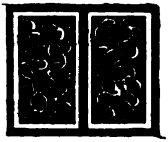
Vane. The weathercock on a steeple. In early times it seems to have been of various forms, as dragons, etc.; but in the Tudor period the favorite design was a beast or bird sitting on a slender pedestal, and carrying an upright rod, on which a thin plate of metal is hung like a flag, ornamented in various ways.

Vault. An arched ceiling or roof. A vault is, indeed, a laterally conjoined series of arches. The arch of a bridge is, strictly speaking, a vault. Intersecting vaults are said to be groined. See *Groined Vaulting* for fuller description of vaults.

Verge. The edge of the tiling, slate or shingles, projecting over the gable of a roof, that on the horizontal portion being called eaves.

Verge Board. Often corrupted into Barge Board; the board under the verge of gables, sometimes molded, and often very richly carved, perforated, and cusped, and frequently having pendants, and sometimes finials, at the apex.

Vermiculated. Stones, etc., worked so as to have the appearance of having been worked by worms.


VERMICULATED

Vestibule. An anti-hall, lobby, or porch.

Vestry. A room adjoining a church, where the vestments of the minister are kept and parish meetings held. In American Protestant churches, the Sunday-school room is often called the vestry.

Viaduct. A structure of considerable magnitude, and usually of masonry, for carrying a railway across a valley.

Vignette. A running ornament, representing, as its name imports, a little vine, with branches, leaves, and grapes. It is common in the Tudor period, and runs or roves in a large hollow or casement. It is also called Trayle.

Villa. A country house for the retreat of the rich.

Volute. The convolved or spiral ornament which forms the characteristic of the Ionic capital. Volute, scroll, helix, and cauliculus are used indifferently for the angular horns of the Corinthian capital.

Voussoir. One of the wedge-like stones which form an arch; the middle one is called the key-stone.

Wainscot. The wooden lining of walls, generally in panels.

Wall Plates. Pieces of timber which are placed on top of brick or stone walls so as to form the support to the roof of a building.

Warped. Twisted out of shape by seasoning.

Water Table. A slight projection of the lower masonry or brickwork on the outside of a wall a few feet above the ground as a protection against rain.

Weather Boarding. Boards lapped over each other to prevent rain, etc., from passing through.

Weathering. A slight fall on the top of cornices, window-sills, etc., to throw off the rain.

Wicket. A small door opening in a larger. They are common in mediæval doors, and were intended to admit single persons, and guard against sudden surprises.

Wind. A turn, a bend. A wall is *out of wind* when it is a perfectly flat surface.

Wing. A side building less than the main building.

Withes. The partition between two chimney flues in the same stack.

ARCHITECTURAL TERMS AS DEFINED IN VARIOUS BUILDING LAWS

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Terms Defined

[*The following terms chance to be defined in sundry building codes, which are mentioned in each case. The fact that other codes are not mentioned is not necessarily a proof that the term is not also elsewhere in use as defined.*]

Adjoining Owner. The owner of the premises adjoining those on which work is doing or to be done. [*District of Columbia.*]

Alteration. Any change or addition except necessary repairs in, to, or upon any building affecting an external, party, or partition wall, chimney, floor, or stairway, and "to alter" means to make such change or addition. [*Boston and Denver.*]

Appendages. Dormer-windows, cornices, moldings, bay-windows, towers, spires, ventilators, etc. [*Chicago and Minneapolis.*]

Areas. Sub-surface excavations adjacent to the building-line for lighting or ventilation of cellars or basements. [*District of Columbia.*]

Attic Story. A story situated either in whole or in part in the roof. [*Denver and District of Columbia.*]

Base. "The *base* of a brick wall" means the course immediately above the foundation wall. [*Cincinnati and Cleveland.*]

Basement Story. One whose floor is 12" or more below the sidewalk, and whose height does not exceed 12' in the clear; all such stories that exceed 12' high shall be considered as first stories. [*Chicago and Louisville.*]

A story whose floor is 12" or more below the grade of sidewalk. [*Milwaukee.*]

A story whose floor is 3' or more below the sidewalk, and whose height does not exceed 11' in the clear; all such stories that exceed 11' high shall be considered as first stories. [*Minneapolis.*]

A story suitable for habitation, partially below the level of the adjoining street or ground.* [*District of Columbia and Denver.*]

(See **Cellar.**)

Bay-window. A first-floor projection for a window other than a tower-projection or show-window. [*District of Columbia.*]

Any projection for a window other than a show-window. [*Denver.*]

Bearing Walls. Those on which beams, trusses, or girders rest. [*New York and San Francisco.*]

Brick Building. A building the walls of which are built of brick, stone, iron, or other substantial and incombustible materials. [*Boston, Denver, and Kansas City.*]

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* And below the first floor of joists. [*District of Columbia.*]

Building. Any construction within the scope and purview of these regulations. [*District of Columbia.*]

Building Line. The line of demarcation between public and private space. [*District of Columbia.*]

Building Owner. The owner of premises on which work is doing or to be done. [*District of Columbia.*]

Business buildings shall embrace all buildings used principally for business purposes, thus including, among others, hotels, theaters, and office-buildings. [*Chicago, Louisville, Milwaukee, and Minneapolis.*]

Cellar. Basement or lower story of any building, of which one-half or more of the height from the floor to the ceiling is below the level of the street* adjoining.† [*Boston, Denver, and Kansas City.*]

Portion of building below first floor of joists, if partially or entirely below the level of the adjoining parking, street, or ground, and not suitable for habitation. [*District of Columbia.*]

Cement-mortar. A proper proportion of cement and sand without the admixture of lime. [*Kansas City.*]

Division Wall. One that separates part of any building from another part of the same building. [*Cincinnati and Cleveland.*]

Floor-bearing walls extending through buildings from front to rear, and separating stores and tenements in buildings or blocks owned by the same party. [*Minneapolis.*]

(See **Partition-wall.**)

Dwelling-house Class. All buildings except public buildings and buildings of the warehouse class. [*Cincinnati and Cleveland.*]

Shall not apply to buildings accommodating more than three families. [*San Francisco.*]

External Wall. Every outer wall or vertical enclosure of a building other than a party-wall. [*Boston, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Denver, District of Columbia, Kansas City, and Providence.*]

First Story. The story the floor of which is at or first above the level of the sidewalk or adjoining ground, the other stories to be numbered in regular succession, counting upward. [*Denver and District of Columbia.*]

Footing Course. A projecting course or courses under base of foundation wall. [*Cincinnati and Cleveland.*]

Foundation. That portion of wall below level of street curb,‡ and, where the wall is not on a street, that portion of wall below the level of the highest ground next to the wall. [*Boston, Kansas City, New York, and Providence.*]

Portion of exterior wall below surface of adjoining earth or pavement, and portion of partition or party wall below level of basement or cellar floor. [*District of Columbia and Denver.*]

Foundation, Basement, or Cellar Walls. That part of walls of building that is below the floor or joists, which are on or next above the grade line. [*Detroit.*]

Portion of the wall below the level of street curb, in front of the central line of building. [*San Francisco.*]

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* Ground. [*Providence.*]

† And not suitable for habitation. [*Denver.*]

‡ "And serve as supports for piers, columns, girders, beams, or other walls" [*New York.*]

Incombustible Scantling Partition. One plastered on both sides upon iron lath or wire cloth, and filled in with brickwork 8″ high from floor, provided the building is not over 80′ high. [*Chicago.*]

Incombustible Roofing. Covered with not less than three (3) thicknesses roofing-felt, and good coat of tar and gravel, or with tin, corrugated-iron, or other fire-resisting material with standing-seam or lap-joint. [*Denver.*]

Lengths. Walls are deemed to be divided into distinct *lengths* by return walls, and the length of every wall is measured from the center of one return wall to the center of another, provided that such return walls are external or party cross-walls of the thickness herein required, and bonded into the walls so deemed to be divided. [*Cincinnati and Cleveland.*]

Inflammable Material. Dry goods, clothing, millinery, and the like in stores, flyings or goods in factories, or other substance readily ignited by droppings or flyings from electric lights. [*Minneapolis.*]

Lodging-house. A building in which persons are temporarily accommodated with sleeping* apartments, and includes hotels. [*Boston and Kansas City.*]

Any building or portion thereof in which persons are lodged for hire for less than a week at one time. [*District of Columbia and Providence.*]

Any building or portion thereof in which persons are lodged for hire temporarily, and includes hotels. [*Denver.*]

Mansard Roof. One formed with an upper and under set of rafters, the upper set more inclined to the horizon than the lower set. [*Denver and District of Columbia.*]

Oriel Window. A projection for a window above the first floor. [*District of Columbia.*]

Partition. An interior division constructed of iron, glass, wood, lath and plaster, or other destructible natures. [*District of Columbia.*]

Partition-wall. Any interior wall of masonry in a building. [*Boston, Kansas City, and Providence.*]

An interior wall of non-combustible material. [*District of Columbia.*]

Any interior division constructed of iron, glass, wood, lath and plaster, or any combination of those materials. [*Denver.*]

(See **Division Wall.**)

Party-wall. Every wall used, or built, in order to be used, as a separation of two or more buildings.† [*Boston, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Denver, Kansas City, and Providence.*]

A wall built upon dividing line between adjoining premises for their common use. [*District of Columbia.*]

Parking. The space between the sidewalk and the building line. [*District of Columbia.*]

Parking Line. The line separating parking and sidewalk. [*District of Columbia.*]

Public Building. Every building used as church, chapel, or other place of public worship; also every building used as a college, school, public hall, hospital, theater, public concert-room, public ball-room, public lecture-room, or for any public assemblage. [*Boston, Chicago, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Denver Kansas City, and Minneapolis.*]

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* Staying apartments. [*Kansas City.*]

† To be used jointly by separate buildings. [*Cincinnati and Cleveland.*]

Such buildings as shall be owned and occupied for public purposes for this State, the United States, the corporation of the City of Brooklyn, or other public schools within said city. [*Brooklyn.*]

Public Hall. Every theater, opera-house, hall, church, school, or other building intended to be used for public assemblage. [*Milwaukee and Louisville.*]

Return Wall. No wall subdividing any building shall be deemed a **return wall,** as before mentioned, unless it is two-thirds the height of the external or party-walls. [*Cincinnati and Cleveland.*]

Shed. A skeleton structure for storage or shelter. [*District of Columbia.*]

Open structure, enclosed only on one side and end, and erected on the ground. [*San Francisco.*]

Open or closed board structure. [*Denver.*]

Show-window. A store-window in which goods are displayed for sale or advertisement. [*District of Columbia and Denver.*]

Square thereof. The square or level of the walls before commencing the pitch for roof. [*District of Columbia.*]

Standard Depth for Foundations. For brick and stone buildings, 14′ below curb line. [*San Francisco.*]

Standard Depth of Cellars. 16′, measured down from sidewalk grade at property line. [*Memphis.*]

Standard Iron Door. Made of No. 12 plate-iron, frame or continuous 2″ x 2″ x ⅜″ angle-iron, firmly riveted. Two panel doors, to have proper cross-bars, one panel on either side, fastened together with hooks or proper bolts top and bottom, and with not less than two lever-bars. All doors hung on iron frames of ⅜″ x 4″ iron, securely bolted together through wall, swung on three hinges, fitting close to frame all around; sill between doors, iron, brick, or stone, to rise not less than two (2) inches above floor on each side of opening. Lintel over door, brick, iron, or stone. Floors of basement, when doors are to swing, stone or cement, in no case wood. [*Denver.*]

Standard Skylight. Constructed of wrought-iron frames, with hammered or desk-light glass not less than ⅛″ thick; not larger than 10′ by 12′, except by special permission of the Inspector. [*Denver.*]

Storehouse. (See **Warehouse Class.**)

Street. All streets, avenues, and public alleys. [*Minneapolis.*]

Tenement-house. A building which, or any portion of which, is to be occupied, or is occupied, as a dwelling by more than three* families living independently of one another, and doing their cooking upon the premises. [*Boston, Denver, and Kansas City.*]

Or by more than two families† above the second floor, so living and cooking. [*Boston and Kansas City.*]

Building which shall contain more than two rooms in front on each floor, or which shall be built with a passage or arched way between distinct parts of the same building, or which building shall be intended for the separate accommodation of different families or occupants. [*Charleston.*]

Theater. Public hall containing movable scenery or fixed scenery which is not made of metal, plaster, or other incombustible material. [*Chicago, Louisville, and Milwaukee.*]

* *Two* instead of three. [*District of Columbia and Minneapolis.*]

† Upon one floor, but having a common right in the halls, stairways, yards, etc. [*Providence.*]

Thickness of a Wall. The minimum thickness of such wall.* [*Boston, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Kansas City, Milwaukee, and Providence.*]

Tinned Covered Fire-door. Wood doors or shutters, double thickness of wood, cross or diagonal construction, covered on both sides and all edges with sheet-tin, joints securely clinched and nailed. [*Denver.*]

Tower Projection. A projection designed for an ornamental door-entrance, for ornamental windows, or for buttresses. [*District of Columbia.*]

Vault. An underground construction beneath parking or sidewalk. [*District of Columbia.*]

Veneered Building. Frame structure, the walls covered above the sill by a 4' wall of brick, instead of clapboards. [*Common understanding in Chicago, Milwaukee, and Minneapolis, but not defined by law.*]

Warehouse Class. Buildings used for the storage of merchandise, manufactories in which machinery is operated, breweries, and distilleries. [*Cincinnati and St. Louis.*]

Width of buildings shall be computed by the way the beams are placed; the lengthwise of the beams shall be considered and taken to be the widthwise of the building. [*New York and San Francisco.*]

Wholesale store, or storehouse, shall embrace all buildings used (or intended to be used) exclusively for purpose of mercantile business or storage of goods. [*Chicago, Louisville, and Milwaukee.*]

Wooden Building. A wooden or frame† building. [*Boston, Kansas City, and Minneapolis.*]

Any building of which an external or party wall is constructed in whole or in part of wood. [*Denver and District of Columbia.*]

Having more wood on the outside than that required for the door and window frames, doors, shutters, sash porticos, and wooden steps, and all frame buildings or sheds, although the sides and ends are proposed to be covered with corrugated iron or other metal, shall be deemed a wooden building under this law. [*Charleston and Nashville.*]

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* As applied to solid walls. [*Minneapolis and Providence.*]

† Or veneered. [*Minneapolis.*]

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